



ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Meaning
ADB	Asian Development Bank
ANC	African National Congress
DLA	Department of Land Affairs
DRDLR	Department of Rural Development & Land Reform
ESCAP	Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
GEAR	Growth, Equity and Redistribution
IDPs	Integrated Development Plans
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
LRAD	Land Reform for Agricultural Development
NAMC	National Marketing Council
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PDIs	Previously Disadvantaged Individuals
PGDS	Provincial Growth and Development Strategy
PLAS	Pro-Active Land Acquisition Strategy
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
SLAG	Settlement for Land Acquisition Grant
TBVC states	Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda & Ciskei states
UNESCAP	United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific



UNCED

United Nations Conference on
Environment and Development

UNICEF

United Nations Children's Fund

UNDP

United Nations Development Programme

UNRISD

United Nations Research Institute for
Social Development

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LAND REFORM POLICIES TO PROMOTE WOMEN'S SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND AND OUTLINE TO THE STUDY	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 The basis for land allocation	1
1.3 Motivation for the study	4
1.4 Current Land Reform Programmes in South Africa	13
<i>1.4.1 Land Restitution Programme</i>	<i>14</i>
<i>1.4.2 Land Redistribution Programme</i>	<i>16</i>
<i>1.4.2.1 Settlement for Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG)</i>	<i>16</i>
<i>1.4.2.2 Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development</i>	<i>17</i>
<i>1.4.2.3 Pro-Active Land Acquisition Strategy</i>	<i>19</i>
<i>1.4.3 Land Tenure Reform Programme</i>	<i>20</i>



1.5	Problem Statement	22
1.6	Objectives of the research	29
1.7	Definition of key concepts	31
1.8	Framework for the study	34
1.9	Conclusion	37

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

2.1	Introduction	38
2.2	Public administration research	39
2.3	Qualitative research and its applicability to the study	43
2.4	Qualitative research types	46
2.4.1	<i>Case study</i>	52
2.4.2	<i>Unstructured interviewing</i>	58
2.4.3	<i>Documents as sources of data</i>	60
2.5	Ethical considerations in Public Administration research	62

2.6	Conclusion	66
------------	-------------------	-----------

CHAPTER 3

AN ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN RELATION TO LAND REFORM

3.1	Introduction	68
3.2	Background	68
3.3	The origin and development of Public Administration	71
3.4	The discipline of contemporary Public Administration	78
3.5	The sustainable development perspective in Public Administration	82
3.6	Conclusion	90

CHAPTER 4

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS IMPACTING ON WOMEN'S SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

4.1	Introduction	92
4.2	South African land policy framework	94
4.2.1	<i>The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)</i>	96

4.2.2	<i>The White Paper on South Africa Land Policy (WPSALP)</i>	102
4.2.3	<i>Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment</i>	107
4.3	International policy framework supporting women’s sustainable development	110
4.3.1	<i>Millennium Development Goals for women’s sustainable development</i>	112
4.3.2	<i>Gender 21</i>	118
4.3.3	<i>Agenda 21</i>	119
4.3.4	<i>The World Summit on Sustainable Development</i>	121
4.3.5	<i>The importance of International partners for women’s sustainable development</i>	122
4.4	Women’s sustainable development and the economic environment	123
4.4.1	<i>Production practices</i>	127
4.4.2	<i>Market related enterprise</i>	129
4.4.3	<i>Market access</i>	130
4.5	Women’s sustainable development and the cultural environment	130
4.5.1	<i>The role of women in the homestead</i>	131



4.5.2	<i>Women's role in the community</i>	133
4.6	Women's sustainable development and the social environment	134
4.7	Conclusion	136

CHAPTER 5

SELECTED CASES ON WOMEN'S SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT THROUGH LAND REFORM

5.1	Introduction	137
5.2	Criteria used in the identification of cases	139
5.3	Criteria pertinent to the demographics of each case	141
5.3.1	<i>Farm or land details</i>	142
5.3.2	<i>Details of beneficiaries</i>	142
5.3.3	<i>Details of the business</i>	144
5.4	An analysis of the cases	147
5.4.1	<i>Case 1 RESPL1: First LRAD case</i>	148
5.4.2	<i>Case 2 RESPL 2: Second LRAD case</i>	153
5.4.3	<i>Case 3 RESPP 1: First PLAS case</i>	156

5.4.4	<i>Case 4 RESPP 2: Second PLAS case</i>	161
5.4.5	<i>Case 5 RESPS 1: SLAG case</i>	163
5.5	Common characteristics observed on women within the cases	168
5.5.1	<i>Acquisition and awareness</i>	169
5.5.2	<i>Level of education versus productivity</i>	171
5.5.3	<i>Hectares grown for sales</i>	172
5.5.4	<i>Other enterprises owned for income</i>	173
5.6	Women's inputs towards sustainable production on farms	174
5.6.1	<i>Women's economically related inputs towards sustainability</i>	175
5.6.1.1	<i>Commitment of the participants</i>	175
5.6.1.2	<i>Knowledge of participants</i>	177
5.6.1.3	<i>The success of the participants</i>	178
5.6.2	<i>Socially related inputs from participants</i>	178
5.6.3	<i>Cultural aspects and women's inputs</i>	179
5.6.4	<i>Environmental aspects and women's inputs</i>	180

5.7	The role of government in sustaining women	180
5.8	International Land Reform experiences	183
5.8.1	<i>The South American land experience</i>	183
5.8.2	<i>Land cases in Zimbabwe</i>	185
5.8.3	<i>The Indian experience</i>	187
5.8.4	<i>Other SADC countries' land experiences</i>	190
5.9	International trends in women's access to land for sustainable development	194
5.10	Conclusion	197
CHAPTER 6		
A SYSTEMS MODEL FOR WOMEN'S SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT THROUGH LAND REFORM		
6.1	Introduction	199
6.2	The systems approach defined	200
6.3	The open systems model	201
6.4	The proposed systems model for women's sustainable development through land reform	205

6.4.1	<i>Political aspects for women’s sustainable development in land reform</i>	208
6.4.2	<i>Economic aspects for women’s sustainable development in land reform</i>	212
6.5.3	<i>Social aspects for women’s sustainable development in land reform</i>	215
6.4.4	<i>Technological aspects for women’s sustainable development in land reform</i>	216
6.7	Conclusion	220
 CHAPTER 7		
 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS		
7.1	Introduction	222
7.2	Specific conclusions regarding land reform for women’s sustainable development	223
7.2.1	<i>Conclusions regarding the research methodology</i>	224

7.2.2	<i>Conclusions regarding Public Administration and land reform</i>	225
7.2.3	<i>Conclusions regarding the environmental factors impacting on women's sustainable development</i>	226
7.2.4	<i>Conclusions regarding women and sustainable development</i>	227
7.2.5	<i>Conclusions regarding the selected cases</i>	228
7.2.6	<i>Conclusions regarding model</i>	228
7.3	Recommendations regarding policy	229
7.4	Recommendations for the factors that influence productivity	231
7.4.1	<i>Environmental recommendations</i>	232
7.4.2	<i>Recommendations regarding sustainability</i>	233
7.4.3	<i>Recommendations regarding women involved in</i>	

<i>land reform</i>	234
7.5 Specific recommendations	235
7.6 Recommendations for the future and further studies	240
<i>7.6.1 A sustainable production oriented settlement strategy</i>	241
<i>7.6.2 Targeted settlement and support</i>	241
7.7 Conclusion	242
References	245
Annexure A	271

LIST OF DIAGRAMS

Diagram 1.1: Number of women that have accessed land	25
Diagram 1.2: Key aspects that contribute to development	27
Diagram 1.3: An expression of people's needs and solutions	29
Diagram 3.1: The working field of a public official	74
Diagram 3.2: Three Pillars of Sustainability	84
Diagram 3.3: Effects of people on the environment towards development	88
Diagram 5.1: Levels of maize production on RESPL1 case	150
Diagram 5.2: Bar chart indicating level of area used versus total area Of the farm in years from acquisition on RESPP 1 case	159
Diagram 5.3: SWOT analysis in the South African cases	167
Diagram 5.4: A series of stages in a crop production field cycle	172
Diagram 6.1 : The open system model	203
Diagram 6.2: Process flow in terms of decision making institutions and Contributions from other institutions towards the same goal	204
Diagram 6.5: Outcomes of development	213
Diagram 6.6: Sustainable development as a result of joint government and people efforts within the systems model	219

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1 Distribution of females and males in South Africa	9
Table 2.1: Difference between concepts and variables	45
Table 2.2: Distinctions between quantitative and qualitative research methods	48
Table 4.1: Land transferred and beneficiaries 1994 – 2009	105
Table 4.2: Participants that received off-farm training and able to use the training on the farm	128
Table 5.1: Implementation differences between SLAG and LRAD	140
Table 5.2: Details of case participants that are common and contribute to their production activities on the farm	146
Table 5.3: Case 1 RESPL 1 Land acquisition details versus support	149
Table 5.4: Maize grown on hectares versus prices of maize from 2005 - 2010 on RESPL 1 case	151
Table 5.5: Performance of maize yield planted by RESPL 1 case and Maize prices	152
Table 5.6: Enterprises produced by RESPL 2 group	155
Table 5.7: Enterprises for RESPP 1 case	158
Table 5.8: Enterprises grown on RESPP 2 case	162
Table 5.9: Level of education in relation to age and production	166
Table 5.10: Year of acquisition and awareness table for all	169
Table 5.11: Status of members in the case	174

Table 5.12: Aspects used to determine the commitment of participants as their inputs towards sustainable farming	176
Table 5.13: Land policy framework for some SADC countries	190
Table 6.1: Government based inputs towards the systems model for land reform	206
Table 6.2: Non - Government based inputs towards the systems model for land reform	207
Table 7:1: The land reform roles for all three spheres of government	243

CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND AND OUTLINE TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The formulation and implementation of the Land Reform Policies is aimed at eradicating poverty and promoting equitable access to land and delivery on the call for growth and development. South Africa has experienced many years of colonialism. This has led to the unequal distribution of resources, including land. It has been 16 years since the country became democratic. This democracy means that all South Africans deserve equal services, equal access to resources – and redress in its totality.

The drafting and promulgation of several pieces of legislation have been necessitated as a result of the lack of equitable access to critical resources and services. Some of the relevant legislation (besides the White Paper on South African Land Policy of 1997) will be discussed in Chapter three of this thesis.

Government faces continuous challenges in terms of ensuring that the available resources and services are spread amongst those deserving – even though the number of deserving individuals increases at an alarming rate. This chapter will discuss the basis for land allocation, as it is described in the relevant Land Reform Policies. The motivation for the study, the problem statement, as well as the objectives of the study will be dealt with in this chapter. A discussion of the different Land Reform Programmes, as mandated by the policy, will be followed by the definition of specific key concepts. The last section of the chapter will describe the framework for the study.

1.2 The basis for land allocation

Evidence from across the world's main regions confirms that a close link exists between land policy and economic growth, as well as between poverty reduction and

empowerment (Deinenger, 2003:3). Those locked in the trap of poverty – mostly women are among those targeted by policies that aim to promote development initiatives.

According to the White Paper on South African Land Policy (1997:36), (hereafter referred to as *WPSALP*, 1997) work had to be undertaken by the then Department of Land Affairs (currently the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform - DRDLR) to allow potential beneficiaries an opportunity to access land as individuals, instead of focusing on group acquisitions only.

The selection criteria for land access by individuals intend to give priority to the marginalised and to the needs of women, in particular (*WPSALP*, 1997:36). The contact methods, processes and intervals before, during and after policy formulation are not clear as far as the involvement and participation of the policy beneficiaries are concerned. The *WPSALP* (1997:1) confirms that its formulation culminated from inputs obtained from thousands of delegates from all walks of life and from all parts of the country.

The *WPSALP* (1997: 36) is clear about its intentions, but rather vague regarding the implementation programmes and strategies. Generalisation is seen as one of the eligibility criteria in the Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD). This document states that men and women will have equal access to all benefits of LRAD, although women will be actively encouraged to apply (LRAD Implementation Manual for Provincial Land Reform Offices, 2004:7). Interest is on the engagement, if any, between the policy formulators and women, as those constituting a category of targeted land reform beneficiaries.

The assumption is that consultation on policy formulation is normally done effectively if it is convenient for the policy formulators in terms of the resources available. Resources include the budget allocated to a department during the financial year. This enables the implementation of services based on policy guidelines. Reasons for this presupposed lack of consultation range from the lack of proper communication channels that are

accessible by women, the lack of time between policy formulation and implementation, to the poor literacy levels of women expected to interpret these policies.

Land has been, and still is, one of the critical assets when addressing some of the key economic development issues, such as poverty reduction. This could result in empowerment, independence, equity, economic growth and environmental sustainability (Deinenger, 2003:3). According to Stabler (1975: 18), land as a factor of production can be considered in two ways: firstly, from an individual farm production perspective, and as being simply another form of capital; and secondly, in the wider context within which agriculture operates.

Land is a physical thing that incorporates the surface of the earth and all things attached to it - both above and below (Dale & McLaughlin, 1999: 1). The fact that land allocation and ownership are largely political issues puts those expected to deliver on it, as policy formulators and policy implementers, in a compromising situation. The policy formulators are compromised, especially in view of the wide range of stakeholders that should ideally be involved in policy dialogues. The policy implementers, as a result are likely to execute less popular policies due to the lack of a wide-enough consultative process.

Land is regarded as a critical resource; hence, the introduction of a *WPSALP* (1997) in an effort to realise the national Land Reform Programme's targets. The targets attempt to change the land ownership patterns in South Africa, wherein a minority of the citizens owned farms and the historically disadvantaged individuals (HDIs) provided labour to these farm owners. This is substantiated by Jeeves and Crush (1997: 28), who attest to the fact that any agricultural production has victims, as well as victors, and previous agricultural policies kept the workers in miserable, low-wage employment when they could have secured more productive and beneficial jobs elsewhere for themselves and the economy.

The starting point seems to be land policy – as part of the broader programme of integrated rural development aimed at redressing the injustices created in the past (Meer 1997: 6). The issues of achieving gender equity, empowerment and redress of the imbalance of land allocation, whether for purposes of social justice or development, are all highly political (Meer, 1997:7). The writer further advocates that women's oppression hides from public scrutiny because of the amount of time women spend inside the house making preparation for their family's household needs.

It is against this backdrop that studies such as this one become critical in highlighting the plight of equality for women.

1.3 Motivation for the study

Land Reform is a South African government programme which attempts to redistribute land in order to address the skewed patterns of land ownership in the past. Land ownership patterns were such that over 80% of the population was squeezed into the townships and ex-homeland areas (WPSALP, 1997: 25). The bulk of land was owned by the white minority, while the black majority had a lesser allocation as a result of the *Natives Land Act*, 1913 (Act 27 of 1913). According to De Villiers and Critchley (1997: 2), land reform is one of the most important and contentious issues facing South Africa in the post-apartheid era.

The topic of the thesis refers to the Land Reform Policies as opposed to only one Land Reform Policy (The White Paper on South African Land Policy of 1997) which was introduced later in an effort to integrate the three existing policies which later became programmes; Redistribution, Tenure Reform and Restitution.

- (i) The Land Redistribution Programme is based on *the Provision of Certain Land Rights for Settlement Act*, 1993 (Act 126 of 1993) and Section 25 (b) (5) of the *Constitution*, 1996, which provides for the designation of land for settlement purposes and financial assistance to people acquiring land for agricultural purposes.

- (ii) The Land Tenure Reform Programme which is based on the *Upgrading of Land Tenure Rights Act*, 1993 (Act 112 of 1993) and Section 25 (b) (6) of the *Constitution*, 1996, which avails and provides security of tenure in different ways to its beneficiaries.
- (iii) The Land Restitution Programme is based on the *Restitution of Land Rights Act*, 1994 (Act 22 of 1994) and Section 25 (b) (7) of the *Constitution*, 1996. The *Restitution of Land Rights Act, 1994 (Act 22 of 1994)* provides for the restitution of rights in land to those dispossessed of land in terms of racially based policies of the past.

This thesis will therefore make reference to the main Land Reform Policy (WPSALP, 1997) and the Redistribution Programme and its sub-programmes. The main challenge in the Land Reform Policy is how to redistribute land and prioritise specific categories of the community, and in this case, historically disadvantaged individuals (HDIs) without compromising agricultural development for sustainable livelihoods.

Government forums, such as the National Land Tenure Conference held on 26 – 30 November 2001, and the National Land Summit held in 2005, have emphasised the necessity to redress the country's racial imbalance in land ownership. The rationale for government intervention is based on the ability that government has, especially in terms of its available resources. This is the reason for the government's Land Reform Programme, much of which is explicitly redistributive. Additionally, an unpublished study commissioned by the then Department of Agriculture in 2005, entitled "The appraisal of land reform projects in Mpumalanga, Free State and the North West" yielded results that confirm the low levels of success in land reform projects (DOA, 2005). According to the results of the study on the appraisal of land reform projects, a number of good initiatives towards settling people on land for production and improved livelihoods have ended up in under-utilised farms. Some of the reasons for the under-utilisation and low productivity of lands range from the fact that settled beneficiaries did not view land ownership as a priority for their needs; or, implementation occurred before the people (beneficiaries) were ready to receive such.

It is clear from the above issues, that the need for proper consultation and needs-based settlement patterns is crucial in empowerment programmes, and the improvement of the lives of resource-poor people. The purpose of this study is to assess the role that the Land Reform Policy played towards improving women's sustainable development.

In 1976 surplus people from urban areas, including thousands of people from the Western Cape (which was declared a 'Coloured Labour Preference Area') were moved to the then Transkei and Ciskei homelands (Apartheid South Africa, 2008). Some of the laws had a negative developmental effect in ensuring women's access to land. These issues will now be briefly discussed:

- i) The *Group Areas Act*, 1950 (Act 41 of 1950), which forced a physical separation between the races by creating different residential areas for different races. This led to the forced removals of people living in wrong areas, for example, the removal of black people from areas, such as Sophia Town, Alexandra, New Clare to areas such as Soweto. These removals led to overcrowding in these latter areas and lowered economic activity due to the limited job opportunities – as a result of the cramped settlements.
- ii) The *Bantu Authorities Act*, 1951 (Act 68 of 1951), which provided for the establishment of black homelands and regional authorities – with the aim of creating greater self-governing homelands. The *Bantu Authorities Act*, 1951 further put pressure on land as a livelihood resource due to the highly populated villages within the homelands.
- iii) The *Natives Laws Amendment Act*, 1952 (Act 54 of 1952), which narrowed the definition of permanent residents in towns. Section 10 of the Act limited this to those who had been born in a town and had lived there continuously for not less than 15 years, or who had been employed there continuously for at least 15 years. The main aim of this Act was to control the influx of black people from the rural areas into urban areas. Its effects were more telling on the economic growth, as a result of employment losses, as opposed to putting pressure on land. The negative effects of development and growth were felt by the resource- poor.

- iv) The *Promotion of Bantu Self-Government Act*, 1959 (Act 46 of 1959), which classified black people into eight ethnic groups, whereby each ethnic group had a Commissioner-General who was tasked to develop a homeland for each. These homelands were allowed to govern themselves without white intervention. These homelands developed differentially towards achieving statehood – with the TBVC (Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei) states gaining “republic” status. The result of this encroachment on land was the over-utilisation of resources. The processes, as a result of this Act, led to non-sustainable developments. The effects could also be observed in terms overstocking and the products of poor quality land utilisation.
- v) The *Bantu Homelands Citizens Act*, 1970 (Act 26 of 1970), which compelled all black people to become citizens of the homeland that corresponded with their ethnic group, regardless of whether they had lived there or not, whilst their South African citizenship was removed indefinitely. Movements in and out of the areas which had attained full independence (TBVC states) were controlled through the use of travel documents to be presented at various border gates in terms of the requirements at that time. In the 1970s, more than three million people were forcibly resettled to black homelands (African History, 2008).
- vi) Other segregation laws were passed before 1948. This was before the National Party took complete power, and included the *Natives Land Act*, 1913 (Act 27 of 1913) and the *Natives (Urban Areas) Act*, 1923 (Act 21 of 1923). The *Natives Land Act*, 1913 (Act 27 of 1913) made it illegal for blacks to purchase or lease land from whites except in reserves. This state of affairs restricted black occupancy to less than eight percent (8%) of South Africa’s land (African History, 2008).

It must be noted that all the above legislative Acts existed at the time, but these have been chosen due to their relevance to the study in terms of the effects on skewed land ownership patterns and powers to segregate individuals. The history on the use of resources for sustainable development is relevant today, as it was during the 1960s. An additional matter to note is that these pieces of legislation do not make any reference to gender aspects in totality – let alone to women – as beneficiaries of land. The *Natives*

Land Act, 1913 (Act 27 of 1913) was introduced to prevent blacks, except those living in the Cape Province, from buying land outside the reserves.

As part of the administrative machinery, many institutions were set up to support and enforce the above-mentioned pieces of legislation. The main government institution which was responsible for the implementation of such policies was the Commissioner for Native Affairs, later renamed the Department of Bantu Affairs. This was then the department of Plural Relations. The above actions were implemented to ensure the segregation of communities and land allocations – which further removed any form of resource ownership by women (Christopher, 2001: 53).

The tension and turmoil that resulted because of these resettlement patterns had to be led by men, as the household heads and land owners. Women occupied secondary positions and only exercised their support of the men's efforts.

It was after 1994, and the first democratic election, that new approaches and programmes, such as the Rural Development Programme, were introduced. Such a programme is one of the few introduced to strike a balance between previous discriminatory legislation and the current legislation. The promulgation of the Rural Development Programme was the first step towards the establishment of a developmental state in South Africa. Many of the transformation initiatives that have been occurring in the past 15 years have been aimed at promoting and supporting the developmental state (Levin, 2009: 944).

As in any developmental state, government leads a strong concerted drive for economic growth, ensuring the mobilisation of national resources towards developmental goals (Levin, 2009: 944). The Land Reform Policy formed part of a spate of white papers that were released during the late 1990s, aimed at establishing conceptual frameworks for the realisation of the objectives set out in the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa*, 1996 (hereafter referred to as the *Constitution*, 1996) (Cameron & Thornhill, 2009: 898).

Since the advent of democracy in 1994, the issue at the heart of the land question in South Africa is how to reverse the phenomenon of landlessness amongst the historically disadvantaged majority of whom the bulk are women. The high figures for women are confirmed by a report released by Statistics South Africa in 1996. These showed more women than men in specific settlement categories. Table 1.1 illustrates the numbers of females versus males.

Table 1.1 The distribution of female and males in SA.

Settlement type	Female	Male	Difference
Urban: formal	9 233 374	8 666 083	567 291
Rural: tribal villages	8 079 765	6 696 978	1 382 787
Rural: farms	1 377 181	1 505 274	-128 093
Rural: hostels	33 569	200 929	-167 360
Urban: hostels	53 102	163 019	-109 917
Total difference	18 776 991	17 232 283	1 544 708

Statistics South Africa. 2007. The People of South Africa Population Census: Population Census 1996 by Province, Gender, Religion and Population group. Report number 03-01-11: Fifth edition. www.statsaa: 1996, Accessed on 31 March 2008.

The above table indicates the high numbers of women, specifically in rural areas where access to agricultural land is of the utmost importance to ensure survival and to contribute to empowerment and sustainable development. The scenario given by Statistics South Africa is such that in hostels and farms, where more labour is required; there are higher numbers of men, as opposed to women. Overall, women account for a larger segment of the population, as indicated in Table 1.1.

The imposition of systemic barriers preventing the poor from accessing land has been a key determinant in limiting the scope for their economic advancement (Deininger, 2003:2).

The main question that the *WPSALP* (1997) wanted to address was how the large-scale redistribution of land could contribute to the transformation of the South African economy, the reduction of poverty, and the empowerment of women in both rural and urban areas. Policy formulators, both before and after 1994, took an interest in that the contention that land reform could play a significant role in boosting economic growth and alleviating poverty; hence, the value attached to land ownership (Deinenger, 2003: 50).

According to Ntsebeza and Hall (2006:1), the extent to which indigenous people were dispossessed of their land by whites in South Africa under colonial rule and apartheid has no parallels on the African continent.

The need for land reform to redress the legacy of the past is clearly identified in Section 25 of the *Constitution*, 1996. This maintains that “*the state should take reasonable legislative and other measures within its available resources, to allow conditions which will enable citizens to access land equitably*”. The development of acts, policies and programmes, such as the *Restitution of Land Rights Act*, 1994 (Act 22 of 1994), provides for the restitution of rights to land to those dispossessed in terms of the racially based policies of the past.

The *Provision of Certain Land Rights for Settlement Act*, 1993 (Act 126 of 1993), provides for the designation of land for settlement purposes and financial assistance to people acquiring land for agricultural purposes, while the *Upgrading of Land Tenure Rights Act*, 1993 (Act 112 of 1993) and the *Labour Tenants Act*, 1996 (Act 3 of 1996) together form part of the legislation that intends to address the *WPSALP* (1997) goals towards ensuring secure tenure. Supportive policies include the South African Land Reform Policy (1997), Agricultural Black Economic Empowerment (AgriBEE, 2006).

These were coupled with the formation of programmes, such as Broadening Access to Agricultural Thrust (BATAT, 1996), Land Reform for Agricultural Development (LRAD, 2001), Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP, 2004), Micro-

Agricultural Finance Institutions of South Africa (MAFISA, 2006) and Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (ASGI SA, 2006). The remaining challenge has, and still is, to ensure that the transferred land adds value to the recipients of that land.

It has already been assumed, as stated in the *WPSALP* (1997: 6) that the Land Reform Programmes will be subject to serious constraints in their implementation. Specific constraints are obvious, due to the value attached to land as a productive and valuable resource.

Some foreseeable constraints have been confirmed by the *WPSALP* (1997: 6), including:

- (i) Macro-economic and fiscal constraints, in the sense that firstly, there is a series of needs and the resources for these are limited; and this ultimately, results in competing needs for those insufficient resources as far as their allocation is concerned. An additional end-result is that in an attempt to satisfy all such needs, these available resources are spread too thinly, and the impact thereof would hardly be visible. Service-delivery programmes and policies, such as the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP, 2004) and the *WPSALP* (1997) are expected to reverse the pre-1994 lack of support and success for the HDIs, as fast as possible. However, there are various needs in relation to what can be provided by these available resources.
- (ii) Constitutional constraints are based on the Constitution's property clause, which determines the parameters of government-introduced land reform measures, as stated in section 25 of the *Constitution*, 1996.
- (iii) Organisational limitations can highlight the weak organisation of rural people with limited capacity at rural and local government levels. Programmes like these would actually make a lot of difference in the lives of rural people due to the nature of their needs towards the use of natural resources and their interest in tilling the land. This demands little or no formal education, as opposed to those activities that depend on high levels of skills.

- (iv) Capacity constraints surface, as a result of the lack of delivery capacity due to insufficient personnel and inappropriate skills and the weakness of service agencies that are sometimes poorly funded. The current support personnel have not been exposed to deal with practical farming challenges, sizes and scales of farming. These are often too complex. The lack of farming knowledge and skills constitute a challenge to farmers, as well, because transactions for access to land are completed before support programmes are ready for the sustainable use of land.
- (v) A further constraint is the limited physical resources associated with the limited area of arable land with scarce water supplies, vulnerability to drought and the fragmented distribution of physical infrastructure on farms. The redistribution target of 30% by 2014 is a further challenge which still has to be reached.
- (vi) Governance constraints can be caused by the lack of co-ordination across sectors, because each department has its own ministry, and subsequently different mandates and priority areas. Control of land is a responsibility of one Minister, while the use of such land in a sustainable manner lies with a different Minister. Institutional constraints including high transaction costs, constraints in the operation of the land market and lack of access to financial services should have been foreseen. These constraints have posed serious challenges in the acquisition of land. The targeted beneficiaries of the land reform further lack collateral, which is normally a requirement of the financial institutions. Many of the previously disadvantaged individuals do not have resources that allow them to be productive with immediate effect on land, coupled with the fact that they are frequently overwhelmed by becoming owners of land for the first time in their lives.

The above elucidation on the Land Reform Programmes puts a challenge on the transfer of this valuable resource, in particular to individuals who can use it productively. Land as a developmental resource is of importance, whether for the rural or urban settings. In urban areas, land is still a prerequisite for urban development. The implementation of appropriate urban and rural land policies and land management practices is necessary in overcoming the primary cause of inequity and poverty (WPSALP, 1997: 6).

The intention of the research is to assess the extent to which the Land Reform Policy has contributed to women's access to land for sustainable development. Access to land for sustaining women's lives is part of the investigation, but the enquiry goes beyond supporting current lives, to supporting future lives.

1.4 Current Land Reform Programmes in South Africa

It is generally agreed that the African agrarian crisis is essentially a crisis about land (Bassett & Crummey, 1993:248). Competing needs for land, such as mining and housing are major competitors for the use of land for agricultural purposes. The other land uses tend to absorb more men than women. The land condition, its availability and productivity, is as a result of the organisation of labour, the state of agricultural technology, and the resilience of social ideologies that reinforce modes of access to and the control of such land (Bassett & Crummey, 1993:248).

Extreme population pressure, stagnation in agricultural productivity, current food shortages and deteriorating living conditions, especially in rural areas, put more pressure on the need for additional land. This resource has been proven to be scarce and in demand.

Lack of security of tenure affects millions of people across the world; women face added risks and deprivations as the tillers of land yet not owners. In Africa and South-Asia, especially, women are systematically denied their human right to access, own, control or inherit land and property (Benschop, 2004: 2). The vast majority of women cannot afford to buy land, and usually can only access land and housing through male relatives. This makes their security of tenure dependent on good marital and family relations. The lack of access to land is coupled with the lack of access to loans from banks, unless the husbands approve and are willing to provide collateral for such loans. At the same time, millions of women in Asia, Africa and Latin America depend critically on land for their livelihood.

According to Benschop (2004: 2), globally, an estimated 41% of female-headed households live below the locally defined poverty line, and close to one third of the world's women are homeless or live in inadequate housing. The exclusion of women from access to land and the lack of proper attention to their needs push them to the cities, where they often join the ranks of the increasing number of female-headed households in slum areas.

The South African Land Reform Policy 1997 is currently made up of three principal sub-programmes, namely: the Land Restitution Programme, the Land Redistribution Programme and the Land Tenure Reform Programme (*WPSALP*, 1997: 29). These Programmes have different aims, while the manner of implementation is equally different. The following elucidation serves to explain the three programmes briefly.

1.4.1 The Land Restitution Programme

The Land Restitution Programme is based on the *Restitution of Land Rights Act*, 1994 (Act 22 of 1994), which provides for the restitution of rights to land for those dispossessed of land in terms of the racially based policies of the past. Settlement of land claims under this Programme are in the form of restitution of whole or part of the original land, alternative land, monetary compensation or other forms of reparation acceptable to both the state and claimants.

Land Restitution involves returning land or compensating victims for land rights lost, due to racially discriminatory laws passed since 19 June 1913, some of which are described in section 1.2 above (*WPSALP*, 29). Land received through this Programme does not bind the claimants to any form of agricultural development, as the Programme is addressing the rights of citizens who were displaced due to previous legislation. There is no prescription from government on how the land should be utilised.

The use thereof is purely based on the needs and decisions of each Communal Property Association (CPA).

The CPA is one of the mandatory legal entities that receive land transfers, as stipulated by the land reform process. The expectation from government is that such decisions should be developmental and be to the benefit of all.

The initial process towards achieving restitution targets was settlement through the Land Claims Court. This, however, as stated in Section 28 I (4) (a) of the *Land Restitution of Land Rights Act, 1994* (Act 22 of 1994), has proved to be tedious and slow because the President of the Court had to, in consultation the Minister of Justice appoint one or more persons to undertake such duties as determined by the Court. To this effect *the Land Restitution of Land Rights Act, 1994* (Act 22 of 1994) was amended through the insertion of Section 42D, which empowered the then Minister of Agriculture and Land Affairs to settle claims and award grants in cases where agreements had been reached between the stakeholders.

The *Land Restitution of Land Rights Act, 1994* (Act 22 of 1994) aims to settle the claims of victims of repossession. These claimants are a combination of both men and women. The claiming process is led by men; this is normal because original land parcels were registered in men's names as the household head. Past land policy initiatives that were based on a unitary model of the household failed to recognise the importance of how such assets, in particular land, is assigned within the household (Deinenger, 2003: 57).

Deinenger (2003:57) further states that assigning land according to the household head has resulted in the total neglect of women's rights. This violates the basic norms of equality and women's right of access to assets and income to provide for their household nutritional requirements. This Programme, therefore, is used in this study for reference purposes only – as one of the key land reform Programmes in South Africa. It will not form part of the case study discussed, as it is not used in relation to its impact on the sustainable development of women.

1.4.2 The Land Redistribution Programme

The Land Redistribution Programme is based on *the Provision of Certain Land Rights for Settlement Act, 1993 (Act 126 of 1993)*. This programme provides for the designation of land for settlement purposes, and financial assistance to people acquiring land for agricultural purposes. The introduction of this Programme was aimed at ensuring that land is bought and transferred to groups initially, and later to qualified individuals as well. Five Sub-Programmes were introduced: Settlement for Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG); Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD); Equity Share; the Commonage Scheme; and the Pro-Active Land Acquisition Scheme (PLAS).

The Commonage Scheme has been discontinued and a moratorium has been put on the Equity Share. SLAG and LRAD will be discussed because of their relatedness to the matters of sustainable development. Their introduction and continued existence were aimed at utilising land for agricultural purposes.

1.4.2.1 Settlement for Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG)

The first version of the Land Redistribution Programme, implemented from 1995, involved the then Department of Land Affairs (DLA) providing a Settlement for Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG) to assist the poor with land purchases. The R15 000 grant had challenges in terms of its benefits, which were intended to cater for groups of people on one farm. Most beneficiaries felt that the grant was far too small for their agricultural needs (WPSALP, 1997: 3). Group interests differed in terms of what land should be used for whatever enterprise and conflict ensued when priorities had to be set. These differences led to the failure of most of these projects (LRAD Manual, 2001: 12).

Observations made from the SLAG programme were that: firstly, acquisition was through large groups of applicants, since farms were expensive. As a result, large group conflicts persistently ensued and delayed any efforts towards the productive use of

these farm acquisitions. Even though the establishment of such groups was guided by the formation and registration of legal entities – mainly the Communal Property Associations (CPAs), no production activities occurred and there was no development for or by the newly settled land owners. Secondly, a larger percentage of project members in the SLAG groups were women, because of their availability at the homesteads.

The SLAG had attempted to provide land to the previously disadvantaged, but productivity and improved livelihoods were not as evident. Reference to this Programme is made because of its contribution towards increased access to land by women. Access to land did not contribute to women's empowerment and development; hence, the introduction of LRAD, which is briefly discussed in the following section.

1.4.2.2 *The Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD)*

Programme

The Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD) Programme is aimed at promoting access to land for the poor, for labour tenants, farm workers and women, as well as emergent farmers (WPSALP, 1997: 29). The LRAD Programme may be regarded as being of particular interest, as it is the only Programme specifically aimed at transforming the racial patterns of land ownership for agricultural development and sustainable development.

The Programme is the focus of this study because the use of such acquired land and other related resources towards sustainable development, are relevant to the research. The WPSALP (1997:30) stipulated that land redistribution would be implemented through a willing buyer – willing seller principle. A redistributed land transfer occurs only between a white and willing seller and a black and willing buyer, not from a black, willing seller to a black, willing buyer or from a white, willing seller to a white, willing buyer.

A land sale between a black seller and a black buyer does not contribute to land redistribution statistics. The LRAD Manual (2001: 7) was the tool used to guide the implementation of this Programme.

Section 3.1 of the LRAD Manual (2001) states that, one of the principles of the LRAD Programme was to expand growth and development opportunities for women and young people who were residing in rural areas.

A further eligibility criterion, according to section 3.2 of the Manual (2001), states that men and women will have equal access to all benefits of LRAD, and women will be actively encouraged to apply.

The above statements are not descriptive as to how women would be encouraged to apply or even how opportunities would be expanded for women to access land more easily. The assumption was that at the implementation level of any Programme details on how to achieve the originally stated goals would be more descriptive and specific – to allow for a proper evaluation of the results.

The LRAD programme was introduced in 2001 to address some of the challenges experienced with the implementation of SLAG. Based on the *Provision of Certain Land Rights for Settlement Act, 1993 (Act 126 of 1993)*, the main provisions were to provide land to individuals and smaller groups who could afford to make their own contribution towards land acquisition transactions. The main approach towards implementing this programme was reducing the number of people from large groups, as assisted by SLAG, to manageable smaller groups. The use of land for agricultural production is the main thrust of this programme; hence, the name Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD).

LRAD improved challenges posed through SLAG, by reducing the large groups to lower numbers of between 10 and 20 members per piece of land acquired.

The purchase of land by individuals is still not possible through the grant, because land prices are still very high in relation to the LRAD grant given per individual. In an attempt to address this lack of funds for permanent land purchases, women used land in and around public places, such as schools, churches and clinics to produce food to provide for their family's nutritional requirements.

The use of such public land is as a result of – amongst others -- the women's urgent need for land, which through LRAD could not be acquired as soon as their need for the use of such land dictated. Land purchase transactions involve money from government grants, and often a top-up bank loan is essential to meet the asking price. Transactions require that household heads, mainly husbands who have formal employment in cities, provide collateral or endorse the transactions. This support from men is often a challenge, because they do not form a part of these transactions from the beginning, but they are expected to provide finance-related assistance to their women partners.

1.4.2.3 *The Pro-Active Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS)*

The Pro-Active Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS) has been used to acquire land where the state has to hold the land in its capacity as owner, but such land is leased to prospective farmers with an option to purchase. The option to purchase is exercised in cases where the farms are productive and successful. This process is facing challenges due to the lack of any proper co-ordination in supporting these PLAS farms. Farmers face the challenge of losing the renewal of their lease contracts due to their minimal usage of the land, and due to financial institutions that are reluctant to issue loans because of the lack of ownership status on the part of the land users.

The PLAS has been introduced to accelerate land reform targets in terms of the number of hectares that the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) acquires, especially towards the national target of redistributing 30% of all agricultural land by 2014. In relation to PLAS, there is no mention of any target beneficiaries, as has been generally advocated by the *WPSALP* (1997).

The assumption is that, as stated in section 3.2 of the LRAD Manual (2001:7), which commits to improving the opportunities for women to gain access to land, women should be assisted to take the opportunity presented through PLAS.

In PLAS, land is transferred to the state, and farmers then lease the land for a period of three years. If they prove to be successful in their farming operations, they are given an opportunity to buy the land from the state.

This principle may well become successful, but careful consideration of the land reform target to redistribute 30% of agricultural land by 2014 should be taken. The PLAS has the same requirements as those of LRAD and SLAG Programmes in terms of land utilisation for production. The PLAS will be discussed for comparison purposes as a case study, when looking at the older land acquisition approaches versus the new approaches. The main interest is the focus of these Programmes on women's empowerment and sustainable development.

1.4.3 The Land Tenure Reform Programme

The Land Tenure Reform Programme provides security of tenure in different ways to its beneficiaries. The forms of tenure can be the awarding of independent land rights to secure lease agreements through protection against eviction, by membership of a group-based system of land rights or through private ownership (*WPSALP*, 1997: 52). This intervention came about as a result of the lack of proper protection of the already landless individuals, especially farm workers who often provide labour for these farms for long periods without any form of ownership.

The Land Tenure Reform Programme will not form part of this study, as it has been included in this section as one the five main Land-Reform Sub-Programmes.

The Programmes discussed above were intended to provide access to land for the people of South Africa. However, the framework for land ownership should be comprehensive, while still being flexible on the different options. Depending on the population and its economic status, the level of infrastructural development and the

readiness to receive such a resource need to be borne in mind (Deinenger, 2003:36). As highlighted by the study commissioned by the then Department of Agriculture in 2005 (and discussed in section 1.3), the appraisal study of land reform projects in Mpumalanga, Free State and the North West yielded results that confirm the low levels of success in Land Reform Projects (DOA, 2005).

The lack of successful production on land which has already been acquired for groups, is an indication that there is little to no progress on land acquisitions that settle groups, as opposed to individual settlements. Settlement patterns through the LRAD and SLAG were intended to ensure that the land is used for agricultural production. Appropriate land-use practices are crucial for the sustainable use of such. Produce yielded by the land is aimed at sustaining livelihoods for the current and future generations.

Clearer strategies on how to improve productivity and empower the land users are clearly necessary.

The Land Tenure Programme is based on the *Upgrading of Land Tenure Rights Act*, 1993 (Act 112 of 1993). This Act was the first attempt to address the issues of tenure affecting the historically disadvantaged individuals (HDIs). The main focus of the Act was on large groups, such as tribal areas, but it was not accommodating individuals and smaller groups living under insecure tenure on land not belonging to them. *The Labour Tenants Act*, 1996 (Act 3 of 1996), which provided for the upgrading of various forms of tenure and purchase of land by labour tenants and the provision of subsidies towards this end, closed the gap.

Secure tenure is a necessity for all; women and men receive comfort from knowing that their settlement is guaranteed. These Acts ensured that there is provision of secure land for all. Again there is here a generalisation in the requirement for land. Deinenger (2003:9) confirms that secure property rights justify further investment in such properties; and as a result, sustainable resource management is realised. Ownership of property, such as land should contribute to the sustainable use of such.

According to the *WPSALP* (1997:30), the government's approach involves a single, yet flexible, redistribution mechanism which can embrace a wide range of land reform beneficiaries, including the very poor, labour tenants, farm workers, women, individuals and new entrants to agriculture. As stated earlier, the *WPSALP* (1997: 30) was emphatic in stating that land redistribution would be implemented through a willing buyer-willing seller principle, in terms of which land would be acquired through purchases at market rates from owners who agreed to sell.

At the time of writing this thesis, there is still no agreement on how to replace the willing buyer - willing seller principle. The slow rate of success on the willing buyer - willing seller acquired land has led to the current discussions on the review of this principle.

These discussions entail aspects of whether land should be owned or leased for production; hence, the introduction of the Pro-Active Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS) by the then Department of Land Affairs. PLAS was briefly discussed in section 1.4.2.3 above. A discussion of PLAS as one of the case studies in Chapter Five is further intended to clarify the relationship between the initial land acquisition programmes and the latest ones.

1.5 The Problem Statement

The post-1994 *WPSALP* (1997: 56) is emphatic on targeting women as primary beneficiaries of the land reform processes. The *WPSALP* (1997:12) states that a key contributing factor to women's inability to overcome poverty is their lack of access to, and rights in regard to land. Discriminatory and social practices are responsible for these inequalities. Legal restrictions also impede women's access to land and the financial services needed to develop it (*WPSALP*, 1997: 12). It is, however, a positive coincidence that Section 9 of the *Constitution*, 1996 confers the right to equality before the law and the right to equal protection and benefits from the law.

Access to land and security for credit are vital components of sustainable development and good land management practice; consequently, every state needs to ensure that efficient and effective land administration mechanisms are in place (Dale & McLaughlin, 1999:1).

The National Land Tenure Conference held at the Durban International Convention Centre from 26 – 30 November 2001, identified the discrimination against women as one of the key land tenure reform issues. Women have been discriminated against by tribal authorities, colonial and apartheid administrative rulings and laws, and under private tenure in terms of family law and inheritance provisions (Roth, *et al.*, 2004: 32). Roth *et al.* (2004: 357) also acknowledge that land reform is not solely and primarily concerned with the productive use of land, but is also for residential purposes, and there is a further reality that not all households are headed by men.

Women are singled out as the largest group by legislative and policy framework, but an identified challenge is the interpretation and implementation of a policy by programme managers and applicants (Roth *et al.*, 2004: 357).

Various gender activists (Hall, 1998; Hargreaves and Meer, 2000 & Walker, 1998), together with institutions in South Africa (such as African Gender Institute; National Land Committee (NLC) and Rural Legal Centre), have outlined various gaps ranging from policy implementation that have contributed to the gender agenda not being realised by either State institutions or civil society in land reform.

All government departments should ensure positive inputs into these legislative requirements. Studies such as this one, will propose ways and means to add value to these prescriptions.

The 1994 Reconstruction and Development Programme Policy proposed that land redistribution should target women, especially in terms of redesigning institutions, practices and laws that discriminated against women's access to land in the past.

This is confirmed by the *WPSALP* (1997), as quoted by Walker (1998:13), that specific strategies and procedures must be devised to ensure that women are enabled to participate fully in the planning and implementation of land reform projects.

It is critical to find a balance on how to revitalise the economy, while reducing the gross inequalities of income and economic opportunities that exist for all. According to Zimbabwe News Ladder (2008), to date land reform measures in Zimbabwe have not achieved major shifts in access and ownership, especially for women.

Very little land has been redistributed or transferred, and gender equity has not been reached in terms of land reform (Zimbabwe News Ladder, 2008). Mokgope (2000:20) argues that gender is always associated with women, while gender relations always highlight the truth that women are more discriminated against and disadvantaged, when compared with men; and the common route should be to upgrade women's status to that of men.

The notion is that more attention is still given to men; hence, isolating women from the mainstream, which is usually male-dominated (Mokgope, 2000:20). Escalating this issue to the policy level is being challenged by Mokgope (2000:20), as contributing to the further isolation of women. Hall (2004:16) argues that there has been little assessment of land reform on gender relations between women and men in households and communities, especially in terms of finding out who controls the land and resources as well as the income derived from the land use. This is a view that needs to be investigated and further proven by land reform related engagements, such as this study.

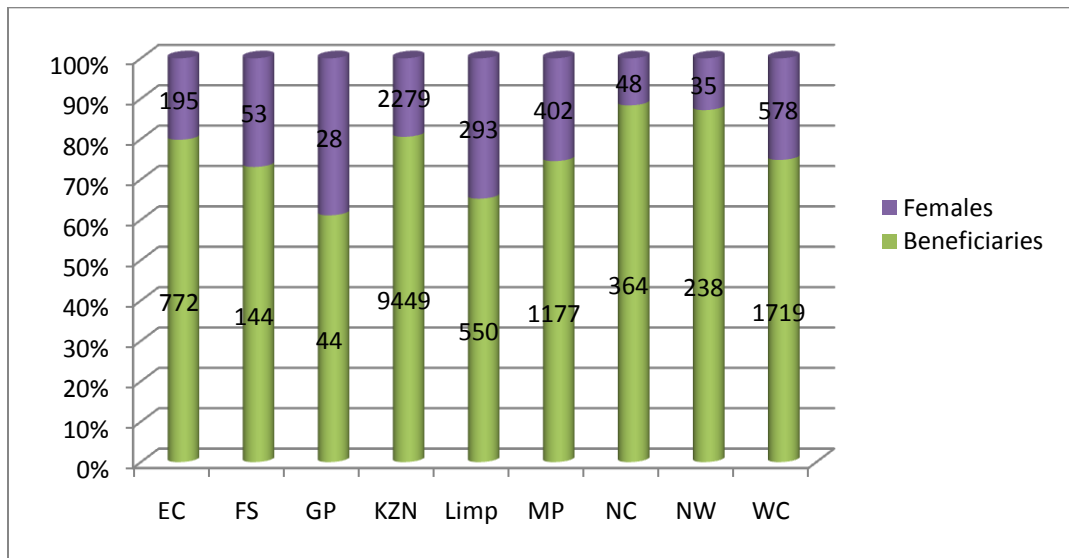
Various Land Reform Programmes, as discussed earlier, were subsequently developed to address the historically skewed land reform patterns in South Africa. There has been some progress since 1995 in delivering land to the HDIs, and funds have been spent towards realising this goal.

To this end, the research question, therefore, that emanates from the statement and will be the focus of this study throughout, is as follows:

How has the Land Reform Policy and its related Programmes contributed to the promotion of women’s sustainable development in South Africa?

The diagram below illustrates the number of women who had access to land in relation to the total number of individuals who had benefited from land reform in the 2008/09 financial year.

Diagram 1.1: The number of women who have accessed land relative to the total number of individuals in all the Land Reform Programmes in the year 2008/09



Source: Department of Land Affairs (now Department of Rural Development & Land Reform) March 2008-April 2009 Annual Report: 34.

The diagram above illustrates that in all the provinces women’s access to land is low relative to the overall performance of the province. A random calculation on some provinces (EC: 25%; KZN: 24%; NC: 13% and NW: 14%) of the total number of beneficiaries of land reform confirms the low percentage of women that have accessed

land. Irrespective of whether or not women engage in agricultural production for their sustainable development, independent asset ownership will considerably enhance their livelihood opportunities; they can use land ownership to gain access to credit that would allow them to establish small enterprises or engage in other non-agricultural projects (Deinenger, 2003:58).

It may be deduced from the above illustration that even though these Land Reform Policies and Programmes were introduced immediately after 1994, not much has been achieved in terms of empowering women through land ownership.

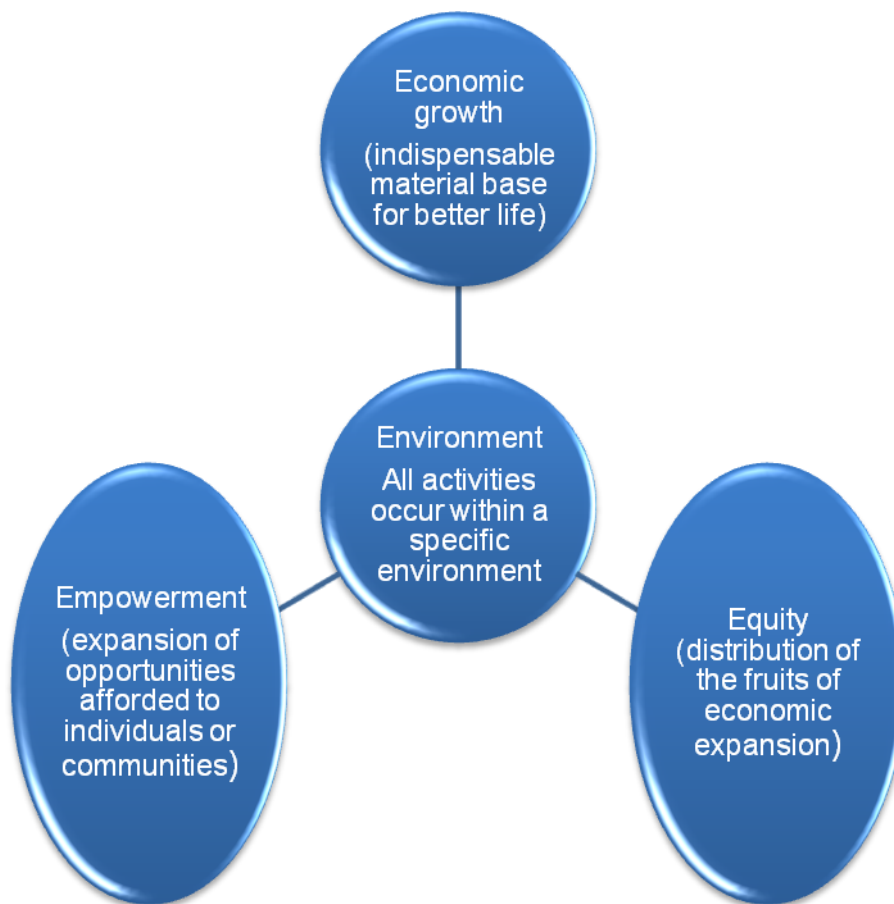
The study is motivated by the importance of harmonising the policy intentions and the practical implementation in the form of programmes aimed at achieving the objectives embodied in the policy.

The key concepts that will be of importance in this study are land reform and its relation to economic growth, equity, environmental aspects and empowerment, as depicted in Diagram 1.2 below. Jeppe and Van Baalen (1995) in Cloete and Mokgoro, (1995:31) define economic growth as the indispensable material base for a better life; equity is defined as the fair distribution of the fruits of economic expansion; while empowerment is the expansion of opportunities afforded to communities and individuals to participate and be influential in economic and political transactions.

Environmental aspects are critical in all people-related development – to ensure the sustainable use of resources and benefits for future generations. Narayan (2002:15) defines empowerment as the process of exposing poor people's capabilities to opportunities that allow them to participate, negotiate, influence and hold institutions accountable – which are responsible for their development and improved livelihoods. Successful interventions are critical issues when addressing the challenges that women face in terms of benefiting from the Land Reform Policy for their economic growth, equity, empowerment and environmental growth for sustainable development.

The focus of the study is to make an informed enquiry into the past and present land reform processes, as they apply to women, against the existing policies and legislative provisions regulating land redistribution, and thereafter, to develop recommendations on how the process needs to be improved.

Diagram 1.2: Key aspects that contribute to women's development



Source: Adapted from Cloete, F. & Makgoro, J. (eds.). 1995. *Policies for Public Service Transformation*. Kenwyn: Juta & Co. (Ltd). p31

Diagram 1.2 above illustrates the importance of the distribution of the results or consequences of any economic growth. A positive growth that does not have the ability to sustain the current and future generations equally, tends to lack the totality of sustainable development aspects. Development initiatives should take consideration of the environmental conservation within which such development occurs.

According to Roberts (1995:1), the environment should be regarded as one of the dominant factors in the development and implementation of the business strategies, and an essential element in the cultivation of the relationship between a production unit and its location.

Recently, there has been some awareness and appreciation of the depth, breadth and seriousness of the environmental consequences that resulted from previous eras of economic growth (Roberts, 1995:2). Empowered communities are able to realise that the environment is not merely a provider of free goods, but it is the originator of finite and precious resources.

Walker (1998: 13) quotes the WPSALP (1997) as stating that:

“Specific strategies and procedures must be devised to ensure that women are enabled to participate fully in the planning and implementation of land reform projects (DLA, 1997a:vii). Government will uphold the provisions of the Constitution, 1996, which outlaws discrimination against women. Within the Redistribution Programme, this will require the removal of legal restrictions on women’s access to land, the use of procedures which promote women’s active participation in decision-making, and the registration of land assets in the names of beneficiary household members, not solely in the name of the household head (DLA, 1997a: ix)”. The importance of a stakeholder-inclusive process towards planning and implementing the land reform policy has always been, and still is, critical towards the realisation of the sustainability goal.”

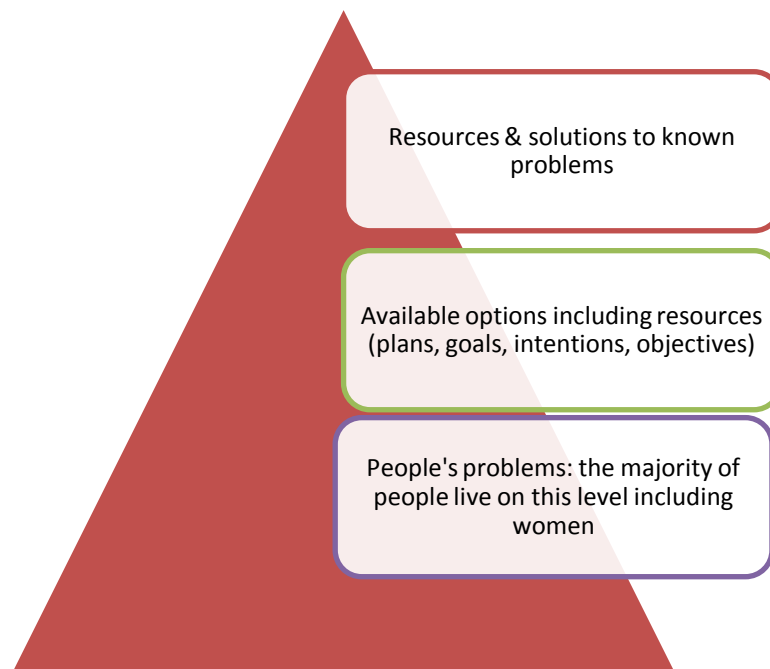
The WPSALP (1997) had to ensure that all the previous imbalances, concerning land acquisitions are addressed fairly and equitably. By the end of 2000, the Ministry of Agriculture and Land Affairs had approved 484 projects under the SLAG Programme, transferring 780,407 hectares to 55,383 people, with some 14% headed by women (Education Training Unit, 2001). It must be noted that the SLAG Programme started in 1996; however, as of 2000, less than a million hectares had been delivered.

The delay faced by the Redistribution Land Reform Programme demands another look at all Land Reform Programmes, both old and new.

1.6 Objectives of the research

The rationale for the Land Reform Policy is to address the skewed land ownership patterns in South Africa. The Policy emanated from the lack of equal access to resources – especially by women, youth and people with disabilities who were marginalised prior to 1994. Diagram 1.3 depicts the bulk needs in terms of people *versus* resources available to meet those needs.

Diagram: 1:3: An expression of people's needs and their solutions



The needs of people are portrayed in the form of a pyramid, and there are more needs than there are available resources to address them. These needs are expressed by communities, while the resources to address these are held by government, as far as land is concerned.

Departments further re-allocate these resources on behalf of government to communities. The different government departments are given specific portfolios, as mandated by the Cabinet, to deal with several community needs.

There is a need for strong collaboration and co-operation between the numbers of departments available, because they cannot single-handedly deal with these needs.

The study examines to what extent the sustainable development needs of women have been met by the introduction of the Land Reform Policy and its Programmes.

The Policy applicable to the different Land Reform Programmes has been looked at with specific focus on the years 2000 to 2008/9. Information that is related to the study topic and falls outside the study period will be included whenever its use adds value to the research and its findings.

The *WPSALP* (1997) formulation and implementation, and particularly its prescription with regard to Land Reform Programmes and their contribution to improving women's livelihoods for sustainable development, will be interrogated in relation to the women's contribution towards the success of the Policy. The research objectives will be a critical analysis of the Land Reform Policy for purposes of:

- (i) providing clarity and input on the Land Reform Policy-related factors impacting on the sustainable development of women as beneficiaries of land reform;
- (ii) establishing an understanding on the impact that the implementation of Land Reform Programmes have had on the sustainable development of women beneficiaries; and
- (iii) proposing a model that factors in women's contribution in policy for the sustainable development of women who have benefited from land reform.

The study makes an enquiry into the level and ability of women to participate in decisions that affect their development and lives.

Successful and purposeful development should be able to sustain itself even after the supporting mechanism has been withdrawn.

1.7 Definition of key concepts

The definition of key concepts used in the text clarifies the applicability of such concepts in the thesis. Concepts might have different meanings and usage to different users, but the definitions here will indicate how such concepts should be interpreted and used for the purposes of this study.

1.7.1 Public Administration

Public administration refers to what government does to develop and implement public policy (LeMay, 2006: 11). Public Administration may be defined as the art and science of management, as it is applied to the public affairs of state (Waldo, 1955, as quoted by Rosenbloom, *et al.*, 1994: 4). These writers further provide clarity on the argument of whether public administration is an art or science. As an art, Public Administration's nature comprises intangibles, such as judgment and leadership; and as a science, it generates and evaluates knowledge through scientific methods. Waldo (1955, as quoted by Rosenbloom *et al.*, 1994:5) further provides clarity on the usage of the words Public Administration: (i) an area of intellectual inquiry, a discipline or study, and; (ii) a process or activity which entails administering public affairs.

The study of Public Administration, and its applicability to everyday life as an activity, is as important as its study as a discipline, because the activity is important as a science and as an art. Public administration is the action of government whereby the interests, goals and purposes of government are realised (Rosenbloom, *et al.*, 2009:4). Rosenbloom *et al.* (2009: 4) further define public administration as a co-operative and co-ordinated group effort in a public setting which involves all three branches of the public arena: the legislative, executive and judicial, as well as their interrelationships.

Public administration is the executive branch of government (Fox & Meyer, 1995). An in-depth enquiry into the field of public administration demonstrates the level of engagement that should go into the discipline of how the generic functions relate to the

fulfillment of daily activities. Shafritz (2004: 236) defines public administration as whatever government does.

Public administration as an activity is the totality of the employee's day as a bureaucrat (Shafritz, 2004: 236). Roux, *et al.* (1997: 8) regard public administration as comprising six generic functions, namely: policy-making, organising, financing, staffing, the development of work procedures, and control.

In the context of this study, Public Administration can be defined under two scenarios. The first scenario comprises the activities that government has undertaken towards the realisation of land reform. A need for redistribution has been received and nationally acknowledged. Government, as the recipient of such community needs, has the ability to provide resources and to make a commitment to ensure the realisation of the land redistribution to all the HDIs.

Actions, in the form of the Land Reform Policy establishment with its related programmes, have been developed. Resources, in the form of funds and capacity, have been allocated to ensure the realisation of the set Policy and the Programmes. The second scenario is the procedural, organised / formal and consultative process that government is compelled to undergo in providing platforms for the establishment of various policies and programmes and their implementation. The inclusion of stakeholders, such as research and academic institutions, ensures that these policies and programmes become scientific and professional.

1.7.2 Land Reform

Land reform is a government programme which is intended to redistribute land in South Africa – in order to address the skewed patterns of land allocation. The case of South Africa illustrates that land reform is one of a number of ways to increase access to land and productive assets for the poor (Deinenger, 2003: 150).

According to de Villiers and Critchley (1997: 2), land reform is one of the most important and contentious issues facing the new South Africa. The main challenge in the policy is how to redistribute land and prioritise specific categories of the community (HDIs), without compromising agricultural development which could lead to sustainable development. For the purpose of this research, the concept will be defined as a government programme that has been introduced to enable the HDIs to access land, in particular women, youth and people with disabilities.

The focus of this study is thus on women as the beneficiaries of land reform.

1.7.3 Sustainable Development

Sustainable development is known as development that benefits the current generation, without compromising the benefits of the future generations (Norgaard, 1994:17). Development that is considered to be sustainable is development that addresses the social, economic and environmental objectives of any given society. According to the World Commission on Environment and Development (1987, in Bhaduri & Skarstein, 1997: 142) sustainable development implies that current generations should satisfy their needs without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs.

The level at which future generations can meet their needs depends on the assumption that the current generation will utilise resources in a sustainable manner (Bhaduri & Skarstein, 1997: 142). Sustainable development should not be mistaken for environmental sustainability – even though all sustainable development has elements of environmentally friendly issues, and addresses the environment as one aspect of development. Hitchcock and Willard (2007:6) maintain that sustainability may be seen as having three realms: the economic, the social and the environmental. Efforts towards sustainability aim to optimise all these three realms, instead of having them working against each other (Hitchcock & Willard, 2006:8). Sustainable development can only succeed if proper and effective development and the utilisation of resources are incorporated into the policies and processes (Fox & Van Rooyen, 2004:141).

The Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) (2008) further emphasises the importance of sustainable development for sustained livelihoods – by sharing the definition of *sustainable* which comes from Latin *sustinere* (*to hold up from below*) and *development* from Old French *dis+veloper*, which means *the process of unwrapping or bringing out the capabilities and possibilities of something*.

It is against the above definitions that land acquisition and its use for productivity may be seen as a resource that should be used with caution. Land provides a medium for the existence of all creatures. Land can be used by one generation after the other, if it is utilised in an economic and environmentally friendly manner.

The basis for land reform has until now been to empower HDIs, to promote their development, and to share in the wealth of the country's resources. It is assumed that the use of land will be done in a sustainable manner that allows equal opportunities for the current and future generations. The Land Redistribution Programme, in particular, is meant to promote the agricultural usage of land. Continuous use of land for production should not be realised at the expense of the future user's benefits.

As indicated above, public administration refers to what government does to develop and implement public policy. Government should ensure that the implementation of a public policy, such as the Land Reform Policy should not benefit the current HDIs only, whilst disadvantaging the future communities.

1.8 A framework for the study

This chapter deals with the background to this study, as well as briefly describing what each Land Reform Programme entails. Discussions on the motivation of the study, the problem statement and the study objectives are dealt with in this chapter – to delineate the focus of the research topic. The chapter highlights the problem statement and research questions which form the basis for the research; and furthermore, it guides the process towards an ideal research solution.

Land Reform Programmes and their beneficiaries are discussed in this chapter. Definitions of specific concepts that are used in the study are described in this chapter – to provide for a better understanding of their use within the study. The latter section of this chapter describes the framework for the study.

Chapter Two will deal with the various research methods available to solve the identified problems. Qualitative research is applied in this study, since it emphasises comprehension – by closely examining people’s words, actions and records, while attaching meanings thereto. In order to correctly perceive social realities, research methods, designs and approaches are required that justify the relevance of such methods to the study. There is a wide variety of instruments that are common in qualitative research.

This chapter also discusses the ethical concerns applicable to the research process. The protection of the research participants is important, and their consent will be required from those involved in the different case studies.

Chapter Three will discuss the relationship between the Public Administration and Land Reform in relation to sustainable development. Policies that formed the basis for improved developmental support in the accessibility to resources in South Africa, will also be discussed. This chapter further clarifies the policies introduced before 1994, and why there were delays in addressing the backlog for HDI’s need for services. Literature on the origin of Public Administration and its applicability, as both a discipline and as an activity, will be dealt with in the chapter. The chapter discusses policy formulation that facilitates sustainable development. The focus is on the applicability and efficiency of policy-making as a function of public administration in empowering women through land reform. The chapter further discusses the types of policy formulation, the role players in policy formulation and policy-formulation processes.

Chapter Four will discuss environmental factors impacting on women’s sustainable development. The redistribution of land aims to increase production, while also addressing land dispossessions, as a result of unsuccessful projects and the lack of any

economic growth. Increased production will ensure continuous food security; it will also ensure the repayment of any outstanding payments, re-investment in the project and sustaining the livelihoods of those who have been allocated land.

An environmental scan (economic, social, cultural and environmental aspects) will be undertaken of the circumstances that might have contributed to the women's challenges in accessing land and their subsequent sustainable development.

This chapter discusses the legislative framework for land reform in South Africa, as well as the international policy framework supporting women's sustainable development.

Chapter Five describes the different case studies taken from the LRAD, SLAG and PLAS programmes. The reasons for choosing the identified programmes are their close relationship with aspects of sustainable use of land as a resource and sustainable development. An analysis of the case studies is provided in this chapter – with the purpose of providing alternative models and options for an inclusive land reform. Details of such a model or alternative are provided in full in Chapter Six.

The South African land perspective is discussed in relation to other countries that have experienced similar problems. This chapter will deal with the challenges faced by women in other countries in Africa, Asia and South America. Trends discovered in the selected international countries will also be dealt with.

Chapter Six illustrates options in the form of a land reform systems model and proposals for improved and inclusive land reform policy-making and implementation. This chapter will suggest a further analysis of the whole study and provides a guideline for the implementation of the recommendations, which will be dealt with in Chapter Seven.

Chapter Seven provides conclusive remarks and recommendations on this study and its findings. Proposals for future studies in relation to the topic will be put forward in this chapter.

1.9 Conclusion

This chapter has dealt with the introduction to what the study entails in terms of how the Land Reform Policy processes have benefited women by improving their sustainable development. A further intention is to find a linkage between policy formulation, women's economic growth, equity and their empowerment for sustainable development. The chapter further looks at Land Reform Programmes that were developed in line with the policies as they currently exist. The purpose is to confirm that all policies are developed for one purpose – and that is aiming to improve development in people's lives.

All development has targeted beneficiaries, and in this case, these beneficiaries are women. It will be the focus of this study, therefore, to determine how the Land Reform has improved the sustainable development of women, in addition to other groups of beneficiaries.

All policies stem from some form of challenge and the commitment to deal with such challenges – without compromising quality. The policy process also helps to determine whether there are any deviations from the original idea, as stated by the challenge. The initial objectives, as stated earlier in the chapter, will be adhered to and the results thereof achieved. A detailed research methodology towards achieving these objectives, the literature related to these objectives and the outcomes will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

2.1 Introduction

The research approach applicable to this study is aimed at providing inputs into the current Land Reform Policy and its programmes for women's benefits. A further addition to this research would be to improve circumstances around the Land Reform Policy processes for women's sustainable development as beneficiaries of the Land Reform Programmes. The two research approaches applicable to scientific enquiry are the quantitative and the qualitative research approaches, each with its emphasis on attributes, such as numbers or social understanding, respectively.

The manner in which a problem is presented guides the type of research approach to be used. The stated problem in Chapter One provides guidance in terms of issues that need investigation; and the research methodology serves as the parameter which can be used to arrive at possible solutions.

The study necessitates an evaluation of the processes towards establishing, implementing and assessing the Land Reform Programmes in terms of women's equity, empowerment and sustainable development. This chapter describes the relevance of Public Administration research in improving Land Reform Policy processes. Applicable research instruments include the case study method, qualitative interviewing and the use of a literature review. These issues will all be discussed. A description of the case study will be briefly explained, and the chapter will discuss the acceptable ethical aspects of conducting research in Public Administration.

Ethical considerations of all the participants in the study will be discussed with the emphasis on protecting the research participants through their informed consent.

2.2 Public administration research

Clough and Nutbrown (2002: 5) provide clarity on the two concepts of research and methodology. Research may be defined as the investigation of an idea, subject or topic for a particular purpose; an area of interest is investigated from a particular context. On the other hand, methodology is the justification of specific methods that are used in a given study (Clough & Nutbrown, 2002: 26).

The qualitative research method will be used in the study to provide an investigative process and the results thereof. Qualitative research uses descriptive measures, in contrast to quantitative research, which uses figures and numbers to assess the performance of the phenomenon under study, as will be defined in this chapter.

Kuye *et al.* (2002:5) describe Public Administration as the study of the selective practice of the tasks associated with the behaviour, conduct and protocol of the affairs of the State. Activities involved in realising that a problem exists and taking action to resolve that problem implies that a process has been initiated towards a possible solution. Public policy is formulated as a result of processes or a set or series of stages that government engages in to arrive at a solution (LeMay, 2006: 10).

The processes involved in ensuring that the implementation of a specific public policy is successful are lengthy, intensive and sensitive issues.

Public administration plays an important role in the formulation of public policy, and is thus part of the political process, because the electorate becomes the public that has needs which must be addressed through a policy. Even though it is different in significant ways from private administration; it is, nevertheless, closely associated with private groups and individuals (Rosenbloom *et al.* 2009: 4). Public administration involves a vast number of activities; however, knowing what public administration can accomplish does not necessarily involve solving the challenge faced by its definition (Rosenbloom *et al.*, 2009: 3).

As defined earlier in Chapter One, public administration consists of actions involved in effecting the intent and wishes of government, as part of its business (Rosenbloom *et al.* 2009: 4). South Africa is not unique in ensuring that public administrators are concerned with the provision of public goods and semi-public goods. These goods and semi-public goods comprise services, such as roads, political voice, recreational and cultural facilities, safety, economic security, health and education to the public (Rosenbloom *et al.*, 2009: 429).

The above services provided by public administrators involve costs and budgetary functions. These are some of the key roles of public administrators. These services are some of the activities in public administration.

The day-to-day practice of public administration can be done with or without financial allocations, because it is made up of co-operative efforts of human action with a high level of prudence (Waldo, 1955 in Rosenbloom *et al.*, 1994: 12). Public Administration as a discipline must have financial injections as there are cost-related activities that have to be undertaken to achieve a set goal, such as policy-making; organising; financing; work procedures; exercising control and personnel provision and utilisation.

As may be seen in any organisation, the realisation of these functions requires budgetary allocations; hence, the Land Reform Policy is allocated a budget by the DRDLR. The challenge then is whether such an allocation is enough to empower women's land needs and improve their sustainable development. Land reallocation and sustainable use of such land, as a matter of national interest, is supported by more than one government department. The land acquisition budget is located within the DRDLR; and support funding for land use is situated within the national and provincial Departments of Agriculture.

Budget allocation is done by National Treasury, based on funding motivational submissions made by the different departments. It is possible, therefore, to find that funding allocation in various departments varies drastically.

This difference in allocation can lead to the skewed release of funds towards the support of beneficiaries. Land can be acquired because there is sufficient funding for this – only to discover that there is not enough funding for support towards the sustainable use of such land.

According to Wagner and Gill (2005: 6), Public Administration relies on other related fields for its methodological tools, despite the specific research challenges that the field presents. Three real dilemmas are described in an effort to try and address the boundaries and weaknesses of Public Administration research: the theory dilemma; the methods dilemma; and the focus dilemma (McCurdy & Cleary, 1984, in Streib & Roch, 2005: 37).

Theory, in the field of Public Administration, is not well developed; and hence, it reduces the value of Public Administration research. Furthermore, the increased focus on theory is foundational because the field is not developing the verifiable knowledge base necessary for the advancement of Public Administration as an applied science (McCurdy and Cleary, 1984, in Streib & Roch, 2005:41).

The methods' dilemma details the lack of agreed-upon methods and generally accepted research criteria. At the basic level, the focus dilemma concerns the value of Public Administration research for practitioners (McCurdy and Cleary, 1984, in Streib & Roch, 2005: 45). Assessments of the field, which are negative – as depicted by McCurdy and Cleary, 1984, in Streib and Roch, 2005: 45), stirred up the concerns that critics seek to increase the academic rigour of the field at the expense of the practical issues.

A general lack of sophistication in Public Administration methods has been acknowledged. The overall reason for the lack of growth in the field is attributed to a general lack of funding support for research in Public Administration (McCurdy and Cleary, 1984, in Streib & Roch, 2005: 45). The question that remains is: How, therefore, can scholars of Public Administration bring the necessary growth and interest to the discipline which could benefit the practice of public administration?

Investment in other sciences, such as the Natural and Physical Sciences is prioritised, as these are regarded as disciplines that make life possible. On the contrary, Public Administration is regarded as both as a science and as an art (Waldo, 1955, in Rosenbloom et al., 1994: 4).

It is regarded as a science in relation to its eclectic manner, as it borrows substance from other disciplines, and as an art because of its creative quality in actual administration, with intangibles such as leadership, judgment, decision-making and control.

Robbins and Borders (2005: 1) also emphasise the lack of proper methods in Public Administration research. These writers confirm that Public Administration research tends to be forward looking, offering implications as a result of policy change; this approach is different from research in other fields, such as Political Science or Sociology, which tries to explain behaviour. It is, therefore, clearly evident that Public Administration is not an easy field, either as an art or as a science.

As defined earlier, Public Administration and its applicability to the Land Reform Policy processes – as highlighted in the *WPSALP* (1997), in particular towards improving women's sustainable development -- is a complex process moving in the direction of development. Research in Public Administration for sustainable development needs clear targets and a proper choice of the research design, as will be discussed in the section that follows.

The distinction that occurs between basic research, as in gathering knowledge to enrich existing information, and applied research which aims to discover, interpret and develop methods to deal with practical problems, is not immediately evident for Public Administration; both basic and applied research are appropriate. However, the clear distinction between the two should not be oversimplified (Kuye *et al.*, 2002: 4).

Mathebula (2003: 40), quoting Johnson (2000: 10), confirms that the scientific reality of Public Administration research uses systematic observation and experimentation to test ideas, and to seek to understand why the world works as it does. Unlike other natural sciences, the laboratory of Public Administration is represented by an environment in which the researcher is both amongst and within the phenomenon to be observed, as opposed to observing some incubated phenomenon (Mathebula, 2003:40). A criticism has been raised that research in Public Administration is at times too theoretical and abstract; it is communicated in complex and incomprehensive jargon, and tends to be morbidly pessimistic about what is possible (Kuye *et al.*, 2002: 4).

Public Administration research relates to aspects of real life, and the inclusion of the researcher within the environment of the phenomenon being researched makes it more realistic. It should, consequently, be easy to understand and forecast the results of Public Administration research.

2.3 Qualitative research and its applicability to the study

Silverman (2005:10) describes qualitative research as emphasising the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape inquiry. Qualitative research is not based on prescribed methods and detailed hypotheses that would rigidly guide the researcher throughout the study (Willis, 2007: 197).

Qualitative research further involves some kind of direct encounter with the world; whether it takes the form of ongoing daily life, or of the interactions with a selected individual or group (May, 2002:199). This type of research describes, either explicitly or implicitly, the purpose of the qualitative research, the role of the researcher(s), the stages of the research, and the method of data analysis.

It becomes clear, that with more exposure and involvement in the qualitative research methods, one should even be able to pick up related themes and concepts in areas of study which might need further research in such a discipline.

Common themes or concepts in the process of gathering information can be grouped together and made to constitute a new phenomenon for further studies. Such new discoveries might have to be dealt with at a different level and for different purposes.

According to Rubin and Rubin (2005:211), concepts and themes that are identified during interviews can in turn suggest new related concepts and themes. The qualitative research methodology studies individuals in their natural setting, as mentioned earlier in the chapter, with design characteristics that are flexible, evolving and emergent (Merriam, 2009: 18).

The number of women who have received support as a result of the Land Reform Policy is not a critical aspect in this study as the nature of the study is not about numbers of women, but it is of importance because it provides a base sample for qualitative analysis, since herein lies the impact of the Land Reform Policy on women's sustainable development and empowerment. Impact (as in impact of the Land Reform Policy on women's sustainable development) is regarded as a concept and not as a variable. Kumar (2005:56) states that concepts are mental images or perceptions, and their meanings vary markedly from individual to individual, whereas variables are measurable, but with varying degrees of accuracy.

Concepts, themes and events – as identified during the interviews – guide what is to be included in the coding categories (Rubin & Rubin, 2005: 210). Ideas for concepts and themes can also be developed by focusing on what and how the different interview participants have responded to a similar question (Rubin & Rubin, 2005: 211).

Table 2.1 below describes some of the concepts and variables in relation to this study. The impact of land reform on women's sustainable development -- impact being the concept in this case, and women's sustainable development being the variable.

Table 2.1: The difference between concepts and variables

Concept	Variable
Impact	Productivity (hectares used; number of jobs created; number of tons/kg produced; level of poverty reduced)
Effectiveness of the Land Reform Policy	Women beneficiaries (rural or urban women; educated or not educated)
Success of the Land Reform Policy	Income (Income per annum, per month, per semester)

Source: Adapted from Kumar, R. 2005. *Research Methodology: Second Edition: A step-by-step guide for beginners*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd. p57.

Variables are measurable and determine whether the idea or concept imagined or expected is realised and can be visible. Access to land for women is assumed in the form of concepts to improve the lives of women but that is further justified by providing measurable units to the expected outcomes which are reduced poverty and a better life. The use of land, the type of enterprises and level of production which would be variables in this case, are all expected to result in the outcomes above.

Denzin and Lincoln (2008:3) confirm that qualitative research is a complex, interconnected family of terms, such as concepts and assumptions. According to Flick (2002:226 – 227), as quoted by Denzin and Lincoln (2008:7), qualitative research is inherently multi-method in its focus, and it involves the use of multiple methods or triangulation. It reflects an attempt to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon being studied.

Qualitative researchers use semiotics, narrative as in storytelling, content, dialogue and archival documents – to arrive at a conclusive result (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008:9). There is separate and detailed literature on the many methods and types that fall under the category of qualitative research, such as case studies, politics and ethics, participatory

inquiry, interviewing and participant observation, as confirmed by Denzin and Lincoln (2008: 3); Lunenburg and Irby 2008: 90-92 and Flick (2007: 78).

The use of research types, such as the case study, participatory inquiry and participant observation provide reality in research – as opposed to imagination or even estimations. Some of these qualitative research types will be discussed in the next section of the chapter.

2.4 Qualitative research types

Qualitative research is oriented towards assessing and analysing specific cases in their locality – starting with people’s expressions and activities in their natural setting (Flick, 2009: 21). The use of qualitative methods, as opposed to quantitative methods, compels the research to reach consequences that are at the level of socio-political topics and relations (Flick, 2009:25). Qualitative research is appropriate in this enquiry because of its relevance to the topic. Prioritising the Land Reform Policy in South Africa has been on the agenda for both the politicians and society.

This study seeks to describe and interpret the findings on sustainable development for women as a result of the Land Reform Policy. The focus in this enquiry will be on a number of cases, since their experience and understanding with regard to land reform and their interactions with the programme for their sustainable development are the important issues in this study (Silverman, 2005: 9).

Quantitative research data lead to results in the actual sense of the word, whereas qualitative research is an illustrative approach (Flick, 2009: 25). Qualitative implies that the emphasis should be placed on the qualities of entities and on processes and meanings that cannot be experimentally measured in terms of quantities, amounts, intensity or even frequencies. The answers that are needed in qualitative enquiry relate to how social experience is structured and given meaning (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008: 14).

This chapter will be used to provide the choice of the qualitative methods for the study, as the study is of a socio-political nature.

According to Creswell (2007), quoted in Lunenburg and Irby (2008: 89), a qualitative study may be defined as an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. In other words, the researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyses words, reports detailed views of the informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting (Creswell (2007) in Lunenburg and Irby (2008:89)).

Merriam (2009: 19) defines qualitative research as the type of research that encompasses a number of philosophical orientations and approaches.

The goal of investigation with qualitative research is understanding, discovery and meaning, as opposed to quantitative research which is more focused on prediction, control and confirmation (Merriam, 2009: 18). The researcher works on seeking to understand why specific behavioral patterns occur as they do, and the meanings attached to their understanding.

Qualitative research, therefore, emphasises understanding – by closely examining people’s words, actions and records and attached meanings. On the other hand, quantitative research investigates such words, actions and records at a mathematically significant level, thus, quantifying the results of observation (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008: 89). Qualitative research uses texts as empirical material, as opposed to using numbers. The everyday perspectives of the participants are looked at, in conjunction with their daily practices and any knowledge that relates to the subject under study (Flick, 2007: 2).

This research will use the interpretive, natural approach to the situations of women as beneficiaries of the Land Reform Policy.

A table of both qualitative and quantitative research approaches is used to demonstrate differences in these research approaches.

Table 2.2: Distinctions between quantitative and qualitative research methods

Qualitative	Result / consequences	Quantitative	Result / consequences
Uses words	Can be easily misinterpreted, hence yielding wrong results	Uses numbers	Easy to use and be generalised
Focuses on meanings	Different words can mean different things to different people	Concerned with behavioural patterns	Information can be extrapolated
Relies on inductive logic of inquiry	States facts first and conclusions are based on facts	Utilises the hypothetic deductive method	Moves from known to the unknown
Lacks the quantitative research power to generalize	Confined to observed facts	Can generalize	Can move from a representative sample towards a population

Table adapted from: Seale, C., Gobo, G., Gubrium, J.F. and Silverman, D. 2002. *Qualitative Research Practice*. London: SAGE Publications. p312.

Table 2.2 above depicts why the two research methods are different and unique; hence, their application for this research inquiry. The importance of housing and land as the two lead programmes considered important in addressing poverty has been confirmed by the Presidency in the 2003 publication termed: *Towards a Ten-Year Review* (Presidency, 2003: 25). The challenge is to ensure that legislation developed since 1994 is fully implemented (Presidency, 2003: 11).

Land is an important resource and asset for women. As an asset that can be used for shelter / housing, production, collective production or *letsema* (this is a method of group production where all women gather at a particular farm and work on that farm for the day).

They bring refreshments and ensure that the work that had to be done on that day is finished before they start work at a different farm. Land can be used as collateral for accessing loans, and even as a way of enhancing women's self esteem. The above is an indication of the social relationship that is inherent in women's access to sustainable development. This highlights the importance of the qualitative approach to the study.

In the execution of this research, the interpretive approach will be applied, as this approach is related to qualitative research. Qualitative research has been adopted because the thrust of this study is an inquiry on *how* the land reform has empowered women in their drive towards sustainable development, as well as *what* has been the process of ensuring that women have equal access to land. Qualitative research is concerned with process rather than outcome; and the Land Reform Policy formulation is a process with, for the purpose of this study, a target focused on women's empowerment and sustainable development.

It therefore becomes important to conduct an inquiry on how the Land Reform Policy has improved women's access and ability to facilitate their sustainable development. Flick (2009:14) indicates that the essential features of qualitative research are correct choices of methods and theories; various participant perspectives with their uniqueness in diversity; the reflections of researchers on the research done, as part of the knowledge-production process and a variety of methods.

The perspectives and feelings of women, as unique and diverse individuals, are expressed tacitly by researchers in the qualitative inquiry.

The process of inquiry using the qualitative research approach requires that the researcher should understand the strategic classes of the methodology. McNabb (2002:269) confirms that qualitative research methods can be grouped into three broad categories, namely: explanatory research studies; interpretive research studies; and critical research studies.

Interpretive research, as described by McNabb (2002: 271), looks at research elements that explain people's actions in social circumstances and situations.

Interpretive research goes beyond explaining the social phenomenon being studied to interpreting what the phenomenon means, providing an interpretation of its meaning and application (McNabb, 2002: 271). The meaning of land reform, as defined in Chapter One, is placed within the context of women's attitudes, opinions and behaviour, and whether women understand its developmental nature. Conducting the study within this category reveals realities that benefit both the researcher and the target group.

Interpretive research investigates the manner in which humans make sense out of the events in their lives, either planned or unplanned (McNabb, 2002: 271). The history of land reform, as the key event, needs to be understood thoroughly for the study to be successful. This will be possible based on the available literature on land reform in South Africa. The research process occurs in the context of the women's projects, and the discussions are interpreted in terms of the meanings that are understood by all parties involved.

An examination on patterns of meaning that emerge from data gathered occurs in qualitative research; these patterns are then presented in the participant's own words (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008: 89).

Klein and Myers (1999) in McNabb (2002:272) further provide a set of seven principles which they developed. These can be used to assist in contextualising interpretive research studies. These seven principles are briefly described. The first of the seven principles is the *hermeneutic circles*, which were devised to illustrate learning or understanding of a phenomenon. This is a discipline of interpretation inclusive of interpretative processes.

People understand concepts by focusing on the parts that constitute a particular concept, such as words, phrases and how these were brought together.

Accessibility of land reform documents for this research is critical for the successful interpretation of the concepts, intentions and goals of the Land Reform Policy and its programmes. The second principle is the *contextual nature* of the phenomenon under investigation, and in the case of this study, the context within which women were dispossessed of their land – and as a result of social and even historical patterns, this then becomes an important feature of the research.

The third principle is the *interaction between the researcher and the participants*, which focuses on gathering further information towards understanding the phenomenon being studied. While describing the meanings of words, better opportunities can be created between a researcher and the participants towards understanding the phenomenon. Land reform information is currently only available in written format, and mostly in English. There are some documents which have already been translated into the other 11 official languages by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR).

The fourth principle is *abstraction and generalisation*, which brings disunited parts of a concept together and categorises them into generalisations and concepts with a wider application. The three Land Reform Programmes are known and accepted in South Africa, but their implementation and results are unique. All Land Reform Programmes are aimed at ensuring access to land, but the focus area for each Land Reform Programme is unique and the implementation differs from one programme to the next.

The uniqueness of each Land Reform Programme makes it a disunited part, but because there is a common goal, that of access to land, generalisations can be made. The fifth principle is *dialogical reasoning* – in the sense that through dialogues between the researcher and the participants, improvements can be achieved in the final research product. The initial concepts might have been too vague for the research to proceed, but through ongoing engagements these vague concepts find better meaning and applicability.

Continuous dialogue on a matter being discussed brings better understanding and clarity to both the participants and the researcher on such a matter.

The sixth principle being that of *multiple interpretations*, requires that the researcher should compare historical and contextual interpretations of a phenomenon against all other available interpretations, as well as the reasons offered for them. The researcher's preconceptions and biases are subjected to those competing interpretations, including those of the participants. Conclusive and convincing interpretations are expected from the researcher as an expert in the field. The seventh principle is *suspicion*, which cautions the researcher not to accept any interpretation at face value, that is, without further questioning of such interpretations.

All phenomenological interpretations should be done with absolute scrutiny (McNabb, 2002: 272 -273).

The principles above are of an educational nature for researchers and research participants. For land reform to be beneficial to women, such women need to be fully engaged as key participants in any discussions that affect their livelihoods. The basis for a genuine and truthful engagement with the researcher is provided by means of the above principles.

Some of the qualitative research types are discussed in the section that follows. The purpose again is to clarify why the use of qualitative research is preferred over quantitative research. A combination of case studies, a literature review and interviews will be the focus in the next section.

2.4.1 A case study

A case study is a research type used to engage in social research when the inquirer wants to answer questions on the *how* and *why* in a scenario. Case studies are specific explorations and the inquiries of individuals which can be on groups, cultures, communities or even programmes (Lunenborg & Irby, 2008:96).

Case studies embrace several approaches and purposes, as they can be used as illustrations, examples and anecdotes, in which they do not necessarily prove anything, but facilitate the understanding of a concept by making it more concrete (Thorpe & Holt, 2008: 388). They can be used to describe how an organisation performs and also in the case of classroom cases for training purposes, in terms of how the class is performing (Thorpe & Holt, 2008: 38).

The case study is the study of particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances (Simons, 2009: 19). Case study research is effective in approaching phenomena that are less understood, ambiguous, fuzzy, and even chaotic sometimes; and it includes relationships which are complex and often difficult to predict (Thorpe & Holt, 2008: 38). To get an in-depth understanding of such phenomena, quantitative instruments should prove to be inadequate.

Merriam (2009: 40-41) defines a case study as an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system. If the phenomenon under study is not intrinsically bounded, it is not a case. Case studies make it possible to understand mechanisms, such as what is done, and how is it done, rather than counts of what has been done and how often (Thorpe & Holt, 2008: 39). The above is further confirmed by Cresswell (2007: 73), who defines a case study research as one involving the study of an issue explored through one or more in a closed system.

The research question, as stated in Chapter One of this study, poses the question of how the Land Reform Policy contributes to women's sustainable development in South Africa. In order to provide an answer to this question, the use of multiple sources of information should be considered. Land reform is guided by multiple pieces of legislation, aimed at ensuring access to land for the sustainable development of women. Thus, the use of a qualitative approach is appropriate, in which an in-depth inquiry into the phenomena being studied is made.

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2008: 129), the beginning of a scenario starts with phenomena, and cases provide opportunities to study such phenomena. A case study is an intensive inquiry of a specific individual or groups in a specific context under investigation.

Lunenburg and Irby (2008: 96) further provide clarity on multiple-case study design, as it is related to this thesis, because this inquiry targets multiple individuals in projects of land reform, but the phenomenon remains the same: land reform for the sustainable development of women.

Mafunisa and Maserumule (2004: 4) in their discussion of the case-study method of instruction define a case study as a description of a specific administrative situation or challenge needing a decision that has to be made to solve it.

Case studies are also known to assist in instances where a referral to best practice methods is necessary in order to arrive at a conclusive level for solving a problem. One uses cases as referral points, such as referring back on how success stories of men that have accessed land through the Land Reform Policy compare with those of women. Another visible aspect would be why men are more successful in accessing land than women, even before aspects of sustainable use for such land have been dealt with.

Simon (1980, as quoted by Mafunisa & Maserumule, 2004: 4) provides further clarity on the advantages of using case study methods in research. Even though these advantages are categorised as leaning more towards using case studies which are attractive to teachers, these advantages are applicable even in other investigative situations, because:

- (i) case studies are said to be down-to-earth and attention-grabbing, and in agreement with the reader's own experience; thereby providing a natural basis for generalisation;
- (ii) case studies allow generalisations about, or from a particular instance to a bigger group;

- (iii) case studies are used as reference points, and may form an archive of descriptive material that provides for different interpretations and uses by the end users; and
- (iv) case studies can be used to serve multiple audiences, thereby allowing the end-user to judge the implications of the case for themselves.

It is clear from the above that case studies have the ability to fulfill different intentions, and can be adopted as reference points or even best-practice scenarios. Qualitative case studies can further be characterised as being particularistic, descriptive and heuristic (Merriam, 2009: 43). The writer describes these characteristics as follows:

- (i) particularistic means that case studies' foci are looking into particular events, situations or phenomena, and what the case reveals about a particular phenomenon and what that phenomenon might represent;
- (ii) descriptive qualitative cases mean that the end-product of a case is rich and thick in terms of its description of the phenomenon under study; and
- (iii) the heuristic qualitative case study means that the reader's understanding of a phenomenon is enlightened, and they can bring the discovery of new meanings and even confirm what is new.

The different qualitative case study features above enable the researcher to discover, obtain insight and interpretation rather than merely focusing on hypothesis testing (Merriam, 2009: 42). The case studies that will be used for this research are a sample of projects that have benefited from land reform. The use of redistribution-related projects such as the LRAD, PLAS and SLAG projects is chosen. The selection and use of these projects as case studies is based on their focus towards the productivity of land, which is further related to development.

The criteria used to select projects within these programmes are their goal of using land accessed for agricultural production; sustaining their livelihoods through agricultural produce and ensuring that land as a resource is not utilised exhaustively, and not merely to sustain future generations.

The use of land acquired through the Redistribution Programme is solely for agricultural purposes, as confirmed by Lahiff (2007: 6). Lahiff (2007:6) states the following issues in relation to the land redistributed for agricultural purposes:

- (i) Agriculture is the most common type of land-use amongst the beneficiaries of land; it is more a requirement than a person's choice. Experience and knowledge of agricultural practices are requirements to qualify for land access under these programmes.
- (ii) The emphasis on agriculture is appropriate, given the nature of land acquired and its previous use (which is more rural and was previously used for agricultural purposes).
- (iii) The characteristics of land reform beneficiary groups are dominated by rural people with limited education and skills.
- (iv) The pressing needs to acquire food for households and generate cash from excess produce are some of the reasons for land reform.

The restitution-related land acquisitions, as explained in Chapter One, are excluded from the cases chosen for this study, since the use of land is not necessarily aimed at agriculture. Land Restitution beneficiaries can become partners on land use activities, so the access to land is for addressing the rights of historically displaced individuals (Lahiff, 2007: 3). Restitution covers cases of forced removals, which took place after 1913 (*WPSALP*, 1997: 7). Initial case studies of settled restitution claims in 2005 – 2006 found that the vast majority of these projects had failed to deliver significant benefits to their members through agriculture (Lahiff, 2007: 6).

Some of the reasons for this failure were that business plans drawn up for these projects were of poor quality, with poor co-ordination of support services (including delays in the release of grants) by the Regional Land Claims Commission, inadequate capital for investment and production, and the lack of any organisation amongst claimant communities (Lahiff, 2007:6).

According to the Department of Land Affairs's Strategic Plan (2005:5), restitution should provide for the equitable redress to persons or communities dispossessed of land as a result of the past racially discriminatory laws or practices.

It is against this background that the cases selected are based on land access and the use of such land for production, and the subsequent development, such as that of the LRAD, SLAG and PLAS, as indicated earlier. The geographic boundaries of the study area and the amount of resources available have a direct influence on the population size that the study will engage.

It is critical to demarcate the boundaries of the study area as these will also inform the amount of resources required to complete the study (Czaja & Blair, 2005: 132).

The success and existence of the then Departments of Land Affairs and Agriculture relied on the successful execution of the Land Reform Policy by the two departments. Roux *et al.* (1997: 147) confirm that in discussions around policy-making, the interests of legislators, interest groups or more prominent participants often take precedence over the interests of the individual citizens. It is therefore, of great interest to interrogate this statement further – with the intention of categorising these individual citizens, so as to focus on women, as the one category of the individual citizens intended to benefit from policy-formulation processes.

The assumption based on the discussion in section 1.5 of Chapter One is that women's needs are not well attended to. It is not clear whether the failure to meet women's needs is due to the lack of women representatives at the elite or prominent level, or whether it is due to their dependency on their male partners. The purpose of selecting the cases discussed below is to verify the status of women in terms of their prominence in policy knowledge.

Land reform projects in which women as beneficiaries have benefited are identified and a set of questions are administered through an interview.

The inquiry looks at the impact of the Land Reform Policy on women's sustainable development. The sample is selected from a group of land reform projects that benefited in the Gauteng Province. The overall or larger sample comprises all projects that have benefited from the Land Reform Programmes; followed by a further selection of fewer projects that are within the larger sample and have benefited women. A total of five projects (herein referred to as cases) with a majority of women or with women only will be used as the final target population to be finally selected. The minimum number of women is one in each case category.

2.4.2 Unstructured interviewing

An interview schedule is used as a tool that guides the interview. The interview schedule is defined as the conduit through which information flows from the world of everyday behaviour and opinion into the world of research and analysis (Czaja & Blair, 2005: 59). Questions with regard to farm size and the capacity of the farm to produce; farming experience and family relations and profit margins are amongst those included in the inquiry. The unstructured interview questions are attached as Annexure A. The five selected cases are one SLAG, two LRAD and two PLAS projects for the administration of the qualitative interview schedule.

Four of the cases, two PLAS and two LRAD, are located in the Metsweding District Municipality within the Bronkhorstspuit area; and one case, SLAG, is situated in the Ekurhuleni District Municipality in the Eastern Region of Pretoria close to Germiston. Interviews were conducted with beneficiaries of these projects and details of the cases will be discussed further in Chapter Five.

Unstructured interviewing involves direct interaction and discussion between the researcher and a respondent or group. It differs from traditional structured interviewing in several important ways. The researcher may have some initial guiding questions or core concepts to ask about, although there is no formal structured instrument or protocol. This method has the advantage of not confining the interviewee, sometimes channeling answers and creating restricted or hostile environments for the interviewees.

In unstructured interviews questions are asked but respondents are not provided with choices to use as answers, because follow-up questions are developed as the interview progresses; and these are based on the participant's responses (Luneneburg & Irby, 2008: 192). In the interviews conducted with the women that are land reform beneficiaries, some questions were developed in advance, but specific follow-up questions evolved as the interview progressed. Basic questions asked included the following:

- (i) land acquisition details in terms of which programme was used to acquire land;
- (ii) the level of education of women participants;
- (iii) the age of women involved and their farming enterprises;
- (iv) the amount of time spent on the farm. This also affects the participant's level of management and decision-making, which were termed the economic inputs for sustainable development; and
- (v) any other aspects in the form of social, cultural and environmental inputs from women who had benefited from sustainable development.

The interview schedule was prepared in advance, as a standard tool that would be used to engage all participants. Rehearsals on the interview schedule proved that the interviewer is able to move the conversation in any direction of interest that may come about during the interview process. Consequently, unstructured interviewing is particularly useful for exploring a topic in the broad sense. However, there is a price for this lack of structure, because each interview tends to be unique, with no predetermined set of answers provided by respondents.

The various answers from which the interviewer has to select are usually more tedious to analyse, especially when synthesising across respondents used in the study.

To unravel the complexities of large-scale social change, it is necessary to examine the intricacies of individual lives (May, 2002: 201).

In the interview schedules, questions are based on personal experiences and the meaning-making of personal or more general issues – by addressing the *what* and the *how* of a social problem or historical event (Flick, 2007: 79). May (2002: 201) further explains that interviews provide the opportunity to examine how large-scale social transformations are experienced, should be interpreted and are ultimately shaped by the responses of strategic social actors. The applicability of the unstructured interview is relevant to the study on Land Reform Policy and its Programmes because these Land Reform Programmes are different, as was described in Chapter One, and to get an acceptable result that is representative of all these Programmes, a more unstructured method of interviewing is necessary.

Through qualitative interviews, the experiences and the historical occurrence of events can be understood – even if the researcher is not part of the participants (Rubin & Rubin, 2005: 3). The close interactions with the participants create an air of reality on discussions and emotions from participants; and these afford the interviewer an opportunity to understand the participant's true feelings, as expressed through the process.

2.4.3 Documents as sources of data

Documents on land reform have been used; and because land redistribution in South Africa is a matter of national interest, documents on this topic are readily available. Information on women and land acquisition is available, but of interest particularly is the contribution of land use to women's sustainable development. There is always a need to refer back, before one goes forward, because lessons can be learned from past experiences.

In this study the use of documents has also been very important in contributing to the solution which is ideally conclusive and most-needed. Permission has been obtained from the DRDLR to use documents in the form of annual reports; strategic plan documents; journals and books towards the fulfillment of this study.

Books, journals, publications and papers on land reform and women's empowerment have been used to inform the content of the research. Griffin, *et al.* (2002:13) confirms that land reform can make a major contribution to reducing both rural and urban poverty. Gandhi (1972: 1) stated that removal of poverty is a prerequisite for the protection of the environment.

European settlements, in the form of the colonial invasion, led to the displacement of African populations to less fertile land (Griffin, *et al.*, 2002: 14). Jacobs (2002: 887) questions whether land reform policies are still worthwhile instruments of struggle for women, based on the historical experience and current changes. Jacobs (2002: 888) confirms that land reform which includes women would be of great benefit, as it would improve food security for all, it would allow women the independence of their own income and would improve their status.

According to the American Journal of Economics and Sociology (2006:115), land reform is one of the alternative methods used in bringing about development. According to Mokgope (2000: 23), it has been proven that people are more likely to use land intensively and positively if their rights to land are secure. Ngqaleni and Makhura (1996: 338) in Mokgope (2000: 23) attest to the fact that a lack of secure tenure rights can also mean that such land could be taken away at any time, especially when opportunities for deriving income and other benefits become available.

The scenario described herein is that of the two PLAS cases in which land tenure is of use rather than outright ownership. As DRDLR is the owner of such land, it becomes difficult for these women farmers to make any significant investment in terms of farm infrastructure. Turner (2002: 30) states that the quality of land and the manner in which it is being used will determine the number of people it can support sustainably. The current use of land that does not cater for future generations will not contribute to sustainable development, which is the main theme of this study.

Tilley (2007: 9) separates poverty from land ownership on the basis that not all people on the land are farmers. Land can, however, provide people with a base from which to launch other livelihood ventures, such as houses for rental, tourism and hospitality. The nature of written texts is that there is a need for further interpretation of the concepts used within the text to allow common understanding between the researcher and participants.

An additional challenge is that the participants (in this case women) are not as educated as they are assumed to be, which puts a further challenge to the researcher in terms of the interpretation of the results, and makes it more time-consuming. The use of the South African archives was also helpful for finding some of the old laws related to land access and allocation in South Africa.

Documents on land acquired for women and its use will, consequently, be dealt with to check the level of sustainable development that is attained through land acquisition and use.

2.5 Ethical considerations in Public Administration research

Public policies are central to the fulfillment of public needs in terms of their implementation, especially because they bring in resources for the realisation of such needs. It is common to find public administrators yielding to the powers that are regulatory at that point in time and compromising any consultative processes. Even though in a democratic scenario public administrators must be subordinate to the legislature and political executive (Rosenbloom *et al.*, 1994: 497), they are obliged to confirm the developmental needs with the beneficiaries of such needs.

Consultation may be costly and time-consuming, but it is an indication of the respect which forms part of ethical behaviour. Ethics are often conceptualised in the form of an inner check on behaviour; someone's conscience tells them if they are contemplating a wrong act; and it is the inner person that tells that the bad act must end. McKinney and Howard (1998:4) define ethics as the study of and philosophy concerned with morality in

human conduct, with the emphasis on determining right and wrong values in any specific situation.

Ethics may be defined as the set of standards by which human actions are determined to be right or wrong (Vasu, *et al.*, 1998: 381). Depending on the person's conscience and the desired results in pursuing the act, there is a continuation or discontinuation of such actions.

Laws are put in place to guide and monitor citizens' behaviour. Ethical behaviour would generally preclude violating the law, even in minor ways, for the sake of one's self-interest, family or even friends.

Section 195 (1) (a) of the *Constitution*, 1996 states that a high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained. Beyond a person's consciousness of knowing the difference between right and wrong, the law of the country states that doing what is right is a requirement and rule. The researcher or scientist has the right to search for truth, but not at the expense of the rights of other individuals (Mouton, 2001: 239). The concern in research, as far as ethics are concerned, is how to ensure that the interests of those willing to participate in the research are protected – to encourage their continued voluntary participation.

Section 14 of the Constitution, 1996, states that everyone has a right to privacy, and this includes – according to sub-section (d), the right to having the privacy of their communications infringed. The enquirer-enquired relationship is important in terms of the trust and confidentiality required for future research endeavours. According to Mathebula (2003: 69), morality is related to issues of trust, confidentiality, harm, consent and deception. In Public Administration research, ethics are looked at in terms of re-using information and concluding policies without involving the initiators of such policies.

In this study, consultation with the relevant department responsible for land reform has been acquired, as part of ensuring that the process is transparent and ethically clear.

Mafunisa (2003: 197 in Mathebula, 2003:70) describes ethics as the branch of philosophy that deals with values that prescribe human conduct in terms of what is wrong and right for specific actions and to the good or bad of the motives and results of such actions. Ethics in public administration are related to principles, discipline, morality and truthfulness. It is important that these aspects be respected and adhered to in any published study, because the publisher's reputation runs the risk of losing respect, dignity and self-worth.

Immorality and ill-discipline result in disrespectful behaviour; hence, in scientific papers, such as this one, referral to used documents, web sites and referral material used should be, and has been, properly acknowledged.

Ethical considerations during the research process define the moral integrity of the researcher and ensure that the findings are factual and trustworthy.

Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006: 86) confirm that every research should engage with the ethical dimensions and guiding issues that must be interrogated. Amongst others are:

- (i) Moral principles that guide research: this looks at matters of respect, courtesy and the approach used in the process of conducting the research.
- (ii) Which ethical issues formed part of the research problem and need to be carried throughout the research. An example in this case would be that the empowerment of women should not be used as a way of exposing their lack of skills and ability, but it must be used to their advantage.
- (iii) Ethical issues that must be considered in the selection of the sample and in the design of the study. The selection of a sample should not be to disadvantage other possible participants who are not part of the chosen group. Caution should be taken in explaining why a selection of a specific category of people is chosen above any others. This will ensure that even those that are not selected do not necessarily feel excluded.
- (iv) The researcher has responsibility to indicate to the participants, referred to as subjects by Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006: 86). The referral to research participants as subjects is a matter of concern, because people are human

beings, regardless of whether they are research participants or not, and respect for them as such is important. The use of incorrect or belittling language is equally unethical. The beneficiaries of the research results should be identified on time to allow for no exclusion of relevant and critical role players.

- (v) The protection of participants has been ensured by changing some of their names; farms that are used as cases are defined in relative terms, and not given their actual project names – in order to protect the identities of the participants. The descriptions of the cases are for academic purposes only, in contrast to exposing any of the challenges faced by the participants in the successful farming of the land.

In the case of the land-reform beneficiaries in this study, the fact that non-female beneficiaries have not been involved does not make them any less important, but the current focus is on women as land-reform beneficiaries.

The threat of farm repossessions has also added more pressure to the research study inquiry. This fear adds pressure to the sampling of participants, because less knowledgeable or uneducated participants tend to have a fear of the unknown and make last-minute refusals to participate, and thereby delay the process. Results that will be published will be shared with the participants and policy-makers of land reform. It is hoped that the research results will benefit both the participants and the non-participants.

In this study, consent was first received from the departments involved, and later this approval was negotiated with the prospective participants.

The use of some women as participants in the study had to be approved telephonically by their husbands. Consent, consequently, has been strengthened from all avenues that might be affected by the study. Letters of consent have been received from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform. They are the custodians of the Land Reform Policy.

The Provincial Department of Agriculture in the Gauteng Province was contacted as well, because it is the office that is responsible for the projects that are used as case studies.

Further consent has been received from the participants who agreed to sign the interview schedule's letter of consent – as, an indication of their agreement and support for the research.

2.6 Conclusion

The study moves from the premise that information exists on this topic, and the research wants to interrogate whether the developed legislation has succeeded in bringing sustainable development to women, as well as benefits that women can enjoy in terms of accessing land. The use of the above-mentioned qualitative research approach will be critical for the conclusive recommendations made.

The selection of a research methodology plays an important role in the expected outcome and the findings. The lack of appropriate research methods and the lack of methodological rigour in the Public Administration research have been highlighted as reasons for concern. The public administration approach is different from research in other fields, such as political science or sociology, which merely try to explain behaviour.

The choice has been to use the qualitative research method, and the rationale for this type of research is because the focus of the study is on the *how* and *what* with regard to the subject under investigation. The research question, as phrased in Chapter One, is: “How has the Land Reform Policy and its related Programmes contributed to the promotion of women’s sustainable development in South Africa?”

It is obvious from the aforementioned question that the enquiry is on *how* the Land Reform Policy has – or even *what* role this Policy has – played, in promoting

sustainable development for women in South Africa. The chapter has paved a way for further interrogation of the literature on what other writers portray, and the manner in which research methodologies are applicable and relevant to Public Administration.

The chapter that follows will describe the function of policy-making and analysis in relation to the study of Public Administration. Chapter Three will also engage in a discussion about the origin and development of Public Administration. The chapter will discuss the policy implementation that facilitates sustainable development. The focus is on the applicability and efficiency of the Land Reform Policy and its relation to public administration in seeking the empowerment of women.

CHAPTER 3

AN ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN RELATION TO LAND REFORM

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the Public Administration literature in terms of its origin and development. The discussion is in relation to the applicability of Public Administration to land reform and sustainable development. Public Administration, as defined earlier in Chapter One, is the art and science of management, as applied to the public affairs of the State. As an art, Public Administration is composed of intangibles, such as leadership and judgment, whereas as a science it generates and evaluates knowledge through scientific methods. The role of government in land reform is that of providing leadership through the development policies and programmes – and ensuring that the redistribution of land is achieved. This chapter will discuss aspects of policy formulation in relation to land reform and sustainable development.

3.2 Background

The development of the Land Reform Policy was a product of the 1994 democratic elections. Policy formulation is one of the six generic functions of Public Administration. As mentioned in section 1.7.3 of Chapter One, the policy process is regarded as a set or series of stages whereby policy is established and implemented (LeMay, 2006: 24). The post-1994 period in South Africa was followed by a series of policies formulated to address the pre-1994 government activities. These policies aimed at empowering the historically disadvantaged groups in terms of, amongst others, access to land. Policies that were aimed at reversing skewed service delivery patterns were preceded by the development of the *White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service*, (hereafter referred to as *WPTPS*, 1995) that was published in December 1995 (Levin, 2009: 949).

According to Levin (2009: 949), the *WPTPS* (1995) identified eight pillars of public service transformation. These were: the restructuring and rationalisation of the public service; institution building and management; representivity and affirmative action;

transforming service delivery; enhancing accountability; human resource development and training; employment conditions and labour relations; and the creation of a professional service ethos.

The above mandates were followed by various policy papers which were directed, in terms of their intentions, to achieving transformation in service delivery. Policies formulated included the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, also known as the Batho Pele White Paper (1997), the White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (1997), the White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service (1997), the White Paper on Public Service Training and Education (1998), and the White Paper on the South African Land Policy (1997) (Levin, 2009: 949).

The policies formed the basis for improved development support towards enhancing accessibility to resources in South Africa. It becomes clear from the above policies that there had been obvious delays and backlog for HDIs' need for services. The WPSALP (1997) had, as its main goal, equity concepts – as contained within the White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service, which will henceforth be referred to as WPAAPS (1995) in this study.

The WPAAPS (1995) is aimed at empowering the HDIs through improved access to resources. In this chapter, a brief discussion on how policy formulation – through the WPSALP (1997), which targets women's access to land -- came into being, and its relevance to public administration. The focus is on empowering women for sustainable development. The WPSALP (1997:40), as discussed in Chapter One, is a policy that intends to deliver on the government mandate to distribute land in an equitable manner.

According to the WPSALP (1997:40), it is critical that gender equity be ensured in the land redistribution – to allow for women a fair and equitable benefit.

To this effect, the *WPSALP* (1997:40) proposed the following:

- (i) The removal of all legal restrictions on the participation of women in land reform. Issues such as reform of marriage, customary law – which is biased towards men – and contains obstacles to women receiving rights to land, and lastly inheritance rights.
- (ii) Clear planning and selection of beneficiaries and project appraisal to ensure equitable access from the land reform programme for women and men. The policy made proposals on ensuring that officials assist women. Furthermore, they are categorically prioritised and assisted to tackle any obstacles that might hinder them from accessing land.
- (iii) Specific provision for women to enable them to access financial support and other support services. Special mechanisms needed to be developed to ensure that women were exposed to opportunities in land use, and that they were registered as direct beneficiaries.
- (iv) Monitoring and evaluation systems are developed to ensure the continued participation of women in land reform.

It is clear from the above Land Reform Policy statements that women are at the centre of the mandate for land access. Priority in land access has been given to women because they were the tillers of land – even on tribal land – and they now form the majority of the South African population, as shown in Table 1.1 of Chapter One. The figures as portrayed in Table 1.1 are such that on tribal villages, where most of the land is available under the chiefs, a total number of 8 079 765 women (as opposed 6 696 978 men) were registered. The difference of more than a million (1 382 787) in favour of women, is reason enough to prioritise women's access to resources, including land.

An analysis of Public Administration in relation to land reform is the theme for this chapter. There is, therefore, a need to discuss Public Administration in depth – in terms of its origin, what it is and its relation to other disciplines. The development of the White Papers referred to above served as instruments to realise service delivery.

Public Administration as defined earlier applies to and is of importance to the public affairs of the state which aim to bring services to the communities. The prioritisation of land reform in this context becomes one of the critical service delivery areas for the state, hence the development of legislation that intended to strengthen government efforts. The section that follows discusses the stated aspects of Public Administration.

3.3 The origin and development of Public Administration

Public Administration is a subject studied for purposes of dealing with public administrative activities. As discussed above policy development and implementation as part of public administration becomes critical. According to Botes *et al.* (1992: 257), public is similar to civil, thus the officials that undertake the exercise are called public servants. It is further confirmed that public administration is a human activity that constitutes an activity done for people by people. This leads to Public Administration being classified as a human science (Botes *et al.*, 1992: 257).

Gladden (1961:12) describes public administration as being concerned with the administrative activities of government. Administration is a long and respected, sometimes misinterpreted word, but it has a simple meaning: it means to care for, or to look after people, to manage people's affairs: the administrator is a servant and not a master (Gladden, 1961:12).

According to Hanekom *et al.* (1987:62), the generic functions (initially advanced as processes by Cloete, 1967, and later renamed functions by Thornhill and Hanekom, 1979) are regarded as generic in nature. This denotes their universal applicability, as well as their strength. Public administration functions occur in all people's co-ordinated activities – for the purposes of achieving an agreed-upon goal.

Public Administration does not occur in a vacuum; it occurs where people undertake an activity to achieve a common goal (Van Dijk, 2003: 33). Van Dijk (2003: 33) further attests to the fact that administration is found in all spheres of human activity where joint

action is required to achieve a goal. The observation is that the generic functions are inclusive of one another, and they collectively constitute a process which enables the efficient and effective execution of specialised functional activities (Hanekom *et al.* 1987: 62), as is the case with Land Reform.

This confirms the importance of locating Public Administration as a discipline, a necessity for all government and non-government institutions. Literature on Public Administration indicates that several efforts to improve public administration functioning have occurred in the world, as far back as the 19th century. In most industrialised countries the efforts to improve public administration were driven through internal processes based on available resources, as opposed to the less-developed countries, where such improvement efforts were imposed by external aid (Peters, 1996: 2).

This is evidenced by exponents of Public Administration, including, amongst others, Woodrow Wilson (1887), Lorenz von Stein (1855), and other later public administration supporters, such as Waldo (1955), Etzioni (1986), Lindblom (1959), Simon (1938) and Kettl (1990, in Rosenbloom *et al.*, 1994). According to Von Stein (1855), as quoted by Wikipedia (2010), issues of concern were that:

- (i) Public Administration is found to be an integrating science which relies on many pre-established disciplines, such as Sociology, Political Science, Administrative Law and Public Finance. Further on, as described by Waldo (1955) in Rosenbloom *et al.* (1994: 4), in Chapter Two of this document, Public Administration is regarded as a science, due to its eclectic nature as, it borrows substance from other disciplines. Public Administration can be regarded as a sealing element amongst other disciplines; each of these disciplines consists of parts or all the elements of Public Administration.
- (ii) Public administrators need to be concerned with both theory and practice. Practical considerations are at the forefront of the field, but theory is the basis of best practices. Hence, some students and administrators are convinced and impressed with the achievements of the natural and physical sciences, and they insist that

Public Administration can be seen as a science (Waldo, 1955 in Rosenbloom *et al.*, 1994: 4).

The impression that Public Administration further creates – due, to its emphasis on intangibles, such as judgment and leadership – places it more as an art rather than a science (Waldo 1955, in Rosenbloom *et al.*, 1994: 4)).

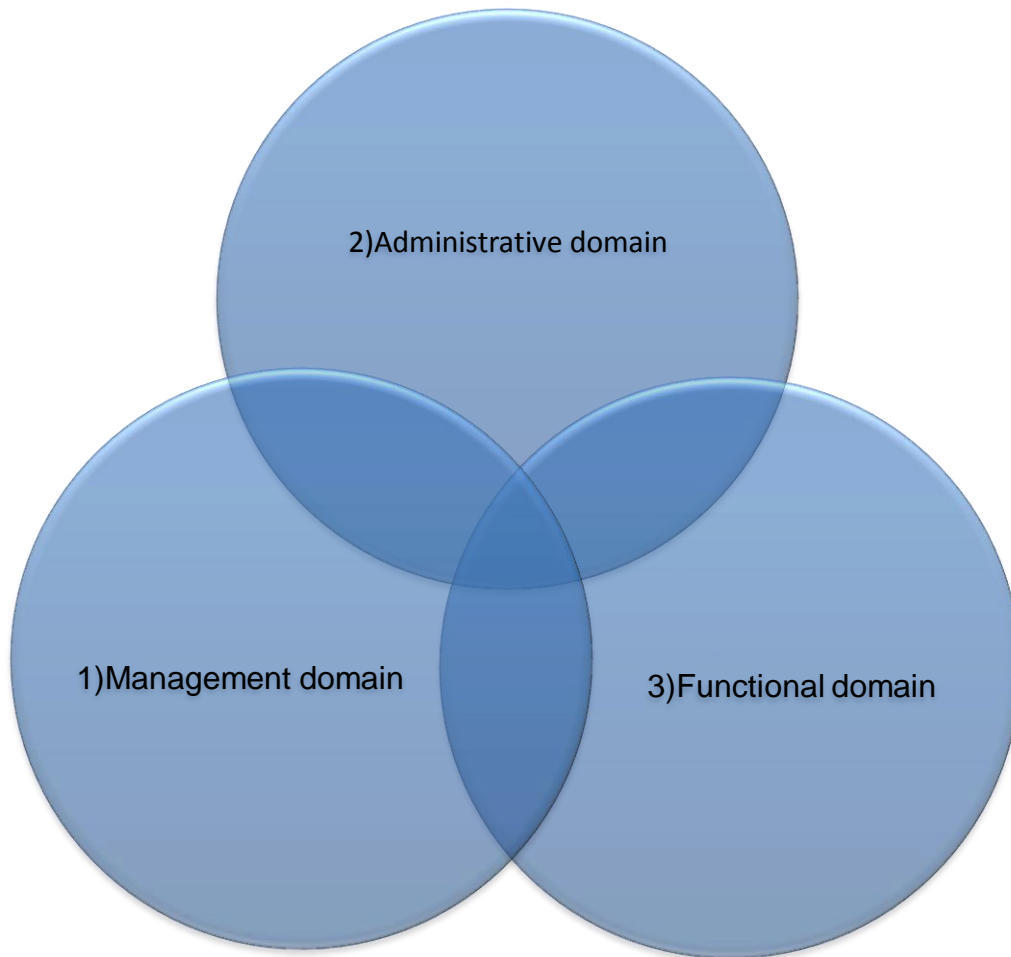
Von Stein (1855, as quoted by Wikipedia 2010) further attests to the fact that Public Administration is a science, since knowledge is generated and evaluated according to the scientific method. According to Wilson (1887, in Wikipedia 2010, and Chandler & Plano, 1988: 42), Public Administration can be broadly described as the development, implementation and study of branches of government policy. Consequently, it remains true that in government the study, development and implementation of policies for improved service delivery are crucial, as indispensable parts of public administration.

Wilson (1887) is said to have been more influential to the science of Public Administration than Von Stein. This was basically due to his views on separating politics from administration; his critical analysis of political and private organisations; improving efficiency on daily operations through pro-business approaches and attitudes; and improved public service through the training and management of public servants (Wikipedia, 2010).

The issue of separating public administration from politics is still a controversial matter in South Africa. Wilson (1887) argued that Public Administration could be made scientific only if administrators were able to concentrate on the execution of policy after the legislative system had defined it. Efficient processes of policy execution include aspects of management, as this forms an integral part of Public Administration. Roux *et al.* (1997: 10) define management as being part of a human capability to perform administration effectively. Judgment, decision-making, guidance, integration and motivation are social processes of management that are involved in administration.

This makes management part of administration (Roux *et al.* 1997: 10). An illustration of the above is shown schematically in Diagram 3.1.

Diagram 3.1: The working field of a public official



Adapted from Botes, P.S; Brynard, P.A; Fourie, D.J & Roux, N.L. 1997. *Critical Issues in Public Management and Administration in South Africa*. Pretoria: Kagiso Press. p10.

The diagram above illustrates the relationship between the fields in which a working official becomes involved on a daily basis. As administrators, working officials must ensure that the management functions (as in 1) are undertaken and activities to realise these management functions are performed as in the functional domain (3) and that

these processes all require administration (2) to ensure that they are carried out as planned.

Ostrom and Ostrom (1971, as indicated in Rosenbloom *et al.*, 1994: 22) confirm that Wilson's essay in the "The study of Administration" called for a new Science of Administration, based on a radical distinction between politics and administration. Wilson (1887) argued that governments may differ on political principles, but principles of good administration should be the same in any system of government (Ostrom and Ostrom (1971, in Rosenbloom *et al.* 1994: 22).

It is however difficult to realise Wilson's proposition to date, especially in developing countries, such as South Africa. The establishment of post-1994 legislation seeks to hasten service delivery, and both the executive and legislative systems are equally engaged in attaining such a goal. Nengwekhulu (2009: 350) confirms the above; failure to fulfil unplanned and unbudgeted expectations of the public is normally beyond the realm of public service performance. Such service delivery failures are blamed on those in government -- on both the political and the administrative leadership.

Public servants cannot, by law, deliver or attempt to deliver public services that are not budgeted for by Parliament (Nengwekhulu, 2009: 350). Nengwekhulu (2009: 350) further attests to the fact that demands, needs and expectations placed on government to deliver public services may be unlimited, but government resources to meet these issues are limited. The policy on redistributing land to the poor, especially the HDIs, specifically women, are clear in regard to the target. However, the fact that not as many women have accessed land may be attributed to a variety of causes. This matter will be further detailed in the following chapter.

Public Administration has developed as an academic field – through a succession of five phases (Henry, 2004: 29). Each phase has been characterised by whether it has a locus or a focus; a locus is the institutional location of the field (Henry, 2004: 29). A recurring locus of public administration is the government bureaucracy, but again this

has not always been the case, and often this traditional locus has been blurred (Henry, 2004: 29). On the other hand, the focus is the specialised content of what is studied, its body of knowledge and expertise (Henry, 2004: 29). The main focus has been the study of specific public administration principles, even though the focus of the discipline has been altered with improving stages of the field (Henry, 2004: 29).

This is true when looking at the development of public administration dating as far back as the 19th century, and it is still being discussed to date.

Goodnow (1900) is quoted by Golembewieski (1968: 10) as stating that public administration has been described as having both the locus and focus in its nature. Goodnow (1900 - 1926) is further cited by Henry (2004: 30) as a scholar of the first paradigm. This was characterised by the politics and administration dichotomy (1900 – 1926). Goodnow (1900) contended that there were two distinct functions of government: *Politics has to do with policies or expression of the State's will, while administration has to do with the execution of these policies* (Henry, 2004:30).

This first paradigm puts the emphasis on the locus, which is where public administration should be. As indicated earlier, public administration should be located within the different branches of government. The development of the *WPSALP* (1997) and its target on women is a clear expression of the State's will; and this is the government's intention: to have such a policy executed in the form of Land Reform Programmes – for the process to be complete (*WPSALP*, 1997:40).

The above puts further clarity on the demand for good administration, as it implies the execution of the State's will (Goodnow, 1900 – 1926, in Henry, 2004: 30). Policy implementers need to be vigilant, because if policies are budgeted for, but are not implemented as expected, this is an indication of poor service delivery.

The second paradigm was that of knowing and applying the principles of public administration (during 1927 – 1937), and how administrators using such principles apply

them in their work (Henry, 2004: 32). Gulick and Urwick (1937) promoted seven principles of administration. They used the acronym POSDCORB (which stands for planning, organising, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting and budgeting). Public Administration, as a discipline, is located amongst other scientific disciplines, and its focus is on the activities or functions of public administration, of which, amongst others policy-making is a function. The later developments of administration were in contrast with the politics existing at that time.

The third paradigm was that of Public Administration – as being part of Political Science during the 1950s – 1970s. This era saw a renewed definition of the locus, the government branches and an equivalent loss of the focus (Henry, 2004: 37). The challenge, according to Henry (2004: 37), was that around 1962, Public Administration was not included as a sub-field of Political Science in the report of the Committee on Political Science as a discipline to the American Political Science Association.

The diminishing status of Public Administration was saved by the growing use of case studies as an epistemological device, and the rise of comparative and developmental administration as sub-fields of Public Administration (Henry, 2004: 39). The use of case studies as methods of investigating knowledge is still applicable in most disciplines to date. As described in section 2.5.1 of Chapter Two, the beginning of a scenario starts with phenomena, and cases provide opportunities to study such phenomena further (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008: 129).

Case studies are used in this study as one of the qualitative research methods because of their ability to extract knowledge and information from participants, even when the researcher is not an active party to the participants.

The fourth phase of Public Administration (1956 – 1970) came about as a result of misplacing Public Administration within Political Science departments (Henry, 2004: 41). As an alternative, Public Administration geared itself towards management; however, management provides a focus, but not a locus.

Management offered high level techniques that required expertise, and high levels of skills and specialisation in the field. Scholars of Public Administration still felt that whether the field is located well within Political Science or not, it is still a critical sub-field.

The fifth and last phase, which existed around the 1970s, saw a more organised Public Administration, as a result of the establishment of an association: the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA). The NASPAA was made up of colleges and universities that ensured that programmes in Public Administration were offered. The essence of Public Administration and its role in all other fields places it as a key discipline in achieving a number of goals.

It is during phase five that issues of governance and supremacy become crucial. The need for a more collaborated government system became essential to ensure that the established Association receives sufficient support from the relevant government bodies.

3.4 The discipline of contemporary Public Administration

According to Hughes (1994:1), traditional public administration has been discredited theoretically and practically, and the adoption of a New Public Management (NPM) system brought about the birth of a new paradigm in the public sector. The improvement on the traditional public administration has been observed in both developed and less developed countries. This is similar to what Lindblom (1959, in Rosenbloom *et al.*, (1994:353) refers to as a science of “muddling through”, wherein a set of policy alternatives are weighed in an effort to select the best.

An improved and more focused Public Administration is essential to build on the work initiated by the historical writers of Public Administration. Some of the interventions were in the form of conferences. These will be discussed in the following section.

Cameron and Milne (2009: 381) confirm that several initiatives, some in the form of conferences, have been attended in an attempt to improve Public Administration as a discipline and activity, and to react to people's needs properly. A few of such conferences were the Minnowbrook I; II and III and Mount Grace conferences. These have become known as historical conferences, since they attempted to reshape Public Administration in times of turbulence (Cameron & Milne, 2009: 381).

The three Minnowbrook Conferences were for the American Public Administration Academics, but their influence was felt globally, while the two Mount Grace conferences were held in South Africa (Cameron & Milne, 2009: 381). These conferences will be briefly discussed in relation to their influence on the contemporary Public Administration systems in South Africa and America.

The Minnowbrook I Conference resulted in the conceptualisation of the New Public Administration (NPA) as a product of the 1960s and 1970s public administration interventions. These occurred in 1968 (Cameron & Milne, 2009: 381). The main concern for holding this conference was the notion that neither the study nor the practice of Public Administration was reacting appropriately to society's needs at that time (Cameron & Milne, 2009: 381).

There was a general feeling that Public Administration was not relevant to the times (Waldo, 1991 in Cameron & Milne, 2009: 381). The question of whether Public Administration has advanced to the extent that it now responds to the needs of society should also be reviewed through studies such as these. The purpose of government is to ensure that society's needs are met.

The Conference targeted young scholars – less than 35 years of age. It is confirmed that no women attended (Waldo & Frederickson, 1971, in Cameron & Milne, 2009: 381). The Minnowbrook I Conference has been viewed as the most relevant historical conference and arguably the most influential academic conference on Public Administration (Cameron & Milne, 2009: 382). Compared with the Minnowbrook II

Conference, which was held twenty years later in 1988, both male and female scholars participated and nearly a quarter of the participants were women (Cameron & Milne, 2009: 383).

Between Minnowbrooks I and II, there was a substantial growth in the academic discipline – with, more degree programmes and an increased number of students in the discipline. Minnowbrook III held in 2008, revisited the Minnowbrook I Conference focuses. These focuses were on how Public Administration, Public Management and Public Service could respond in the current times (Cameron & Milne, 2009: 384). Minnowbrooks I and II both had similarities and common focus areas, because both conferences focused on (Bailey & Mayer, 1992: 2):

- (i) a concerted effort towards the commitment of promoting public administration and its future;
- (ii) overall optimism that public administration can contribute to a better future, as it shows profound concern and respect for the people and their problems; and
- (iii) an emphasis on authenticity for public administration and its practitioners and scholars.

More young scholars participated in the Minnowbrook III Conference, and they detailed their expectations on the future aspects on which Public Administration had to focus. Future directions of Public Administration were to include, amongst others, aspects of academic-practitioner relations; democratic performance management; social equity and justice; and public administration values and theories. This illustrates the efforts that have been taken to address concerns raised by scholars, such as Kettl (1990); Hughes (1994) and Lindblom (1959).

Frederickson, according to Wikipedia (2010), assisted in organising the Minnowbrook Conferences I and II, which marked the beginning of the “New Public Administration.” The need for “relevant” administration was a common theme in these Conferences. Participating in sessions, such as these, provides an opportunity for the participants to

voice their concerns and wishes on any specified matter. Similar occurrences would improve the voice of women, and their needs could then be addressed.

The two conferences that followed in South Africa, Mount Grace I and II, which took place in 1990 and 1999 respectively, made high level contributions to the development of Public Administration in South Africa. These conferences received inputs that were made in the form of engaging the State in its attempt to solve real-life problems. The New Public Management, as opposed to the old Public Administration, seeks to bring solutions to real-life problems.

The conferences for South Africa must have been easy to deal with identified problems, because the participants in these conferences knew most, if not all, of the urgent challenges that needed government's intervention.

Further emphasis was placed on strengthening Public Administration research and research networks between universities, technikons, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), other practitioners and public servants through the South African New Public Administration Initiative (NPAI) (Cameron & Milne, 2009: 385). It may be concluded from the above that more commitment and effort are necessary to realise government service delivery initiatives; policy formulation alone is not sufficient. Policy implementation and the realisation of goals that will benefit the intended beneficiaries are the basic intention.

Of concern is the serious lack of participation by women in such conferences; it is not clear whether it is limited financial resources or lack of information or both that have led to such a low level of participation by women. If women are not participating in such forums it would be difficult to incorporate their needs in any policy-making.

The *WPSALP* (1997) had – and still has – intentions to redistribute land. The formulation of the *WPSALP* (1997), as a guideline to empower women and other categories of individuals in need of land, is a function of public administration.

A further observation from the conferences mentioned above is the period of time that lapsed between Minnowbrooks I, II and III. A twenty-year time difference is too long for follow-up actions, even if there were any. Such forums should be held more frequently under a specific banner, either for new policy matters or to review the already-existing ones.

In an attempt to resolve the challenges, conferences such as the Mount Grace I and II were held. The conferences aimed to deal with real problems faced largely by the disadvantaged people. The main challenges were along the high level of inequity to access resources, including land. South Africa as a developing country is disadvantaged by its dual nature – in terms of production. The well established agricultural sector has a stable economy as opposed to the less established sector. This inequality leads to economic inequities and a disparity in terms of resource ownership.

The shortage of natural resources leads to an over-utilisation of those limited resources, and results in the exhaustion of the materials that made the resource productive. Over-utilisation can deplete the resources and cause ongoing shortages in the future. The next section will discuss the sustainable development perspective in relation to Public Administration. The fulfillment of current human needs and goals should not be at the expense of future human goals.

3.5 The sustainable development perspective in Public Administration

Sustainable development has arisen from a recognition of the need to maintain a balance between economic development and environmental protection, and the need to ensure generational equity (Quaddus & Saddique, 2004: 3).

Economic development is regarded as a sustained increase in the per capita income. The argument posed by Quaddus and Saddique (2004: 3) is that defining economic development in terms of a sustained increase in per capita income only leads to a neglect of the distribution of such an income.

The issue of sustainable development has gained strength from year to year, with the realisation that considering economic development and environmental development is not enough. The FAO (2008) believes that the true potential of systems – whether led by government or other institutions – can only be fully achieved by people empowerment, and when they are solidly supported by people, institutions, and systems from below.

The social dimension of development was conceived, and both environmental and social developments were subsequently related to sustainable development (Quaddus & Saddique, 2004: 3).

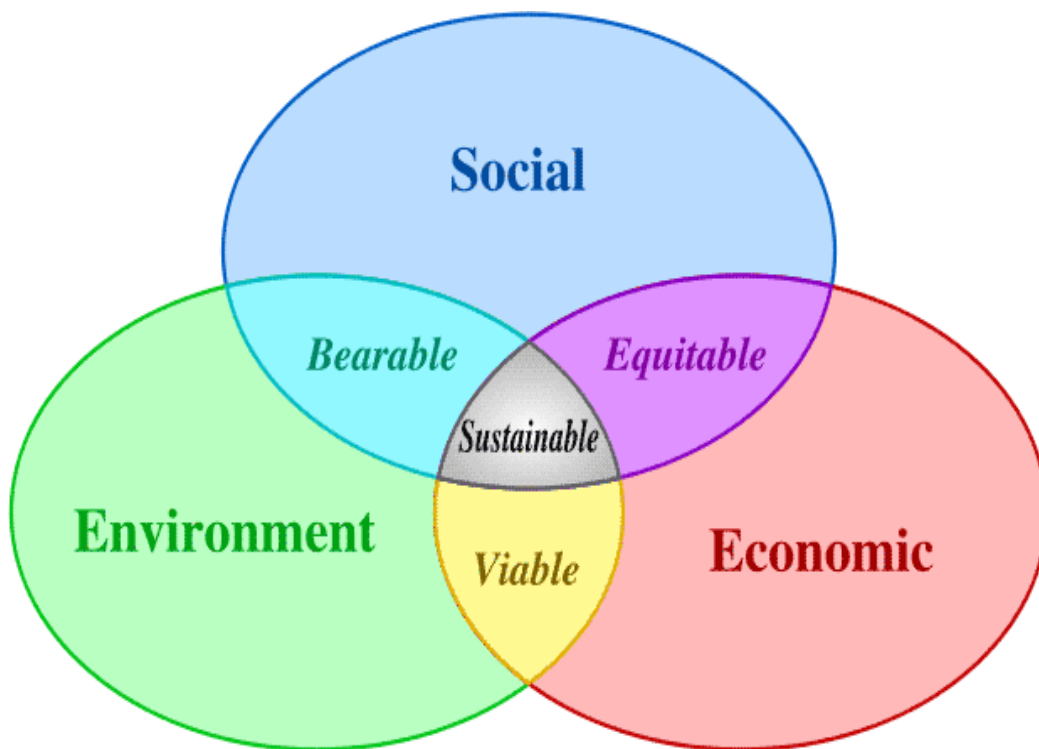
As defined in Chapter One, sustainable development is regarded as a process that fulfils present human needs without destroying opportunities for future generation's needs. According to the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP, 1994: 39), the democratic government must ensure that all South African citizens, present and future, have the right to an acceptable and desirable quality of life through the sustained use of resources. To achieve this sustained use of resources currently, and in the future, government has to ensure the following:

- (i) impartial access to natural resources; those that need access to resources should not be denied the opportunity. However, resource access should be given together with the educational awareness on how to utilise these resources, and to avoid the depletion thereof;
- (ii) the promotion of safe and healthy living and work-related environments for all; and
- (iii) a participatory decision-making process inclusive of community empowerment on environmental and natural resource management.

The above issues are based on government because of the budgetary resources available within government and due to the national interest in the use of natural resources.

Efforts should be made to involve interested and affected parties in environmental education campaigns and the sustainable use of natural resources. Diagram 3.2 indicates the pillars of sustainable development and their relationship to one another. Sustainable Development pillars are the social, economic and environmental aspects within which humans perform their livelihood activities. The fact that these pillars are part of people's everyday activity should make it possible to enhance the awareness of their importance.

Diagram 3:2: Three pillars of sustainability



Adapted from: Brown, S.T. 2007. *Three Pillars of Sustainability* London: ODI Westminster Bridge Road.

The diagram above indicates the relationship that exists between the social, economic and environmental elements of sustainable development. Areas of equitability, viability and bearability are equally critical for sustainability.

As a result of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, an action plan and blueprint for sustainable development was adopted by over 18 governments. This was called Agenda 21 (Van Rooyen, in Kuye *et al.*, 2002:136).

Agenda 21 places the emphasis on strengthening environmental and resource management policies and agencies.

The action plan considered strategies for good governance and democracy, human rights and an improved quality of life for both the current and future generations (Van Rooyen, in Kuye *et al.*, 2002:136). Viability and equal access have been emphasised, together with current and future users. One of the key focus areas of Agenda 21 was combating poverty, which emphasised the rights of women (Van Rooyen, in Kuye *et al.* 2002:136).

South Africa, as a party to the signed Agenda 21 agreement, further hosted the World Conference on Sustainable Development and the National Land Summit. The World Conference on Sustainable Development was held in South Africa in 2002, and it emphasised environmental preservation in all the developmental projects. The National Land Summit was held during 2005 at NASREC in Johannesburg by the then Minister of Agriculture and Land Affairs. The summit was aimed at creating a platform in which South Africans would be able to find practical solutions to accelerate land delivery for sustainable development (National Land Summit Report, 2005:5).

Participants at the National Land Summit (2005), which included government, commercial agriculture and social movements, agreed on the following points (National Land Summit, 2005:9):

- (i) The commitment to ensure the redistribution of at least 30 % of white- owned agricultural land by the year 2014 was renewed. Government committed to reduce poverty and unemployment by half over the next decade, starting from 2005. It was realised that land and agrarian reform are not only necessary to

undo the injustices of the past, but should also be central to economic transformation and the achievement of accelerated and shared growth goals.

- (ii) It was confirmed that the current approaches are not delivering land at the scale required to achieve the target above, and very little to no developmental benefits can be associated with land reform to date. An urgent need to change the approach towards delivering land was seen as a priority.
- (iii) A stronger need for partnership and co-operation between the State and other critical stakeholders was identified. The role of the State, however, was identified as that of a leading partner towards ensuring accelerated and sustainable land and agrarian reform.
- (iv) Of importance, was that significant legislative reform over the last ten years (as mentioned above in section 3.1 of this chapter) has been achieved, yet there is little real change in the lives of people living and working on farms. The main change in the approach to land and agrarian reform had to ensure that people living and working on commercial farms would be the primary beneficiaries of land reform.

At the time of writing this thesis, it was five years from the date of the National Land Summit, and resolutions from the summit have been overtaken by more urgent administrative issues, notwithstanding the fact that some of these resolutions have received little attention. It is against this backdrop that the needs to take a new look at women, as beneficiaries of land reform, became necessary.

Added to this, was the fact that Section 196 of the *Constitution*, (1996) puts the emphasis on the basic values and principles governing public administration. Section 196, Sub-Section (1) (e) of the *Constitution*, (1996) emphasises that people's needs must be responded to, and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy-making. It is a Constitutional mandate for public officials to ensure the inclusion of all the necessary stakeholders in the policy-making process.

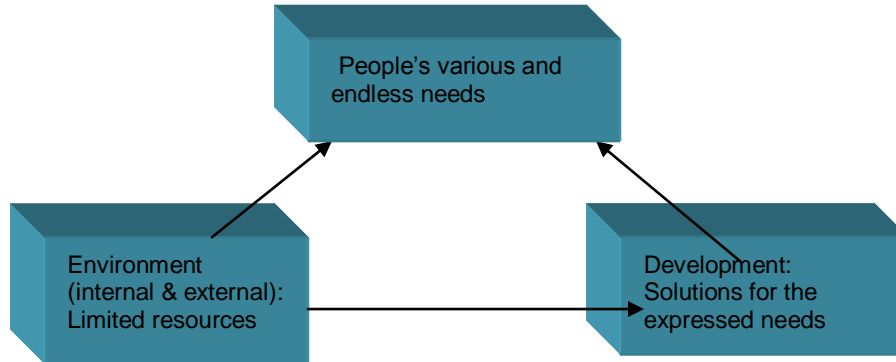
Both public administration, as a discipline and public administration as an activity are equally important, because the scientific study deals with the action, and in action there is hope for further development and eventually sustainable development. If there is no public administration action, few activities towards development will be realised. In this process, people's needs must be addressed and plans brought to fruition. The scientific study is critical, because it is in this process that community needs are assessed and finally supported. The struggle has been to deal with the previous segregations that resulted in inequalities and economic inadequacy.

It is clear from the above that a process of making land available to beneficiaries has to ensure that beneficiaries use and develop such land in an environmentally and socially acceptable manner. Resource access and support that do not meet these requirements of development cannot enhance people's wellbeing.

The development trends of public administration are similar to those of sustainable development – even though public administration faces more serious challenges in terms of its locus. Sustainable development was more acceptable and well-placed because of its implication on people's improved livelihoods. Issues of economic development, endangered future, environmental safety and social growth were in the centre of sustainable development discussions. People have a tendency to be more accepting and agreeable to what benefits them directly – as opposed to something that has only long-term and hidden benefits.

Jeppe and van Baalen (1995, in Mokgoro & Cloete, 1997: 29) depict sustainable development as dealing with the triangular relationship between people, development and the environment, even though this is portrayed as a complex notion. In simpler words, sustainable development may be defined as a process whereby people have the capacity to manage limited resources (the environment) to meet their present and future needs (development) indefinitely. This relationship between people, the environment and development can be illustrated by Diagram 3.3, as follows:

Diagram 3.3 Effects of people on the environment relative to development



Source: Adapted from Cloete & Mokgoro. 1995. *Policies for the Public Service Transformation*, Kenwyn: Juta & Co, Ltd. p 29.

The triangular relationship above between people, resources and development is a process that often results in policy-making – in an effort to direct decisions and efforts.

Cameron (1992) was quoted in Cloete and Mokgoro (1995: 33), as distinguishing three levels for policy-making pertaining to sustainable development, through interrelated and sequential phases. According to Cloete and Mokgoro (1995: 33), these key phases are further discussed as awareness (knowledge creation to all South Africans about the catastrophes of non-sustainable development), assessment (having a thorough data base on which the developmental needs dictate versus the development of related policies) and action (ensuring well-established institutions, as well as human resource development through social mobilisation).

A series of alternative solutions will be explored and the best of these will be used to address sustainable development challenges. Section 195 (1) (a) of the *Constitution*, (1996) provides for the promotion of efficient and effective use of resources. Section 195 (1) (c) and (d) of the *Constitution*, (1996) further dictates that public administration must be development-oriented, and services must be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias. Even the supreme law of the country calls for the access to services, besides the specific policies that were more service-focused. The *WPSALP* (1997) confirms what the *Constitution*, (1996) desired initially, though in a more detailed manner.

There is a direct link between providing resources for development and utilising such resources in a sustainable manner. Sustainable resource matters entail conservation prescripts. The conservation of natural resources, however, land being one of them, should take into account people's basic livelihood needs. Women are the previously disadvantaged in terms of their access to land. Throughout the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region, it is women who have carried the heaviest load of ensuring that there is subsistence production, for the consumption of their families (SADC, 1987: 16).

In rural areas it is estimated that women spend 10 hours a day on production for subsistence, two hours on water and fuel collection, and four hours on family care and other household cleaning services (SADC, 1987: 16).

The number of hours spent on land-related subsistence production exceeds the rest of the other activities by far. This further justifies the need to prioritise women in their drive to obtain access to resources. The sustainable use of such resources by the present generation should take place in such a way that the future generation benefits equally. According to Fisher *et al.* (2008: 127), all interventions must take equity into account in spreading the resources, costs and impacts to the poor. Natural resources are costly to restore after their deterioration, yet it is less costly to avoid such deterioration (Fisher *et al.*, 2008: 127).

This calls for educational campaigns on proper natural resource management, as opposed to natural resource restoration. The sustainable use of resources needs to be prescriptive and mandatory, as far as government can enforce such use. Access to resources has not had any conditions attached to it. The Land Reform Policy and its programmes assume that land and its related resources will be used with care and caution. A policy guide or prescription for the utilisation of natural resources is still lacking.

3.6 Conclusion

The origin of public administration has been discussed in detail, especially the amount of work and effort that has gone into placing public administration at the level of other sciences. To date, public administration experts are still hard at work in improving Public Administration – both as a discipline and as an activity.

Public administration as a theory and as a discipline involves functions. These functions are crucial for effective and successful development. Expressed community requests are converted into administrative functions, and the expected outputs are the administrative regulators. Needs are expressed – either in the form of written requests -- or by petitions or *Izimbizos* through the community structures and their members. These are translated into administrative functions and later become regulations which will be implemented according to the expected outcomes.

The environment within which these administrative functions occur dictates what should be done and how. Activities to achieve the set outputs should not deplete the environment within which they are done, because this would result in non-sustainable development. Authors referred to in the chapter have confirmed the importance of considering the environment within which any administrative functions occur, for the future and for the sustainable use of such resources.

Land reform in South Africa has become a mandatory function, and ways and means to ensure its success need to be developed. The intended target that is supposed to benefit from this initiative are the HDIs, amongst which are women. Women are the main tillers of land, and it may be assumed that they will use it in a sustainable manner, because their survival depends on land. The following chapter will discuss the social, economic and environmental aspects within which land reform functions, as well as its role in empowering women for sustainable development. Policies occur within specific environments and such environments have an impact on the type of sustainable development that is achievable.

CHAPTER 4

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS IMPACTING ON WOMEN'S SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter dealt with the origin and status of Public Administration in relation to land reform. The origin and development of Public Administration was discussed in relation to the future and the ideal Public Administration. The chapter further delved into policy-making aspects that facilitate sustainable development. It is a reality that developing countries, such as South Africa, are on a journey towards improving their growth and development status on a continuous basis. Support for development that is long term and sustainable is necessary from the perspective that it must consider the environment within which it occurs. Of importance is the fact that national and international communities have a critical eye on development initiatives and their impact on the environment.

Activities that happen on a daily basis, which often lead to the achievement of developmental goals, whether small or big, happen within a specified environment. Access to land and its use is not adequate if the use of such land is in the form of exhaustive or even destructive practices that have a negative effect on both the environment and the land. Developmental initiatives are aimed at providing positive inputs towards addressing the needs of the public. It is of great importance that development takes cognisance of the fact that the environment within which it occurs is not renewable or replaceable; hence, the need for future considerations in all developmental activities. Increasing demands for services by the public are not necessarily directly in proportion to the resources that are available to meet these demands.

Women in South African were identified as the majority of the people (in Chapter One of this study).

The focus is on women who have benefited from land reform programmes in the Gauteng Province. The needs of women go beyond their personal needs – to household needs, and further on, to community needs. The allocation of resources, such as land to empower women, will ensure that most of the survival needs are addressed as well.

The reasons for redistributing land have been mainly for increased production, and to a certain extent, to address the issue of land dispossessions. Increased production will ensure continuous food security and sustain the livelihoods of those who have been allocated land. Continuous food security should be for the current and future generations, as it is assumed that all generations will have the same requirements for food. It is critical that allocated land be used in a sustainable manner – for current and future generations.

This chapter investigates the extent to which the Land Reform Policy has had an impact on aspects of promoting the socio-economic development of women, and ensuring that land is utilised sustainably. The South African Land Policy will be discussed in relation to the international Land Policy Framework. The chapter further highlights the importance of the environment within which women operate in striving to reach their sustainable development. The land Policy objectives are clear in their aim for economic growth and sustainable development.

The need for improved livelihoods has been emphasised, and the means have to be rendered available for achieving such livelihoods. The emphasis on land acquisition through the LRAD Programme is clear as regards its intention to improve the economic, social and environmental aspects of its beneficiaries – through the use of such land. Cautious and increased economic, social and environmental use of resources is vital in order to achieve sustainable development. The economic, cultural and social environment within which women operate as land owners is assessed in relation to the women's sustainable development. The last section deals with the role of government in women's sustainable development.

4.2 The South African land-related policy framework

The Land Reform Policy was one of the priority areas for the Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994:16). As of 2010, the Land Reform Policy is still a priority, as it is one of the five Priority Areas of the current government.

These Priority Areas are job creation and economic growth, improved health, better education, the fight against crime, rural development, and land reform for poverty alleviation and food security (The Presidency, 2010). According to the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP, 1994:16), it was necessary to develop a programme of affirmative action that would address the deliberate marginalisation of women and rural communities from economic, social and political power.

Land-related policies, such as the RDP (1994); the *Constitution* (1996); the *WPSALP* (1997) and its related programmes; the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (*BBBEE*, 2003) and its Agricultural Black Economic Empowerment (AgriBEE) were developed to support the Land-Reform Policy initiatives. A discussion of each of these policies is undertaken in the section that follows in this chapter.

Land and agrarian policy reform in South Africa holds the promise of increasing efficiency, equity and generating jobs (van den Brink *et al.*, 2006:25). Developing legislation that is needed to support land reform, as listed above, must, therefore, be done with the hope that efficient and equitable access to land will be achieved. Access to land is expected to create jobs and impact the economy of the country. The RDP (1994:20) further confirms that the national Land Reform Policy and its Programmes are central and driving forces for any programme of rural development.

Deininger (2003:1) is in support of the fact that access to land and the ability to use it effectively are of great importance for poverty reduction, economic growth and private sector investment -- as well as the empowerment of the poor.

In the five priorities above (The Presidency, 2010) the land reform is currently linked to the eradication of poverty and job creation.

The cabinet approved the concept of the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) on 12 August 2009 (South African Government Information, 2009).

Rural development and land reform for poverty alleviation and food security, as mentioned earlier above in this section, comprise some of the five key priorities of government, aimed at creating sustainable rural communities in South Africa. CRDP aims to provide opportunities for rural communities' development – without relocating them from their present locations.

According to the South African Government Information Act (2009), the success of the CRDP is based on three pillars. These pillars are:

- (i) an improved land reform programme;
- (ii) a co-ordinated and integrated broad-based agrarian transformation; and
- (iii) well-positioned investments in economic and social infrastructure for rural areas.

Through the above, it is hoped that improved land redistribution will address rural development challenges. As will be seen in the section that follows, “rural development” has not been used to mean the opposite of urban development, but rather to refer to farm production activities, because such farm operations are not allowed in urban areas, while they are permitted and undertaken outside urban areas. The introduction of the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) is an initiative towards linking land reform to poverty alleviation, as mandated.

Initiatives, such as the CRDP, which put the emphasis on growth and development, are basically re-enforcing the original prescripts given by the RDP (1994), the *WPSALP* (1997), the Constitution (1996), and the BBBEE Act (2003), as will be discussed in the section that now follows.

4.2.1 The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)

The RDP (1994:20) as a document that was meant to meet the basic needs of South Africans confirmed the inequitable distribution of resources, including land. According to the RDP (1994:20), the land policy had to ensure that it removed all forms of discrimination in women's access to land – by providing security of tenure for all South Africans, regardless of their system of land tenure. This is most noticeable in rural areas and much of Africa, where husbands work in the urban areas, while women effectively head rural households (de Villiers & Critchley, 1997: 102).

High levels of rural poverty, coupled with a fragile agro-ecological environment, make the contribution of women's productive activities to the household and community a crucial element for the survival of such rural populations (de Villiers & Critchley, 1997: 102). Women, as the majority of poor people in South Africa (RDP, 1994: 17 & 84; and de Villiers & Critchley, 1997: 102) had to be prioritised in regard to access to resources.

Women's access to resources and authority is mainly accomplished through men; they have limited access to land in their own right, and therefore little security of tenure (KIT Royal Tropical Institute, 2001: 63). According to the RDP (1994: 21), women face specific difficulties in obtaining land, and as such, institutions, practices and laws that discriminate against women's access to land had to be reviewed and aligned to national policy.

Land reform programmes paved the way towards improving access to land. These programmes (Redistribution, Restitution and Tenure reform) were based on the legislative framework for land reform (*WPSALP*, 1997), as discussed in Chapter One.

In addition to access, programmes such as the Land Redistribution Act, had to include provision of services to beneficiaries of land reform, so that they could use their land productively (RDP, 1994: 21). The aim was to ensure that land is accessed for purposes of improving production, and as such to improve women's overall development.

Such development from land should be supported by the rural infrastructure, support services and training at all levels – to ensure that land is utilised effectively (RDP, 1994: 21).

Development efforts have to be structured in such a way that they address the special situation of women, because they form the majority of small-scale farmers and have to deal with poverty, overcrowding and hunger – especially in rural areas (RDP, 1994: 84). The cases that will be discussed in Chapter Five are all situated in the Gauteng Province. This could lead to assumptions that these cases are not necessarily rural. However, they become part of a rural setting on the basis that:

- (i) Farms where cases have been selected are on the outskirts of Bronkhorstspuit, and are, therefore, neither urban nor peri-urban.
- (ii) The women participants that were interviewed were all originally from other provinces. They became residents of the Gauteng Province through their interest in farming. Their cultural background was already rural.
- (iii) Farming activities that are undertaken in these cases, such as pig farming and livestock farming, would not be acceptable in the cities, because they pose environmental hazards. Special permission would have to be obtained to start farming operations that have an environmental impact within cities.

According to Wibberley (1972, in Vyakarnam, 1990: 85), rural – from a geographic point of view, may be defined as an area to be regarded as either rural or urban, depending on the predominant use of the land. As a result, areas where agriculture, forestry and related settlements are the main activities should be regarded as rural. Any definition of rural life, without mention of farming, would be incomplete (Vyakarnam, 1990: 1).

The RDP is clear in its proposal to review and amend any laws that promote discriminatory actions against women. The five key programmes of the RDP (1994: 7-11) are:

- (i) meeting the basic needs;
- (ii) developing our human resources;

- (iii) building the economy;
- (iv) democratising the State and society; and
- (v) implementing the RDP.

These five key programmes of the RDP intend to bring equitable access to resources to all South Africans. The ability to implement the land policy programmes is dependent on the provision of services and the availability of resources for the beneficiaries of land reform, so that they can use their land as productively as possible (RDP, 1994: 21).

A brief discussion of the above key programmes will be provided, with the sole aim of emphasising the RDP's firm focus on ensuring that there are guidelines to achieving reconstruction and development in South Africa.

4.2.1.1 Meeting the basic needs

The initial focus of the RDP programme was to begin meeting the basic needs of people, which included jobs, land, housing, water, electricity, telecommunication, transport, healthy environment, nutrition, health care and social welfare. The basic needs listed here are not listed in any particular order of priority, but land has been listed as one of the basic needs. Section 25 (5) of the *Constitution*, (1996) confirms that the State must ensure that legislative and reasonable conditions are in place to enable citizens to gain access to land in an equitable manner.

Maslow (1908) is quoted (in Hampton, 1981: 44-49 and in Wikipedia, 2010) as stating that the safety needs in which land (described as property in the hierarchy of needs) is on the second level of the hierarchy of needs, after the physiological needs that are at the bottom level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. This makes land a necessity for survival rather than a luxury. The emphasis was on the need to involve people in these programmes – by allowing them to become part of the decision-making process, and to benefit from the jobs created – by managing and administering them (RDP, 1994: 8).

4.2.1.2 *Developing our human resources*

By its very nature, the RDP is a people-focused programme because of its emphasis on empowering people in developments that would benefit them. The fragmented and unequal nature of the education and training system has had negative effects on the development of the economy and society (RDP, 1994: 58). Special attention on developing the human resources had to be given to women, as part of society, because of their extreme marginalisation during the previous government dispensation (RDP, 1994:59).

Skills are necessary to empower people, but of critical importance are education and training programmes. According to Nell and Napier (2005: 52), the most critical and important resource in the farming business comprises the people themselves – at both management and operational levels.

The RDP has been emphatic in putting women first, by ensuring that a full and equal role for women is sustained in all aspects of the economy and society. All individuals should be able to access education and training – even beyond the school gate, in all areas of society.

4.2.1.3 *Building the economy*

At the time of the RDP, the country had strengths, such as a surplus of certain resources, including electricity. These resources could be used for economic growth.

The current scenario has produces unexpected consequences – with electricity shortages in South Africa. During 2009 and 2010, the country experienced serious power shortages that had a negative effect on the growth of the economy. Activities, such as mining, agricultural irrigation and industrial development programmes, had to be cut to the minimum, and even put on-hold, in an effort to curb power outages in the country. The South African economy cannot be built by excluding certain activities that occur, simply because of external pressure from other African countries (RDP, 1994:10).

The RDP postulated that, if South Africa attempts to dominate its neighboring countries, the growth in these countries would be reduced and would restrict the potential for market increases – resulting then in unemployment and an increase in migration from these countries to South Africa (1994: 11).

African enterprises, such as the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), play a critical role in overseeing co-ordinated development on the African Continent. The NEPAD Policy Document stated that economic empowerment for the African people would come about as a result of sustainable economic growth and job creation within the African Continent (Venter & Neuland, 2005: 312).

4.2.1.4 Democratising the State and society

The need for democratisation stems from the fact that the RDP had to be people-and-resource oriented, so that these could be available for an agreed-upon Programme of Reconstruction and Development. Section 7 (1) of the *Constitution*, (1996) states that the Bill of Rights, as enshrined therein, would be a cornerstone of democracy in South Africa. According to the RDP (1994: 120), democracy for the ordinary citizens must not end with formal rights and election periods. The preamble of the *Constitution*, (1996) stated that it was adopted as the supreme law of the Republic *to improve the quality of life of all citizens and free the potential of each person*.

Another central component in the overall democratisation of South African society was that of ensuring gender equity. The RDP (1994:121) envisaged that special attention would need to be paid to the empowerment of women. The linkage between democracy, development and people, was aimed at preparing the way for a democratic order.

4.2.1.5 Implementing the RDP

The implementation of the RDP meant that existing resources had to be co-ordinated for the attainment of better service delivery, because new programmes were non-

existent. The Land Reform Programme did not, at this point, have any funds available for redistributing land. However, the RDP was clear on its intention to prioritise programmes, such as land reform. The involvement of democratic structures became critical for the success of the RDP.

The above key programmes of the RDP are emphatic on the participation of people in development initiatives that can benefit them. Parts of the interview in the cases to be dealt with in Chapter Five will investigate the level of participation of women in the Land Reform Programme. It is easy to identify with development processes that were inclusive of all those affected by such development initiatives.

The *Constitution*, (1996) and the *WPSALP* (1997) had similar intentions; and these further made the need to redistribute land a mandatory issue. These land programmes, such as the *Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act, 2003* (Act 53 of 2003), as well as the Agriculture-Based Economic Empowerment will be discussed in the following section.

It is through the sustainable use of resources that the quality of life for all can be improved, and future generations will be taken care of. The sensible use of land will ensure the long-term productivity of the land, as well as an improved quality of life. The linking of democracy, development and a people-centered approach, as stated in the RDP, paved the way for the democratic order, and set out the role of the *Constitution* and its Bill of Rights (RDP, 1994: 11). The *Interim Constitution*, which was adopted in 1993, was subsequently repealed and replaced by the *Constitution*, (1996). This then became the law of South Africa in 1996.

Referral to the *Interim Constitution* of 1993 in this document is for purposes of demonstrating the continuity in the government's intention to care for its citizens.

Section 28 (1) of the *Interim Constitution*, (1993) stated that every person shall have the right to acquire and hold rights in property, to the extent that the nature of the rights permits the disposal of such rights.

Section 28 (2) of the *Interim Constitution*, (1993) further states that any deprivation of such rights in property would not be permitted, unless specifically spelt out by law. The *Interim Constitution*, (1993) was later replaced by the *Constitution*, (1996). This further affirmed the rights of all citizens to the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom through Section 7 (1).

Section 25 (1) of the *Constitution*, (1996) confirmed what the *Interim Constitution*, (1993) regarding the non-deprivation of property for any individual, except in terms of laws of general application, that no law should permit the arbitrary deprivation of property. Section 195 (1)(i) of the *Constitution*, (1996) stated that “public administration must be broadly representative of the South African people, with employment and personnel management practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness, and the need to redress the imbalances of the past – to achieve broad representation”.

What the RDP (1994) had been emphasising – in terms of ensuring that past imbalances are attended to and people have equality before the law – became a priority for policies that followed the RDP. As confirmed by Milne (2009: 974), the *Constitution*, (1996) provides the overarching policy on affirmative action, and details for affirmative action are discussed within the White Papers that deal with affirmative action inside and outside government.

White Papers within government are clear on targets that will achieve women’s empowerment. The lack of such policies beyond the boundaries of government is visible from the illustrated lower figures of women that have accessed land as compared with men. Providing resources to the least-privileged in South Africa was critical in 1994, and it is still urgent to date.

4.2.2 The White Paper on South African Land Policy (WPSALP)

The *WPSALP* (1997: 18) raised concerns on the lack of any effective and integrated environmental management, as a result of landlessness and overcrowding, especially in the former homelands, and incorrect farming practices on commercial farms.

Land degradation that resulted in soil erosion is visible in South Africa, even though there are no data on the extent and rate of land degradation. Soil degradation has been due to poor land management practices, insufficient monitoring and the lack of law enforcement (*WPSALP*, 1997: 18).

According to the *WPSALP* (1997:18), the current land management system in the country is fragmented, not well co-ordinated and it is not transparent. The *WPSALP* (1997) recognises the lack of a coherent information system, as well as the lack of clarity on roles (*WPSALP*, 1997:18). There is a need for co-ordination and the development of national land systems and data to guide the allocation and the use of allocated land.

The *WPSALP* (1997: 5) stated that, ideally, the Land Reform Programmes should contribute to reconciliation, stability, growth and development – in an equitable and sustainable way. The land reform programme, as mentioned in earlier chapters, is targeting to redistribute 30% of agricultural land by 2014. The total number of hectares expressed in figures amounts to 24.6 million hectares of agricultural land. The DRDLR reported that 137,521 households benefited from the Land Redistribution and Tenure Reform Programmes, of which 17,482 (12.7 percent) of the beneficiaries were female-headed households, during the period 1994 to March 2003 (DLA Annual Report, 2003: 39).

The Report indicates a slow pace, in terms of the delivery of land to women, in nine years. Up to May 2008, only 4.3% of land had been redistributed. This is equivalent to 3.6 million ha (DLA, 2008). In September 2009, a total of 5.6 million hectares had been delivered, which is equivalent to around 6.8% (Umhlaba Wethu: 2009: 1).

These totals have not been expressed in terms of the percentage of women that should be assisted, or in terms of the level of poverty that could be alleviated by redistributing the 30% of agricultural land. Over and above the challenges on accessing land, there is the lack of support on services and infrastructural development, which have been observed as a result of the lack of clarity on the status of land rights for blacks (*WPSALP*, 1997: 27). Table 4.1 below illustrates the number of beneficiaries that accessed land in all provinces from 1994 to 2009.

Even though the period of study is from 2000 to 2007, statistical reports – such as this one – are useful as an indication of the trends in women’s access to land and their development.

Table 1.1 shows the number of women in the rural areas as compared to the men. The opposite is true for men in urban hostels because of their employment. Additionally, Table 1.1 shows the number of women that accessed land during the 2008/09 financial year. In all the provinces, less women accessed land in figures that are even less than 50% of the total number of beneficiaries that accessed land in some provinces.

According to the *WPSALP* (1997: 13), some of the origins for the debates on gender and development have come, from amongst others: the Interim Constitution, South Africa’s participation in the Copenhagen Summit, the Beijing Conference (1995), and the Habitat Conference in Istanbul. The establishment of the Commission on Gender Equality in South Africa has actually intensified activities, programmes and debates on gender. Decisions made by government departments become policies because they have to be adopted as rules for governing and possible solutions to identified problems.

The welfare and wellbeing of society depend on an understanding of their needs, as interpreted by the policy formulators, the availability of resources, and the applicability of such policies.

The table below has not broken down figures in terms of women and men, but the Diagram 1.1, in Chapter One clearly indicates the trends in women's access to land.

Table 4.1: Land transferred and beneficiaries, 1994-end to Sept 2009

Prov- ince	Redistribution & tenure			Restitution			Total	
	No.	Ha	Benefits	Claims	Ha	Benefits	Ha	Benefits
EC	675	353,357	25,633	16,201	94,834	215,201	448,191	240,834
FS	799	350,291	7721	2,662	47,615	40,893	397,906	48,614
GP	286	34,513	7,328	13,159	9,476	70,179	43,989	77,507
KZN	690	547,414	67,761	14,752	642,447	433,168	1,189,861	500,929
LP	291	91,235	7,403	3,382	513,024	220,227	604,259	227,630
MP	444	322,839	13,950	2,694	399,876	225,877	722,715	239,827
NC	271	952,744	2,773	3,682	539,620	100,554	1,492,364	103,327
NW	300	268,566	40,539	3,709	373,642	172,963	642,208	213,502
WC	223	122,304	12,750	15,546	3,769	118,165	126,073	130,915
Total	3,979	3,043,264	185,858	75,787	2,624,303	1,597,227	5,667,567	1,783,085

Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2009 Monitoring and Evaluation
Unit: Pretoria: Department of Rural Development and Land Reform.

The above table depicts the progress made in different programmes of land reform, since its inception. It is visible from the above, that a lot of work, in addition to what has been done currently in the form of legislation and government grants for improving access to land, still has to be done. The questions that arise from the figures illustrated above call for a different inquiry, because for the purposes of this study, land access for women is the main focus, and the figures do not show the exact numbers for women.

According to Crowley (1999), the right of women to land is a critical factor in their social and political status, economic wellbeing, and empowerment. In most of the African countries, land is a basic source of employment, especially for women, the key agricultural input, and a major determinant of a farmer's access to other productive resources and services. As will be further elaborated on in the sections that follow in this chapter, land may be further regarded as a social asset, which is crucial for cultural identity, political power, and participation in local decision-making processes (FAO, 2010).

Land reform is important; and it has been strategically placed to redress the injustices of the past, contributing to the government's growth plans, reducing rural poverty, creating jobs and redistributing land (*WPSALP*, 1997:28). The relationship between land redistribution and poverty alleviation is dominantly highlighted here, as it was equally critical in section 4.2 above. Land reform is intended to enhance economic development, by giving households the opportunity to engage in productive land use and improved job opportunities. Apart from political and ideological motives, the general belief is that better access to land is positively linked to investment and production initiatives (Krishna & Ghimire, 2001).

Land, as one of the factors of production, is viewed as a means for achieving sustainable food security. Venter and Neuland (2005: 448) quote the NEPAD Dialogue 3 of (2003:4), as noting that the production of goods on land dominates most African economies. The two writers further confirm that there is a link between agriculture, as in the productivity of the land, in poverty, because better performance means more jobs, increased incomes – and eventually improved food security for Africa (Venter & Neuland, 2005:448).

There is a direct relationship between what the *WPSALP* (1997:5) put forth as the government aims in 1997 – in terms of land reform for poverty alleviation – and what the government priorities were in 2010. An observation from the foregoing would be that land reform was important during the 20th century, as it still is, even in the current 21st century. The benefits of this programme, in terms of ensuring sustainable development, should be tracked and followed up in such issues as equitable access and improved livelihoods.

The above correlation between land access, rural development and poverty alleviation will be further investigated in the discussion in Chapter Five – because the cases selected were for women, and women are responsible to ensuring that there is food for their families.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, women are responsible for three-quarters of the food production, and they account for more than 50% of the labour force in agriculture (World Bank, 2009:37).

Food production may be expanded to include food preparation – to ensure food security in families. Chapter Four adds value in terms of the economic, social, cultural issues. Chapter Five looks at case studies in land reform that will be later used to arrive at conclusive research recommendations.

4.2.3 Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment

The basis of the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (*BBBEE*) is the *Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment Act, 2003* (Act 53 of 2003). According to the *BBBEE, 2003*, support to HDIs has to be prioritised, especially towards women, youth and people with disabilities. In the RDP (1994: 21), women were identified as having specific challenges that required them to be prioritised.

The preamble of the *BBBEE, 2003* recognises the fact that under the apartheid era race was used to control access to South Africa's productive resources and access to skills. It was further acknowledged that South Africa's economy still excluded the vast majority of its people from ownership of productive assets and the possession of advanced skills. There is, therefore, a need to strengthen the participation of the majority of South Africans in the economy.

According to Bosch (2007) (quoting the Business Report, 16 May 2007), affirmative action policies - as well as policies to achieve black economic empowerment – face the risk that their primary beneficiaries may be black elites, rather than the most disadvantaged group originally targeted. Bosch (2007) (in the Business Report, 16 May 2007) further emphasises that it is understood that skills development has contributed to the rise of a black middle class.

However, such skills development is currently only directed at those who are already employed; and thus, does not tackle the skills shortage adequately in the country as a whole.

This disparity occurs across the board equally for men, as for women also. In this instance, women would be totally vulnerable, because they hardly have a voice on aspects of life that directly affect their livelihoods. There is a huge lack of information and knowledge which could further assist in the development of women. The challenge is that women have to travel long distances to access the necessary information, and they incur costs.

According to Farazmand and Pinkowski (2006:94), the flow of technology, knowledge, people, values and ideas across national borders has affected not only the world's economic order, but also the international and intra-national political order. The population of various poorer countries tends to aspire for the same political rights and economic benefits regardless of the countries' resources and political dispensation.

According to Section 2 of the *BBBEE Act*, 2003, the objectives of this Act are aimed at achieving the following:

- (i) facilitating broad-based black economic empowerment by promoting economic transformation – in, order to enable the complete and value-adding participation of black people in the economy;
- (ii) achieving significant change in the racial composition of ownership and management structures and the skilled occupations of existing and new enterprises;
- (iii) increasing the extent to which communities and workers within enterprises become co-owners of such enterprises; and their ability to access these economic activities;

- (iv) increasing the extent to which black women, in particular, own and manage existing and new enterprises, and improving their access to economic activities and infrastructure;
- (v) promoting investment programmes that lead to broad-based and meaningful participation in the economy by black people – in order to achieve sustainable development and general prosperity;
- (vi) empowering rural and local communities by facilitating access to economic activities, land, infrastructure, ownership and skills; and
- (vii) promoting access to finance for black economic empowerment.

Section 3 of the Act mandates that this Act must be interpreted towards realising the *Constitution* (1996).

The main purpose of the *BBBEE Act*, 2003 was to ensure the following:

- (i) promoting the achievement of the constitutional right to equality;
- (ii) increasing broad-based and effective participation of black people in the economy;
- (iii) promoting a higher growth rate and increased employment for an attractive and equitable distribution of income;
- (iv) establishing a national policy on broad-based black economic empowerment – in order to promote the economic unity of the nation, whilst protecting the common market; and
- (v) promoting equal opportunities and equal access to government services.

Lack of access to resources, including land, as well as lack of skills, were emphasised by the *BBBEE*, 2003. This confirmed the call for equitable redistribution and allocation of land, especially for women. At this point, the lack of success and progress with regard to equitable access will become a serious concern for development when so many legislative mandates call for the same approach towards positive change. Prosperity, economic development and sustainable development have been identified

as the main goals of the *BBBEE*, 2003; the RDP (1994: 78); the *WPSALP* 1997: 5; and Section 195 (1) (b) and (c) of the *Constitution*, (1996).

The realisation of land reform goals will concern itself with calls to redress poverty, as also stated by the above legislation.

The main thrust of the *BBBEE*, 2003 is to ensure equitable access to resources and services by all. National Policies towards ensuring the achievement of the broad-based black economic empowerment had to be established – such as the Agricultural Black Economic Empowerment (AgriBEE).

The former Department of Agriculture launched the AgriBEE framework as part of the *BBBEE*, 2003, to guide Black Economic Empowerment within the agricultural sector in 2004. The AgriBEE is aimed at promoting equity in agriculture-related initiatives. The charter for the AgriBEE noted that empowerment starts with improved access to land and tenure security. The charter provided a distinction between land and enterprise ownership, with voluntary sales of land from the current land owners. Preference is to be given to land sale transactions that benefit the employees within that enterprise.

The charter confirmed the target, as stated by the *WPSALP* (1997), that 30% of the agricultural land had to be targeted; and viable and sustainable enterprises were to be established.

4.3 International policy framework supporting women's sustainable development

According to Mukhopadhyay (1998), in KIT (2001: 13), the first United Nations International Conference on Women held in Mexico in 1975 and the declaration of the International Decade for Women, with the official themes of equality, development and peace, inaugurated a new era for gender equality. Further debates regarding gender equality have gained momentum, as a result of follow-up world conferences on women,

amongst which was the Nairobi conference in 1985, and the Beijing conference held in 1995.

Additional work, through relevant international conventions, including the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) was undertaken. Mukhopadhyay (1998) in KIT (2001: 13) confirms the conspiracy which exists on women's right to own and control property in their own right and not merely as sisters, wives, daughters or widows.

As part of a larger community, women's lack of interest and urge to own land as individuals is superseded and suppressed by their desire to be accepted by the larger community as respectable citizens.

According to the International Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (ICARRD, 2002), and the researcher's own observation, throughout the world, women constitute a large portion of the economically active population engaged in agriculture, both as farmers and as farm workers; and they play a crucial role in ensuring household food security, despite enjoying very limited rights to land.

In many countries, the role of women in the usage of land through agricultural production has increased in recent years, as a result of men's migration to urban areas and absorption in non-agricultural sectors, such as mining and transport, as drivers. However, in many parts of the world, women have little or no access to resources, such as land credit and extension services. Moreover, women tend to remain concentrated in the informal sector of the economy.

In plantations, they often provide labour without employment contracts, on a temporary or seasonal basis, or as wives or daughters of male farm workers.

Although land and natural resource legislation tends to be gender-neutral, or to explicitly prohibit sexual or gender discrimination in relation to land, it is scarcely implemented in

rural areas. At the same time, customary law is widely applied in the rural areas of Africa, Asia, and in those regions of Latin America inhabited by indigenous communities; and the exercise of women's land rights is consequently affected by entrenched cultural attitudes and perceptions (ICARRD; 2002).

The amazing trend is that even women who have relocated to the cities to be with their husbands still remain obedient and culturally subordinate to their husbands. Decisions to be involved in government programmes, such as the land reform, have to be approved by the male counterpart before the female can participate in such decisions.

Poverty reduction, economic development and sustainable development have been placed on the international agenda, because of their cross-cutting nature throughout the world. Some of the international declarations agreed upon in relation to these development initiatives are the Millennium Development Goals, Agenda 21 and World Summit on Sustainable Development. These will be discussed for the purpose of providing their relatedness to the international policy framework that supports sustainable development in the following section.

4.3.1 Millennium Development Goals for women's sustainable development

In an effort to address human challenges of commonality amongst the nations, the United Nation's leaders agreed to adopt the United Nations Millennium Declaration in September 2000 (United Nations, 2000). This Declaration committed nations to a new global partnership that aimed at reducing extreme poverty and setting time bounds and targets to achieve these goals during 2015. These goals were named the Millennium Development Goals. A total of eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were agreed upon and adopted.

All eight of these MDGs are closely related to sustainable development, because these range from improved child education to reducing child mortality and improving the development of youth and women. Of the eight MDGs, four are relevant to this study;

and these will be discussed briefly. A list of all MDGs will be provided, but the four MDGs that are related to sustainable development for women will be discussed.

The adopted MDGs were (2007: 13 - 45):

- (i) MDG 1: Eradicating Extreme Poverty and Hunger;
- (ii) MDG 2: Achieving Universal Primary Education;
- (iii) MDG 3: Promoting Gender Equality and Empowering Women;
- (iv) MDG 4: Reducing Child Mortality;
- (v) MDG 5: Improving Maternal Health;
- (vi) MDG 6: Combating HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases;
- (vii) MDG 7: Ensuring Environmental Sustainability; and
- (viii) MDG 8: Developing a Global Partnership for Development.

MDGs one (1), three (3), seven (7) and eight (8) are related to issues of sustainable development, as discussed in this study. According to the Australian AID (AusAID) (2010), all MDGs are related to issues of gender; and the involvement of women can help realise all the MDGs, although some of the specific MDGs will now be discussed.

4.3.1.1 Millennium Development Goal 1: Eradicating Extreme Poverty and Hunger

The Asian Development Bank (ADB), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), and the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP) (2006: 45) prioritised MDG 1, which is: “eradicating extreme poverty and hunger”, and it is acknowledged that poverty is wider than just food security, as it includes insecurity and disempowerment, diminished capabilities. The target and measure for goal one is in the form of income poverty.

Income poverty measures are based on household-level data; there is little indication of the allocation of income, consumption and assets within the household – in particular between men and women. According to the ADB, UNDP and UNESCAP Report (2006: 45), the household survey data in these poverty measures permit comparisons based

on the household head characteristics and countries distinguishing between male-headed and female-headed households in terms of their poverty monitoring and analysis.

The assumption is that female-headed households are more highly exposed and more vulnerable to poverty than male-headed households. Some MDG reports have confirmed this assumption, such as reports from Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Kazakhstan, Malaysia and Mongolia (ADB, UNDP & UNESCAP, 2006:45).

South Africa has a similar scenario in which female-headed households are exposed to more poverty and are more vulnerable than male-headed households. There are exceptions, according to the case in Viet Nam where reports state that female-headed households have lower poverty rates compared with male-headed households (ADB, UNDP & UNESCAP, 2006: 45). The AusAID (2010: 5) further confirmed that actively supporting women's participation in economic, social and political aspects is a key factor in reducing poverty, enhancing economic growth and democratic governance. This leads to the improved wellbeing of women and their families.

Australia's International Development Assistance Program further recognised that both women and men have a role to play in all aspects of development, especially sustainable development (AusAID, 2010:5). The case of women accessing land and needing top-up loans requires that their husbands give consent for the loans, since women lack the necessary collateral.

This is common where male members find jobs away from home, and they send money back to the wives to take care of their families. Long-term jobs, such as fisherman's jobs occupy men for periods of up to six months. In such cases, the women are heading the households and are responsible for all the activities within the household. Poverty is linked to the lack of food, or insufficient food; and therefore, where there is poverty, there is no sustainable supply of food; and hence, no sustainable development.

4.3.1.2 Millennium Development Goal 3: To promote Gender Equality and to empower Women

The achievement of equality between men and women is critical in reducing poverty and ensuring that all people are able to fully participate in development initiatives within their communities. According to the source book by the World Bank, FAO and IFAD (2009: 2), gender equality is crucial for agricultural development and the attainment of the MDGs. The RDP (1994:8) is emphatic on the involvement and participation of people, especially in decisions that would empower them and create jobs for them.

Both women and men should hold positions as leaders in their communities, and equally be able to participate in all levels of education and have the ability to equally undertake paid employment. Co-operation, therefore, is essential for the benefit of both men and women in development that improves their wellbeing. The reality is that even though women's challenges date back and deserve more attention, men are crucial in ensuring that women become sustainable in their development.

This has been revealed by the interviews that were undertaken with the women land owners. Two of the participants confirmed that they had approached men for assistance in gaining access to land. Whether men are succeeding and achieving sustainable development with their own land allocation, through these programmes, is a topic for other studies.

4.3.1.3 Millennium Development Goal 7: To ensure Environmental Sustainability

According to AusAID (2010: 18), the MDG on ensuring environmental sustainability focused on supporting sustainable development and reversing the loss and degradation of environmental resources. This involves the increasing continuous access to safe drinking water and sanitation and improving the lives of people living in slums. The AusAID (2010:18) confirms that women make up a larger proportion of the agricultural workforce across the world.

Women's roles in caring for family members and children also make them more responsible, since they must care for themselves, as well as for their households.

Women's desire to till land and make a living from the land is reason enough for them to have better access compared with men. Women make a living out of land and the use of land. This can lead to deterioration of the land, if it is not treated in a sustainable manner. Section 24 (b) of the *Constitution*, (1996) states that everyone has the right to live in an environment that is protected – for the benefit of the present – and future generations.

As stated in Chapter 3, through Diagram 3:2, which denotes the three pillars of sustainability, sustainable development is made up of social, economic and environmental aspects. The linkage between these three sustainable developmental elements is that *viability* links the economic and environmental issues; whilst *bearable* links the social and environmental aspects; and lastly, *equitable* links the economic and social aspects of sustainability.

A simplified explanation of the above is that economic growth for both social and economic benefits should take cognisance of the viability of the environment. Such an environment should be used in an equitable and bearable manner for future generations. Sustainable development is said to unite environmental, social and economic concerns and initiatives (Dalal-Clayton & Bass in UNDP & OECD, 2002: 13).

4.3.1.4 Millennium Development Goal 8: To develop a global partnership for sustainable development

According to the AusAID (2010: 20), MDG 8 recognises the need for a globalised partnership to achieve development and to eradicate poverty. This partnership requires the provision of better developmental assistance and fair trade – to help countries that are committed to poverty reduction and sustainable development.

The MDG confirms the importance of women in the form of gender equality, and the need for their empowerment.

Such a global partnership for sustainable development needs to involve men and women as partners and participants in decision-making and promoting benefits, such as employment. Formal agreements between countries are essential – to ensure that men and women benefit equally from the work aimed at achieving the MDGs.

According to the UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon (2002), *“the Goals are ambitious, but feasible, and together with the comprehensive United Nations Development Agenda, set the course for the world’s efforts to alleviate extreme poverty by 2015”*.

The MDGs, as stated above, all have an element of addressing human needs, especially in terms of poverty alleviation and sustaining initiatives for future development. Access to land and the use thereof are crucial in poverty alleviation, and especially rural development, in countries such as South Africa.

In line with the MDGs, the South African MDG Report (2007: 56) has realised that there is a need to improve the performance of the state by re-enforcing better co-ordination and the allocation of responsibilities between the spheres of government.

The *Constitution*, (1996) is one of the most progressive in the world with regard to gender equality and women’s rights (Section 9 (3)). These Constitutional commitments are taken up in several government policies, and are expected to be carried through in all spheres of government. The key challenge is to ensure that women’s rights and entitlements are incorporated in all programmes throughout the three spheres of government. Government needs to face these challenges with a commitment of their own: to take responsibility for all spheres of government in seeking to address the legitimate concerns of South Africa’s citizens as a whole.

National gender policy directives and guidelines should be adhered to within provincial and local governments in terms of the Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS) and the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) processes and outcomes.

Policies were also introduced to redress imbalances in land ownership arising from the past racially based policies.

4.3.2 Gender 21

As presented by Raynolds and Goldsmith (2002: 3), Gender 21 co-ordinates independent projects in developing the role of women in achieving sustainable development. According to Raynolds and Goldsmith (2002: 2), Gender 21 grew out of the Rio Earth Summit and the Beijing Women's Conference. The initiative was seeking to expand and develop women's identified role as the majority group, and a group that is important in achieving sustainable development.

This role was identified as crucial by world leaders, because they recognised that women world-wide are fundamental to the management of local resources and the sustaining of local communities. The writers further confirm that all over the planet women are the poorest members of society: hopelessly under-represented at all levels of authority, and often without the power even to decide their own personal destiny.

Men and women alike should recognise and value the qualities of nurturing and caring, and come to a consensus that caring for nature today is vital for the future custodianship of the planet.

Gender 21, as an initiative, is working towards welcoming a holistic and harmonious 21st Century – by liberating the power and potential of women to achieve sustainable development. The protection and caretaking of the planet knows no gender; and therefore, men and women should overlook the issues of gender in caring for the resources. In its broadest context, this relates to the many commitments made by the world's governments through the UN process, such as the MDGs, as stated above.

The need to empower women has been emphasised throughout. Raynolds and Goldsmith (2002: 3) further assert that the connections between environmental sustainability and gender are also evident in the Platform for Action: the outcome

document from the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing 1995 and the Earth Summit on Environment and Development held in Rio 1992 – from which Agenda 21 was produced.

4.3.3 Agenda 21

As mentioned in Section 3.4 of Chapter Three, agenda 21 is a blueprint for sustainable development in the 21st Century. Agenda 21 came about as a result of a United Nations conference in which over 18 government leaders endorsed an action plan for sustainable development (Van Rooyen, 2002 in Kuye *et al.* 2002:136). Its basis was agreed upon during the "Earth Summit" at Rio in 1992, and signed by 179 Heads of State and Government (Wikipedia, 2010).

At Rio, an undertaking was given that local councils would produce individual plans for a Local Agenda 21. Agenda 21, like other frameworks aimed at development (UNDP, ADB & UNESCAP, (2006:45); Copenhagen, (March 1995); RDP (1994: 8); Section 195 (1) (e) of the *Constitution*, 1996) – all emphasised the need to involve and consult with the community, mainly because the people in the area have the local knowledge needed to make sensible decisions for their future.

Agenda 21 is a guide for individuals, businesses and governments in making choices for development that will help both the society and the environment. The Agenda 21 document deals with (Wikipedia, 2010):

- (i) The social and economic dimensions of developing countries; and co-incidentally these are common and they range from: challenges on poverty; consumption patterns; population growth levels; health issues – HIV and AIDS being current priorities currently; decent human settlements versus slums; integrating the environment and development.
- (ii) Conservation and the management of resources in countries, including: land for production; forest management (both existing and new); desert management; the preservation of mountains; eco-friendly agricultural practices; biodiversity management and preservation; ocean management; fresh-water preservation from

pollutants; the non-use of toxic chemicals; the management of hazardous radioactive matter, solid waste and sewage.

- (iii) Strengthening the role of major groups, such as women; children and youth; indigenous people; non-governmental organisations; local authorities; workers; business and industry; farmers; scientists and technologists.
- (iv) Means of implementation, especially for the marginalised groups, such as women, youth and people with disabilities through access to finance; improved technology transfer and science; education, skills training and capacity-building; international institutions, in terms of partnerships and legal measures with information management.

According to Wikipedia (2010), deliberations on and the implementation of Agenda 21 is headed forward at global level with a series of summits, involving governments such as: Social Development (March 1995), Cities (1996); and world conferences (Human Rights, Women, Population, Climate and Global Warming and Food). Agenda 21 is an all-inclusive approach towards improved life. Whereas, the MDGs put little emphasis on climate issues, global warming and the conservation of resources, Agenda 21 is stronger on these issues.

The need for sustainable development, as a result of these interventions and engagements both locally and internationally, goes beyond matters of gender, or the social and cultural aspects of a community. Agenda 21 also puts forward the need to allow women to have a role as a part of the community that has been left out of developmental initiatives. The Social Summit (Copenhagen, March 1995) produced a Declaration and Programme of Action for Social Development, which further stressed the need for the full participation of all people in decision-making for the future.

The Declaration and Programme of Action contained a series of 10 commitments agreed on by the governments (Earth Summit: 2002):

- (i) an enabling environment for social development;
- (ii) the goal of eradicating poverty;

- (iii) the goal of full employment;
- (iv) the promotion of social integration;
- (v) equality of men and women;
- (vi) education;
- (vii) speeding up the development of the least-developed countries;
- (viii) ensuring that structural adjustment programmes include social goals;
- (ix) better resourcing for social development; and
- (x) a better framework for international co-operation for social development.

A lot of commonalities are seen to exist between the above Copenhagen Commitments, Agenda 21 and the MDGs. This is proof that challenges – whether social, economic, environmental or political know no bounds or take cognisance of the developmental status of countries, but should be dealt with, nevertheless, in an effective and efficient manner. The aspect of gender equality and participation in decisions that affect people has been emphasised throughout the international interventions for sustainable development.

The proposal that one would make is that within the sustainable development elements which are social, economic and environment, a lack of participation in decision-making could just be the missing link.

4.3.4 The World Summit on Sustainable Development

A discussion of women's sustainable development from an international perspective would not be complete without mentioning the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD). The WSSD was held in South Africa, Johannesburg, during 2002.

The WSSD commitments and resolutions are based on all citizens, not necessarily unique from the MDGs, but they have been more generic – and not with any specific focus on gender issues, as have the other international declarations and commitments.

The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs' (UNDESA, 2010) definition of sustainable development is not different from the definition provided in Chapter One of this document, as it defines sustainable development as: *“development that meets the needs of present generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs.”* The WSSD held in 2005 in New York, discussed progress on the MDGs, as being the UN's reform programme. The summit further reconfirmed State leaders commitment to sustainable development and the 2010 biodiversity target (UNDESA, 2010).

4.3.5 The importance of international partners for women's sustainable development

According to Venter and Neuland (2005:452), without assistance from its international partners, Africa would not be able to meet the important MDG of eradicating poverty and hunger. The use of NEPAD made it possible to measure the involvement and influence of Africa's international partners in the form of the aid given or promised and significant aid and promises came from the G8 countries. These are: Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia, the United Kingdom and the United States (the European Union is also represented, but cannot host or chair [Wikipedia, 2010], and Venter and Neuland, 2005:452). This promised assistance ranged from setting up an international finance facility known as the Emerging Africa Infrastructure Fund, and the Africa Growth and Opportunities Act (AGOA).

These organisations aimed to assist African countries in meeting their MDGs; to give grants for capacity-building and meeting basic human needs; to promote economic growth throughout Africa and to the development of markets in Africa (Venter & Neuland, 2005:452-455).

Land reform is back on the agenda of international development institutions, as well as many nation states (Lodhi, Borrás Jr. & Kay, 2007:1). The support for growth and development has been crucial for international countries, and is still of importance.

Here, the emphasis must be on the need to involve women, and to prioritise them in any decisions that will affect their development. It is hoped that land reform will empower women and contribute to the eradication of poverty and hunger. These are some of the critical MDGs. The section that follows discusses women's sustainable development in relation to their economic, cultural and social environments.

4.4 Women's sustainable development and the economic environment

A discussion that deals with the economic environment should preferably start with the definition of what economics is. Halcrow (1980: 4) defined economics as a scientific discipline concerned with the allocation of limited resources to satisfy unlimited needs. Economics involves marketing, because products must get to where they are wanted most, when they are wanted – and in the desired form to satisfy the customers' needs.

Continued economic growth is seen as the means of actualising the better quality of life that environmental protection can bring (Ilbery *et al.*, 1997:16). Protection of the environment during productive activities ensures continued economic growth and stability. The Business Dictionary defines the economic environment, using terms that describe it; and these are: the totality of economic factors, such as income, employment, interest rates, inflation, productivity and wealth; and these influence the buying behavior of consumers and firms. Nell and Napier (2005: 42) define the external environment as the most important economic component of any farming business.

The external environment incorporates important variables, such as the business cycles, interest rates, exchange rates, input costs and taxes (Nell & Napier, 2005:42). In the cases that have been selected for this study all the above factors are applicable, including the input cost analysis and gross margins. The economic environment on a land-related business includes aspects of production costs versus markets and sales and wealth as a result of the successful production of the land. Formal and informal training are both necessary to achieve success within the economic environment.

Wikipedia, (2010) defines economics as the social science which analyses the aspects of production, distribution and the consumption of goods and services. The term economics comes from the ancient Greek *oikonomia*, meaning management of a household and administration, *oikos* meaning house, and *nomos* meaning custom or law: “rules of the household”.

According to the RDP (1994:10), the economy has certain strengths and weaknesses. The identifiable weakness is the inequality in ownership, employment and skills, especially along racial and gender lines.

Access to capital is difficult for women because they commonly do not have independence in accessing funding; they depend on their husbands, and if the husbands are not willing to co-operate, the hope of getting outside funding in the form of loans cannot materialise. This has been one of the reasons for the land reform failures. In these areas, women do not have the right to sign for loans because of their lack of collateral – whether in the form of secured jobs or assets.

Women are usually the unemployed; and they stay at home, where most of the land reform occurs. Their willingness to participate in the programme is discouraged by their lack of anything registered in their names. Exceptions are if the husband has died and the husband’s relatives do not have any interest in what their son owned. Government intervention in the form of policies should be cautioned in addressing some of these challenges.

Section 24 (b) (iii) of the *Constitution*, 1996 provides for a secure ecological sustainable development and the use of natural resources, while promoting justifiable economic and social development. According to Deinenger (2003:1), access to land and the ability to exchange it or use it as collateral – but in an effective and efficient manner – is critical for poverty reduction, economic growth and private sector investment. Documents, and legislation, that have been discussed earlier on addressing the imbalances of the past

have the clear intention of bringing women into the mainstream of the economy, but very little has materialised in the way of redressing the imbalances of the past.

Land has been identified as being more important in developing countries, where it goes beyond representing household assets, but is a key determinant of the household's welfare (World Bank Policy Research Report, 2003: 17). According to Kachika (2009: 41), in Ghana an estimated 52% of women are engaged in agricultural work, 70% are involved in subsistence crop production, and 90% provide labour involved in marketing farm produce. Women, however, find themselves faced with more constraints in regard to land acquisition than do their male counterparts.

Critical attention should be given to the vital food producing and entrepreneurial roles of women in rural and urban African communities (NEPAD, 2003: 78). It is here suggested that as much as 30% of the agricultural land should be transferred to the historically disadvantaged individuals. South Africa has engaged in several land-related programmes.

LRAD was introduced as one of the land-redistribution programmes. The LRAD Manual was first introduced in 2001, to improve on land access, and as a result of the challenges posed by SLAG. These challenges faced by SLAG were that little or no production has occurred, as a result of the large groups which have settled on farms. Groups from SLAG experienced conflicts over leadership, production funds and personal preferences, as far as farmhouse occupations are concerned, instead of prioritising the utilisation of farm land for the production of crops.

In 2007, the LRAD Manual was reviewed to assess its success rate since its inception in 2001. The LRAD Manual reviewed in 2007 is hereafter referred to as the *Reviewed LRAD Manual, 2007* and the Manual introduced in 2001 is referred to as the *LRAD Implementation Manual (2001)*.

The main objectives of the Reviewed LRAD Manual (2007: 3) were to:

- (i) Improve the nutrition and incomes of the rural poor, who want to farm on any scale to stimulate growth from agriculture.
- (ii) Create stronger linkages between farm and off-farm income-generating activities.

According to the Reviewed LRAD Manual (2007:4), a vehicle for redressing gender imbalances in land access and ownership had been established, thus improving the number of rural women and households that can be supported. The LRAD Implementation Manual (2001:7) referred to the expansion of opportunities for land acquisition by women and young people in rural areas – as one of its objectives. The LRAD Implementation Manual (2001: 7) further states, as one of its eligibility criteria, that “men and women will have equal access to all benefits under LRAD, and women will be actively encouraged to apply”.

The LRAD Implementation Manual (2001), unlike the Reviewed LRAD Manual (2007) is not clear on the processes that should be followed in ensuring the active encouragement of women to apply. The Land Redistribution Programme will serve as a means of creating opportunities to enable women to develop in different spheres of life; thereby, giving them security against poverty and providing them with an independent economic living.

The Reviewed LRAD Manual (2007:4) states the aim for LRAD, ensuring that government meets its international commitments, such as the Beijing Platform for Action (1995) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1996) and the Declaration taken at the 4th World Congress on Rural Women. These were all committed signatories to:

- (i) elevate the matter of employment and freedom from hunger as a central focus of the development agenda;
- (ii) undertake the necessary measures to give rural women full and equal access to productive resources, including the right to inheritance and to ownership of land and other resources that meet their basic requirements;

- (iii) support the increase in agricultural production to ensure food security through investments in rural physical and institutional infrastructure; and
- (iv) generate employment by focusing on the development of micro- and small enterprises.

According to the reviewed LRAD Manual (2007: 4), women-only projects are allowed for and encouraged, a scenario of not less than one third of the transferred land resources must accrue to women. Land reform in South Africa has been effectively subordinated to an economic development model that is not intended to transform land and agriculture in accordance with the priorities of the end-users. It may be assumed that the land reform efforts since 1996 have highlighted the need for a more comprehensive review of land-reform policies, rather than a mere increase in the pace and misplaced targets.

The Reviewed LRAD Manual (2007) emphasised the economic growth from the use of land, whereas the LRAD Implementation Manual (2001) was concerned with the use of land for agricultural purposes. There are a few economic aspects that apply to women's sustainable development, but for the purposes of this document and production practices, market-related enterprises and market access will be discussed.

4.4.1 Production practices

The impact of production practices on the economy of the participants in this study is through sales of produce from the land. Product sales are further affected by the quality and quantity of the produce. The study participants reside on the farms; and therefore, make a living through their farming activities. Issues of concern are the level of training that the participants have received. On-farm and off-farm training are both critical for good quality products. On-farm training is the responsibility of the participants, whereas off-farm training is the responsibility of both the participants and the government.

Coupled with training, is the need for proper management, both for the land and its use. The use of land in an effective and safe manner sustains its use and ability to meet the needs of the future. Added to training and management of participants is the need for

commitment from the participants themselves. Amongst the questions asked of the participants was the question of their exposure to off-farm training by government, as part of the support towards production practices.

The main question was on the government support in the form of off-farm training. The answers provided are presented in the form of a table. Participants that received training are rated from 0 to 5, with 0 indicating no training since occupation, 1 - 3 indicating average training received, while 4 is for enough training, and 5 for excellent training opportunities supplied by government.

Table 4:2: Participants that received off-farm training and were able to use the training on the farm

Participants from project	Training in production practices			
	0	1 – 3	4	5
1 (RESPS 1)	X			
2 (RESPL 1)		X		
3 (RESPL 2)		X		
4 (RESPP 1)				X
5 (RESPP 2)			X	

KEY: RESPS 1: stands for Respondent SLAG 1

RESPL 1: stands for Respondent LRAD 1

RESPL 2: stands for Respondent LRAD 2

RESPP 1: stands for Respondent PLAS 1

RESPP 2: stands for Respondent PLAS 2

The table above shows that participants from the SLAG project did not receive any form of training from government, with LRAD participants having received average training – but they are doing their best to succeed. Participants from PLAS received excellent government off-farm training; and this has helped to improve their level of production on

the land allocated to them. Further details are provided in Chapter Five, in terms of the economic benefits of such a training course.

The economic environment permits the participants to stay on their land, because of the positive benefits acquired from the use of the land.

4.4.2 Market-related enterprises

Success in the use of land for agricultural production also depends on the different enterprises practiced on the land. The four factors of production are: land, labour, capital and market. These are not listed in any form of importance or priority, but they all form part of a whole in the success of land use. Land is the basic resource for production with labour being essential for tilling such land if the finances for meeting the input costs are available, and there are markets that are ready to receive the produce. In the cases selected for the study, there were both formal and informal markets. Formal markets were highlighted as being advantageous, because the participants had targeted production in terms of choosing their enterprises. Informal markets are random markets that are discovered because of excess produce from the farm, or discovered by coincidence.

Income, in the case of formal markets, is usually more consistent and guaranteed; and it comes generally in bulk, because the supply of products is contractual.

The informal markets receive merely scattered returns, because the quantities are small. It becomes possible for formal markets to reinvest money in the land use business.

Market trends are occasionally released by the National Marketing Council of South Africa – to encourage the growing of farm products that are targeted by the market.

4.4.3 Market access

Market access is an important source of income, assets, and the factors of production and consumption to sustain the needs of the household and the welfare of the family (The World Bank, FAO & IFAD, and 2005:4). As indicated above, access to markets is dependent on the quality of the produce, as well as the supply of such produce. The demand should ideally be equal to the supply of goods, because an excess in one would lead to a market influx.

One of the PLAS participants had a formal market for her pigs; and she knew when to send the pigs and how often they must be weighed and fed. When policy-makers attempt to interfere with the markets for agricultural products or inputs, they often do that with the sole purpose of increasing incomes for the farmers (Hill, 1989: 28). The abolishing of the Marketing Board led to the free market in South Africa, and this meant that there is now no control of prices. The quality of products and the market price of the product at the time of sale determine the amount of money that should be paid for a specific delivery of products. Market access promotes growth, and growth is related to success. Success, on the other hand, depends on the consistency of the supply to the markets. Market-led production has the potential to promote sustainability, because the production is guided from the initial stage in terms of quality and quantity.

4.5 Women's sustainable development and the cultural environment

Cultural factors are those that are found in the external environment and influence the views, values, beliefs, attitudes, opinions and lifestyles of people (Nell & Napier, 2005: 44). The beliefs in the presence of women in the *kraal* are thought to cause problems, such as dystocia (difficulty in birth) in cows. Women's presence in the midst of men's discussions can lead to discussions failing and not achieving their targeted end-result. These beliefs are regarded as a way of living amongst families and have a negative effect on how women perform their duties around the farm.

Men's and women's priorities for land are basically contrary; usually men seem to take an all-or-nothing view of the gender struggle for control of the land (Meer, 1997: 29). The fear is increased excessively if women are allowed access to land and can take charge. They could take control of both land relations and the domestic sphere, taking all power from the men (Meer, 1997: 29). An additional constraint is associated with the strength of patriarchal attitudes within communities, as well as the government's reluctance to intervene actively in all spheres of government.

Patriarchy is defined as the ideology of male supremacy that results from the social construction of gender, which in turn, justifies the social, economic and political distinctions between men and women (Bazilli, 1991: 9). Women's access to land is feared from an empowerment and economic angle, because men are regarded as the economic providers, and due to patriarchal beliefs, women should depend on their husbands for sustenance.

4.5.1 *The role of women in the homestead*

The nature of women's belief has, and still is, that their role is to take care of their families. Women's engagement in farming is commonly associated with a food security agenda (The World Bank, FAO & IFAD, and 2009:522). Women have limited access to production resources and services (The World Bank *et al.*, 2009:522).

This has led to women taking a back position in the matters that are outside the household and the belief that they have little or nothing to say. This has been the case in matters that involve development and addressing the needs of women. An observation of the lack of assertiveness in women is common in most meetings that involve women; whereby, they say very little or nothing at all, irrespective of the nature of the topic under discussion.

Women's needs are taken as known by all, and the decisions made are expected to be acceptable. Mayson (2003:4) argues that women in female-headed households and widows have better access to social government benefits and land than their married

counterparts, because they are able to access land in their own right as individuals. The married women are culturally dependent on their husbands and should not concern themselves with superior issues such as land within the homestead. The focus should be on putting food on the table.

This was accepted and taken as the order of the day and not considered a hindrance to women. Specific key obstacles to poor rural women accessing land under the old redistribution programme were the following issues (Cross & Hornby, 2002: 60):

- (i) The household as a beneficiary unit does not facilitate or secure women's separate access to land rights;
- (ii) Legal entities, as the nearest and the local manager of land allocation and rights, tend to default to traditional practices that do not recognise women's rights to land, as prescribed by the *Constitution*, (1996) and land policies, because they are not institutionally expected to do so; and
- (iii) Implementation procedures do not build in mechanisms for ensuring that women, and poor women in particular, have either independent access to land, or secure access through their households.

Added to this, as stated by Bazilli (1991: 125), the family is a central site where all forms of oppression (national, economic and gender) are acted out, as well as where struggles are waged against these same forms of oppression. It is often at the family level where one can best understand the true meaning of triple oppression. This state of affairs was further exacerbated by the manipulation of the family through migrant labour and the homeland system which played a critical role in achieving the apartheid policies.

Women have been regarded as home-based, and not permitted to look for jobs of any kind, until recently when some of the women lost their husbands due to sickness and mine accidents. The nature of women's engagement has been to work from home and no policy had a say, because the assumption was that this is cultural.

The role of women was regarded as that of the family minder, as engaging in war was also regarded as being too dangerous for women. Women in Malawi still till their land using man-made hoes and they till up to 8ha in two to three days, while in the evening they have to cook for their families. This is not seen as a challenge because it has always been done like this.

There is a positive relationship that exists between women and land access, because women regard land as a means of achieving their family's food security.

It is common to find the women's roles within the household crossing over to the level of the community because they are caregivers, child-bearers and minders of the aged and sick. The following section discusses women's roles in the community.

4.5.2 Women's roles in the community

Kariuki and Van Der Walt (2000: 19) state that rural women constitute one of the most oppressed layers in South African society. The majority of working women on the farms exist to provide cheap and often seasonal labour, with access to land typically being dependent on employment in the homelands (Kariuki and Van Der Walt, 2000:19). These two writers also confirm that women's access to land has been limited by traditional institutions, such as the chieftaincy.

Chieftaincy is not applicable in the Metropolitan areas, such as in the Gauteng Province, where this study was undertaken. But, the challenge of poor land access amongst women faces women in both rural and urban situations. The ever-increasing centrality of the market to the government's land reform programme is set to reproduce these patterns, as poor rural women lack the money necessary to set up as independent farmers (Kariuki and Van Der Walt, 2000:19).

This has been observed in situations where women needed loans from financial institutions, such as the Land Bank – to top up their land-reform grants, and were unable to acquire these loans unless their husbands were willing to endorse the loan

application requests. In some land acquisition transactions, women were forced to pull out of a land-acquisition process due to the lack of any proper funding. The following section looks at practical situations related to land reform assessed in terms of their ability to address the involvement of women in the main stream of land reform – in order to improve their livelihoods.

4.6 Women's sustainable development and the social environment

The FAO (2008), according to a submission by Gender Links, argues against the tenure security approaches that have been used over the past four decades. Even though gender equality is a common problem, different approaches need to be applied for tenure systems. The need for different approaches comes about as a result of the importance of Sustainable Development which the FAO, together with other environmental institutions and related bodies take very seriously – and abide by the very specific expectations of these terms.

Section 24 (b) (iii) of the *Constitution* (1996) as stated above, promotes justifiable and ecologically friendly sustainable development that ensures economic and social development. It becomes a challenge to have economic development without equal social development, because if the economy of people is excellent, their health, education, standard of living and cohesion would also be improved. The cultural aspects, as mentioned above, play a role in women's self-esteem.

The fact that, culturally, women are regarded as inferior and cannot make decisions in the household, will affect their social engagements outside the household. In community improvement programmes, such as health clubs, savings mobilisation clubs for women, where women have to lead, they are not easily nominated. The extent to which women are allowed opportunities and freedom in the household, determines how the outside community treats them. The devaluation of women's competence, when coupled with the tendency to assume that women's success is due to luck, further puts additional pressure on women and how they are treated at work in face-to-face interactions (Landrine & Klonoff, 1997:11).

Land ownership and distribution has affected economic and social development way beyond the agricultural sector (Deinenger, 2003:17). Government attempts to improve on land ownership has created an environment where programmes such as CASP, MAFISA and AgriBEE were introduced to deal with the lack of access to land for women.

The fact that the *WPSALP* (1997) has indicated its priority beneficiaries as women, adds to the importance of emphasising certain categories in the implementation of the Land Reform Policies. According to the year book 2001/2, the Department of Land Affairs has revised its Land-Reform Programmes to support sustainable rural development policies and interventions (GCIS 2001: 400). The linkage between policies, as decided upon by the political arm of government, community needs and the cultural, as well as certain socio-economic aspects of communities, has a bearing on the successful implementation of these designated policies.

According to Walker (1998:14), one of the notable consequences of the history of struggles over land in South Africa, is the precipitous decline in peasant production in the twentieth century, as a result of the combination of factors flowing from State policy. These include the dispossession of black land rights, desperate overcrowding in the established native reserves, soil depletion, migrant labour and non-investment in black rural areas (Walker, 1998: 14).

The goal is certainly ambitious: to redress the injustices of the grossly skewed past land dispensation, to reduce poverty, to contribute to sustainable land use and economic development, and to establish security of tenure for all (DLA, 1996a:1). This calls for a rigorous review of the policies to check whether the set objectives have been achieved. The likelihood of improving conditions on the above target is declining, however. About half the South African population still lives in rural areas, and the great majority in extreme poverty.

4.7 Conclusion

The South African government has introduced land-reform policy the main aim of which is to address economic development and empower women. However, several factors, such as skills shortages, weak institutional arrangements, especially in the rural areas, lack of finance and information have contributed to the ineffectiveness of these policies. In recognition of these weaknesses, government has come with remedial measures to expose women to learning opportunities through – amongst others -- exchange programmes. A clear selection of beneficiaries and the involvement of appropriate stakeholders during policy development is necessary, in order to avoid conflicts during policy implementation. This should be coupled with a judicious use of the limited resources.

Barriers and challenges facing women must be dealt with collaboratively by all those affected, because, as stated in 4.6 above, some of these challenges are internal, while some are external. In both scenarios, women have little or no control over these situations, as some are purely cultural and traditional. The will to change women's circumstances has to be negotiated, registered and agreed upon by all those affected. Chapter Five will describe the cases that formed the main body of the study. This chapter will discuss each case individually, and will state how women accessed and used land in these particular cases.

CHAPTER 5

SELECTED CASES ON WOMEN'S SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT THROUGH LAND REFORM

5.1 Introduction

Land reform as a programme has to date encountered several challenges – ranging from the lack of representation and continuous changes in implementation approaches, to a failure to understand what the key priorities of the programme are. The previous chapters three and four, in particular, looked at the relationship between land reform, public administration and the sustainable development of women. The processes involved in ensuring access to land by women as a category of the previously disadvantaged groups, as well as the environmental factors impacting on women's access to land for sustainable development, were discussed.

The aim was to understand the South African perspective on land reform, as it applies to women today. The discussions so far have only highlighted the lack of access to land and the reasons for this lack, as published in land-reform-related documents.

Chapter Five provides an overview of the engagements undertaken with women beneficiaries on land reform projects. Five cases have been selected from the list of projects in the Gauteng Province. Chapter Two has discussed the qualitative approach to research and indicated that qualitative enquiry tests processes were under study in their natural setting. In-depth unstructured interviews have been held with women participants of the selected cases and the results thereof are published as part of Chapter Five.

A set of questions in the form of an interview schedule was prepared; and these questions were asked for the following reasons:

- (i) to guide the interview process, whilst noting what question has been responded to, and with which answer;
- (ii) to manage properly the time spent with the interviewer and the participants, as it had been agreed on that the duration of the interview would not exceed 20 minutes;
- (iii) to allow for a sequence in the answering of questions, and better organisation of the answers for analysis; and
- (iv) to have a formal document that the participants had to see and sign as proof that the study had been legitimately conducted.

Farms are bought for the purpose of settling people. After the settlement of beneficiaries, the common term that is used to describe these farms is projects. The word *projects* for purposes of this study will be replaced by *cases*. Cases that have women as beneficiaries – or as some of the beneficiaries were selected. The prerequisite for the transfer of farms from DRDLR is that beneficiaries should register as legal entities. The legal entity can either be a Communal Property Association (CPA), (which was commonly used in SLAG and Restitution acquired farms) or a Trust, which is common in LRAD and PLAS cases.

Requests for meetings were made with case beneficiaries – to ensure that sufficient time is allocated for the interview process. The selection of these cases, as mentioned in Chapter Two (in discussing targets for the Land Reform Programmes) is based on the case's ability to contribute to production and improved livelihoods for those who have accessed land through the Land Reform Programmes. The list of Gauteng projects in the Western Region is such that a total of 279 projects were recorded from 1996 to date.

Of these 279 projects, 20 are led by women. This chapter looks at five specific cases, namely one SLAG, two PLAS and two LRAD acquired projects as case studies for the administration of the qualitative interview.

This chapter will discuss similar land ownership aspects and trends as they prevail in some of the identified international countries. The discussion on international countries that have undergone similar Land Reform Programmes is done for purposes of further lessons that can be learnt – on best-case scenarios.

5.2 Criteria used in the identification of cases

A sample of case studies has been selected from the list of projects from Gauteng, as indicated above. The reason for selecting one SLAG project is because SLAG was the first redistribution Land Reform Programme to be implemented in South Africa. SLAG existed from 1996 to 2001, with most of the projects experiencing challenges that led to their struggle and subsequent failure. This lack of success on these projects led to a joint launch by the Limpopo Department of Agriculture and the Limpopo Provincial Land Reform Office – to deregister some of the SLAG projects on the 18th March 2007 (Department of Agriculture Limpopo Budget Speech, 2006/07: 10).

The finalisation of this deregistering of the SLAG projects is still pending the legal processes that are involved in the deregistration of legal entities by the Master of the Court. The initial aim of SLAG was to ensure that the farms acquired are used to improve the lives of the settled people through the productive use of land. The project has been selected to provide initial information on land reform implementation. Even though there has been significant improvement in the approach, processes have not changed drastically from the original ideas of land reform.

The *WPSALP* (1997) has guided the land redistribution process since its inception to date. The approaches in realising the land reform targets have been altered to accommodate the changing needs and requirements.

The selection of LRAD was based on the need to ensure that all land acquired through this programme was used solely for agricultural production. The programme relates well to issues of productivity; as these are linked to income, employment opportunities,

wealth and sustainability. LRAD replaced SLAG, and the expectations were that the LRAD would perform better than SLAG and increase production on farms. The differences between SLAG and LRAD are presented here in the table below.

Table 5.1: Implementation differences between SLAG and LRAD used as cases

SLAG	LRAD
SLAG was demand-driven, with little financial support from government. Individuals received equal grant amounts towards land purchase.	The LRAD was based on a willing-buyer willing-seller principle. The price of land dictated the amount of government grant plus the loan to be acquired.
The selection of beneficiaries was based on the asking price of the farm, the higher the price of the farm, the larger the group of people and the higher the grant provided.	Knowledge that government provided funding for land acquisition led to land price escalations. Prospective beneficiaries had to form groups that improved their grant amounts and affordability to purchase the farms.
Farms were bought and transferred to large groups of more than 20 people in a group.	The maximum number of people that could access a grant in one application was 20, and not more.
There were no definite government prescriptions for the use of land.	Land acquired had to be used for agricultural purposes.
Productive and sustainable use of land was optional, because the beneficiaries had no urgent financial obligations to meet. Grant amounts were large, and no loans were needed to top up the mortgage amount.	The goal for such land use was sustainable development, economic growth, improved livelihoods and loan repayments. Grants for land acquisition had to be topped up by loans.

South Africa. 1997. White Paper on South African Land Policy p. 7. Pretoria: DRDLR

The LRAD and SLAG cases became the basis for land-reform implementation because they were the initial Programmes. Information gathered from these cases can further be analysed against the cases themselves and against the subsequent Land Redistribution Programmes.

The selection of PLAS-acquired farms has been made critical by the fact that this programme has currently replaced all the other land-redistribution programmes from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR). Land acquisition and use through PLAS is expected to improve production on farms. Results on the performance of PLAS will add value in the form of inputs made into the present land reform process and its progress.

SLAG and LRAD may be regarded as the past programmes, whereas PLAS is the current programme that is being implemented.

Data have been gathered and categorised to identify common areas of focus, as well as patterns that come out of each category. Initially, tables were used to summarise the findings; and finally, these were illustrated in the form of histograms in the thesis. The final result is the development of theory and findings on women's empowerment through Land Reform Policies. Cases are dealt with on a case-by-case basis, because each case, and its circumstances, is unique. A case is dealt with and an analysis of that case is provided at the end of the case discussion.

5.3 Criteria pertinent to the demographics of each case

Cases that indicated common characteristics, such as land acquired through land reform, land used for agricultural production, and people deriving benefits from the land, have been selected. A review of the land usage and the processes followed in land access for women are analysed – as opposed to the prescribed policy and its programmes. The level of knowledge and skills acquired by women, as well as their assets and liabilities had to be assessed.

Details gathered through the above processes assisted in the conclusion of cases when combined with the information gathered during the contact sessions. Aspects that were investigated included land details, details of the beneficiaries and the business.

5.3.1 Farm or land details

Land details, such as land acquisition, land size and use – together with what the land can produce, were assessed. The introduction of land reform intended to realise the settlement of HDIs on such land.

A target of redistributing 30% of white-owned agricultural land by 2014 had been set when the programmes started. Plans for how the land was to be acquired and used, including what could be produced from the land, were prioritised; hence, the discussion below.

- (i) Land acquisition: This was reviewed in terms of the process followed in farm descriptions; land acquisition; year of occupation; knowledge on land ownership, and the basis on which the land had been acquired by the women beneficiaries.
- (ii) Land size and use thereof: The size of land, in most cases, determines its use – especially for agricultural purposes, because there are norms on how many large stock units may be grazed on the size of land versus the number of stock the land could sustain. The same applies for crops that can be produced from a particular area.
- (iii) The capacity of the farm to produce or to have the required carrying capacity. Aspects of soil fertility, crop production, and the quality of grazing in terms of livestock farming are all priorities for each type of enterprise. These issues must be examined before engaging in any farming venture.

The use of norms and standards applicable to agricultural production are critical to the productivity of land and the subsequent preservation of land as a resource. The preserved land will not only sustain the current users, but must also support any future generations. Through studies such as these, land users should be further encouraged and educated to know the importance of economic, social and environmental benefits that can be derived from suitable land use.

5.3.2 Details of the beneficiaries

A beneficiary in this study refers to women that received support from government. They are sometimes called clients, and even customers.

The tendency is for these to be people on the receiving end of a transaction, and they clearly benefit from such a transaction. Details of the beneficiaries on the selected land reform cases: such as the age of the beneficiaries, their level of education, farming experience and family relations, were investigated, in order to know the beneficiaries' details better.

- (i) Age of women beneficiaries: This aspect is looked at in terms of the ability of these participants to work on the farms, because strength is necessary to till land or even to oversee that farm workers till the land, as required. The myth that farming should be used as a retirement opportunity has proven to be untrue and fatal in the productivity of farms.
- (ii) Level of education: The highest standard passed by each beneficiary is critical, as this would enhance their understanding and reading of labels and instructions in the proper applications of the essential inputs for production. On-farm and off-farm training and skills development that were discussed in Section 4.4.1 are equally important for success in farming. The level of education enhances performance in book keeping and the knowledge of costs, sales and profits from the farm. As a result of updated records or information on farms, it becomes relatively easy to assess progress and the rate of success.
- (iii) Farming experience: in this case, this was considered as comprising self-taught skills *versus* new training requirements for successful farming. The ability to know that a specific training skill is required to become successful in increasing yields on a particular enterprise is essential for the success of any business. Successfully acquired skills further enhance the business's success. Butler (2003:5) states that women's work experiences also shape their entrepreneurial behaviours. Women's past experience plays an important role in their growth in business engagements. Coupled with the women's level of experience, is their vertical placement in the authority structure (Butler, 2003:5).
- (iv) Position in the legal entity: women's positions in the committees that are governance structures in their land businesses play a critical role in the type of decisions made for their production activities and their income.

Within the legal entity which can be a Trust or a CPA as discussed in Section 5.1 above, beneficiaries who hold higher positions, such as chairperson or secretaries influence the type of decisions made in their case.

- (v) Family relations: the relationship between the farm members as workers and as family members contributes positively to the level of production; and this, in turn, contributes to the value of such persons in the social hierarchy in any farm.

An assessment of production levels in which family members work on the farm versus where there are different families as beneficiaries of the Land Reform Programme must be undertaken. Sustainability is inclusive of economic, social and environmental aspects within a scenario. Positive relationships between project members promote social cohesion.

The beneficiary details above contribute positively to the sustainable utilisation of land, regardless of whether the beneficiaries are women or men. The above is further found to be true by observations that have been made in the selected cases, in which the younger beneficiaries usually prove to be more energetic and hands-on in diverse enterprises. The use of land as a business or income-generating instrument demands acceptable levels of knowledge and commitment to the business. In all the selected cases, beneficiaries were employed full-time on the farms; none were using the farms on a part-time basis only.

5.3.3 Details of the business

The projects which have been named cases in this study are regarded as businesses, because they generate income for the beneficiaries. Sustainability is analysed in terms of possessions that would make the business thrive – in order to sustain the present and future generations. Aspects that have been considered in terms of the business details are the assets owned, the number of jobs created, and the profits realised from the business. It is vital that the business should directly or indirectly support those who work on it.

- (i) Assets that are owned by the women beneficiaries *versus* their liabilities are other elements that were assessed, because of their importance in elevating the

beneficiaries' self-esteem. The level of operations on cases selected required that some of the projects be actually owned by the beneficiaries, as opposed to merely hiring such projects.

- (ii) Number of jobs created: The greater the number of jobs created, the better the performance of the farming operation; and the fewer the number of jobs created, the poorer the performance of the operation. A greater number of jobs created leads to food security for the families, because an estimated ratio is for every six jobs created, at least six families are food-secure, and able to live on their own. This represents an estimated 36 people who are food-secure -- deduced from the fact that one family is made up of a minimum of six members.
- (iii) Profit margins: The amount of money that is made from the farming operations determines the amount of money that will be invested back into improving the yields for the future, and increasing the number of employees and the subsequent wealth forthcoming for all. The profit aspect also determines the ability of the project to repay the loan, to re-invest into the business, and pay for labour costs.

The aspects above have been used to highlight productivity-related successes; and hence, the sustainability of operations. Assets owned further indicate that the cases are able to sustain their operations and support women beneficiaries. A further observation was that a number of employees ranging from 2 to 70 were employed by the case beneficiaries. Details of the above characteristics on women's projects were revealed by administering the unstructured interview questionnaire. Concepts and themes have been formed from the issues raised by the respondents.

The purpose was to ensure that similar items were grouped together and coded. Further, the coded items provide linkages and patterns for formulating a theory.

Table 5.2 provides details of characteristics, such as age, the level of education, initial, mid-term and current number of beneficiaries, production percentage, and position in the legal entity.

Table 5.2: Details of case participants that are common and contribute to their production activities on the farm

<i>BENEFICIARY DETAILS</i>								
<i>RESPONDENT</i>	<i>Beneficiary Number</i>			<i>Level of Education</i>	<i>Training</i>	<i>Age Range of beneficiaries</i>	<i>Production percent (100% is the total land area)</i>	<i>Legal Entity & Position in Legal Entity</i>
	<i>Starting Number</i>	<i>Mid-term Number</i>	<i>Current Number</i>					
<i>RESPS 1</i>	62	42	13	<i>Gr 0 – 10</i>	Yes	35 – 69+	30 (total 155ha)	<i>CPA later Trust & Secretary</i>
<i>RESPP 2</i>	2	2	2	<i>Gr 12 +</i>	Yes	29 – 35	50 (total 89ha)	<i>Trust & Treasurer</i>
<i>RESPL 2</i>	6	5	5	<i>Gr 0</i>	No	69+	55 (total 110ha)	<i>Trust & Member</i>
<i>RESPP 1</i>	2	3	4	<i>Gr 12 +</i>	Yes	24 – 32	66.7 (total 173ha)	<i>Trust & Chairperson</i>
<i>RESPL 1</i>	2	2	2	<i>Gr 10</i>	No	+56	45 (total 55ha)	<i>Trust & Member</i>

Source: Land reform unstructured interview on women's sustainable development: RESPL 1: May 2010

Table 5.2 provides beneficiary details in terms of the number of initial beneficiaries, mid-level and current, as at the time of the interview. A decrease in the number of project members at the end of the project, as opposed to the starting number of project members at the beginning is observed in RESPS 1 and RESPL 2. In terms of the decrease, cases might be regarded as not being sustainable, but the reverse is true; the fewer the number of project members, the more co-operative. Jointly, they would appear to be putting in a lot of effort. The level of education has a direct correlation with the age of the beneficiary, as the younger women are more educated when compared with the older ones.

The type and level of education for women in businesses like land use is highly crucial (Butler, 2003:4). Additional training has usually been acquired by the younger women, as opposed to the older.

It was further discovered during the interviews that the educated women in this instance (RESPS 1; RESPP 1 and RESPP 2) are more involved with decision-making responsibilities in their legal capacity in the locality.

The women that have been placed in the column entitled *Position in the legal entity* were those participants who were interviewed, and the positions allocated specifically to them. The column on the production percent is the percentage of land that was utilised during the visit, as opposed to the total land available in each case.

5.4 An analysis of the cases

In qualitative research data analysis is a continuous process comprising comparison and assessment procedures that are initiated as soon as the researcher begins to collect literature or gathers data in the field (Cloete, 2007: 513). Cresswell (2007: 244) defines the analysis of themes as the analysis of data for specific themes, accumulating information into large clusters of ideas and bringing forth details that support the themes. Cloete (2007:513) further provides clarity on the analysis of data, as he highlights the truth that during the report write-up, specific data can still be missing. Gaps may be identified within the existing data; which would call for further collection of data from the participants or from the literature.

The process can be costly, because if the cases are far away, travelling costs can escalate – causing the research costs to become exorbitant. Due to the fact that the information collected has to be authentic, such double expenses become part of the plan to gather real facts about the research. In qualitative research, data analysis is aimed at describing and contextualising events and phenomena through the use of qualitative logic – in order to understand, interpret, explain or predict other events or phenomena for the future (Cloete, 2007: 514).

Data need to be put into context in qualitative research designs before analysis. Elements of qualitative research analysis are listed as: data familiarisation; identifying a thematic framework; indexing/coding/classification; histograms, mapping and

interpretation (Cloete, 2007:514 – 517). The following elucidation is the analysis of the cases that were selected for the study.

The cases selected and used are going to be given different names or labels from their real ones, in order to protect the identities of the participants.

Respondents from LRAD are labeled RESPL 1, which stands for Respondents from the first LRAD case; RESPL 2 represents Respondents from the second LRAD project; RESPP 1 stands for Respondents from the first PLAS case; RESPP 2 represents Respondent from the second PLAS case; and Respondents from SLAG are labelled RESPS 1, which stands for Respondents from the SLAG case.

In some cases participants will be given different names instead of their real names for identity-protection purposes.

5.4.1 Case 1 RESPL 1: First LRAD case

This farm is located 20km north of Bronkhorstspuit in the Gauteng Province. The size of the farm is 55 hectares. The farm was acquired and occupied in 2005. The beneficiaries are one female and one male (mother and son for purposes of this study, and according to their request for confidentiality, they will be named Rose and Dave). Dave is the less dominant partner, while Rose is the manager and active member in the project. The main enterprises are maize on 30 hectares, poultry in the form of 100 indigenous chickens that are supplied to the Nando's chicken franchise, and livestock (cattle and goats).

Rose is a widow and she inherited livestock from her late husband. On enquiring about her interest in farming, Rose outlined her previous experience in running a shop at the village while her husband was still alive. She gained business management skills from the shop; and after the death of her husband, she decided to look for a farm because her husband had left cattle which did not have proper grazing in the village, and they were roaming about without adequate land.

Land acquisition was made up by the LRAD grant and a Land Bank loan to top up the mortgage. Rose has an outstanding loan amount of R40 000 from the initial R120 000 taken; and she still has to repay it annually until 2011. She received a Balance of Grant (BOG) from the LRAD grant in 2005, and this was used to purchase a tractor that belongs to the farm. The BOG is the amount of money that remains after the property has been paid and transferred; this becomes available for the farm usage.

The experience gained by Rose away from the farm is not from government, but has been self-acquired, and has made a positive contribution to the farming operations. Rose, unlike Dave, stays permanently on the farm, and she works on the land, just as she used to work at the shop. Operations on the farm were spread in such a way that there is activity on the farm at all times including during off-peak seasons. She confesses her lack of formal training in the enterprises in which she is engaged, but has received other assistance from the neighbouring farmers.

Commitment that was observed needs to be commended. The maize crop and her cattle are taken care of and are looking good. Table 5.3 below indicates the year of acquisition, the enterprises in which the participants were engaged, and the levels of production.

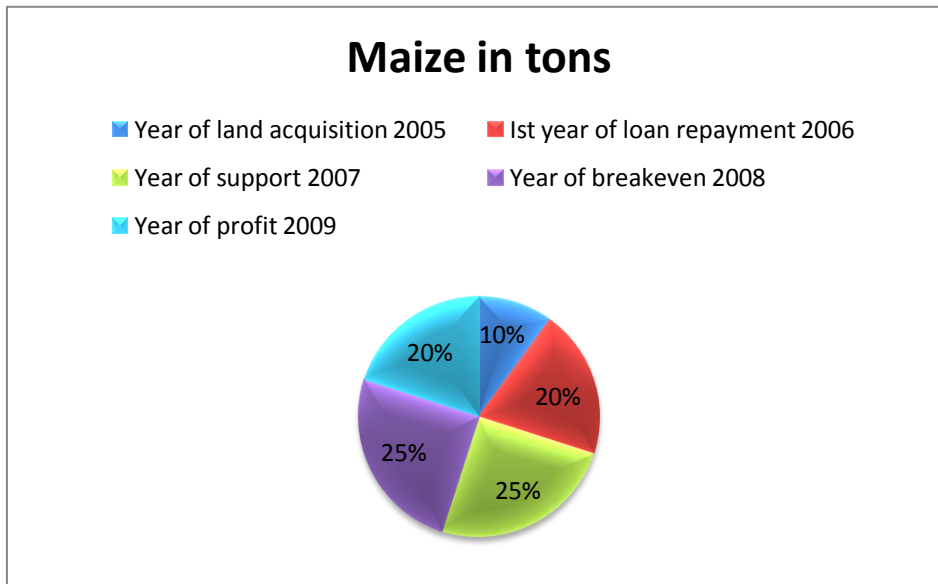
Table 5.3: Case 1 RESPL 1 Land acquisition details versus support

Enterprises	Year of land acquisition	1st year of loan repayment	Year of support	Year of breakeven	Year of profit
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Maize in tons	2	4	5	5	4
Cattle	5	5	3	5	8
Goats	0	8	14	16	16
Chickens	40	40	100	120	100

Source: Land reform unstructured interview on women's sustainable development: RESPL 1: May 2010

The following diagram illustrates the tons of maize produced on RESPL 1 by the beneficiaries from 2005 to 2009. Maize has been selected because it comprises the main crop grown on the farm at the time and has improved the income level of the farm.

Diagram 5.1: Levels of maize production on RESPL 1



Source: Land reform unstructured interview on women’s sustainable development: RESPL 1: May 2010

Maize has been highlighted, because it is the crop with which the participants had to start without government support during the year of acquisition and before the year of support, as part of land use and in preparation to repay the loan. The lack of on-farm training and knowledge of farming did not stop Rose and Dave from producing maize – even though the yield was significantly lower compared with when they received government support in 2007. This case and the other four that follow are based on the *Provision of Certain Land Rights for Settlement Act, 1993 (Act 126 of 1993)*.

Table 5.4 below shows maize price trends from 2005 when the participants took occupation, up to 2010.

Table 5.4: Maize grown on hectares versus prices of maize from 2005 to 2010 with reference to case RESPL 1

Participant 1						
Maize area in ha	Maize Price (R) 2005	Maize price (R) 2006	Maize price (R) 2007	Maize price (R) 2008	Maize price (R) 2009	Maize price (R) 2010
10ha	850					
20ha		1000				
30ha			1088			
40ha				2326		
40ha					1000	
40ha						950

Source: World Bank Commodity Price Chart, 2009. *Commodity Prices: The End of Historic Boom*. <http://go.worldbank.org>. Accessed 17/01/2010.

Table 5.4 depicts the price of maize, as recorded from 2005 to 2010. The price of maize increased yearly from 2005 until 2010. It may be observed that the increase in prices between 2005 and 2007 varied between R150.00 and R88.00. This was followed by a drastic price difference of R1, 238.00 between 2008 and 2007, and a decrease again to the 2006 price. The table indicates the high levels of risks and unpredictability in production cycles for crops.

Maize prices improved in 2007, and more significantly again in 2008. In maize production, the larger the area for production, the better the yield and income realised. Maize is used for a livestock feed; and this places it at an advantage compared with other crops. Maize has also been planted for the production of silage, as opposed to human consumption. Maize production costs have been very high during the past few years, and even more so during 2006 – 2009 (AgFirst Consultants, 2010).

According to Kumwenda (2010) in Forexyard, South African Farmers (2010), the current price of maize is estimated at R1, 050.00 (\$135.4) per ton and it is dropping, but the costs of production can be as high as R1, 200 to R1, 500 per ton.

Table 5.5 is a combination of both Tables 5.3 and 5.4 – in order to give an idea of how the participants performed, based on their maize yield and the price of maize at that time.

Table 5.5: Performance of maize yield planted by the RESPL1 participants, as dictated by the price of maize during the last few years

Year of production	Yield (ton) X ha	Price of maize	Gross income ®
2005	2 X 10ha	850	17 000
2006	4 X 20	1000	80 000
2007	5 X 30	1088	163 200
2008	5 X 40	2326	465 200
2009	4 X 40	1000	160 000

Source: Land reform unstructured interview on women’s sustainable development: RESPL 1: May 2010.

According to the table above, the participants realised better incomes during 2008, and their business started to perform positively. Erasmus (2010) in Media Club South Africa (May, 2010) indicates that South Africa is the biggest maize producer on the continent, and has achieved its biggest maize crop in 29 years, weighing in at around 13-million tons. The harvest from 2009 brought in an estimated tonnage of 12.05-million tons, of which 1.9-million tons was carried over to 2010. This equates to about 4 tons per hectare.

The 4.8 tons per hectare is possible where all input costs and proper management are undertaken on farms, as was done by the participants on RESPL 1. The farming business is held by the family, and it is treated as a family business venture.

The participants were not reluctant to invest their money in production activities, even before government support became available, because they knew that they would benefit directly from the project.

The participants were able to pay rental and to purchase farm implements in the second year of their stay on the farm.

The case above is illustrative of a both descriptive and heuristic qualitative case study, as described by Merriam (2009: 43) in Section 2.5.1 of Chapter Two. The case is descriptive because details of the land acquisition and usage are provided by the case under review; and it is through these details, that processes of the farmer's stay on the farm are provided in a detailed manner. The discovery of the fact that the female participant (Rose) is the one running the farming activities, as opposed to her son (Dave), is a further discovery in a farming situation which makes this a heuristic case study, as the case is an example of how women take care of their families by tilling land.

Most farms are male-dominated; and where there are females, they usually take subordinate positions. The economic state of this farm is such that it sustains the two family members and pays the loan debt. Strengths that were observed on the farm included the presence of the members on the farm on a permanent basis, as well as their commitment to the operations. The absence of conflict in this case is typical of a family case.

5.4.2 Case 2: RESPL 2 Second LRAD case

The farm is situated 40km North East of Bronkhorstspuit; and occupation was taken in 2005. There are 5 beneficiaries, 4 women and 1 man, who received the LRAD grant to purchase the farm, which comprises 110 hectares. A different observation was made on this farm, of the four women two were mandated to get formal jobs outside the farm, while the two remaining women and the man were left working on the farm.

The employed women send money to the farm for paying the bills and the labourers. This group had planted maize and vegetables on the land and quicker sales were made

from the vegetables to augment the employed partners' salaries and to meet the expenses of the farm overheads.

The group had received a loan of R100 000 to augment the DRDLR grant for purchasing the farm. The joint repayment of the loan by the five members forced them to stay together on the farm.

The beneficiaries had repaid R60 000 between 2005 and 2010. It was interesting to find out why this agreement was made between the five members; and why it seemed to work perfectly. The farming beneficiaries explained that when they all felt that not enough support was forthcoming from government, they decided to have a division of labour, by allowing half of the beneficiaries to seek employment, with the other half remaining on the farm.

The level of commitment and co-operation was impressive from the beneficiaries that stayed on the farm. The farm had a BOG that was used to install an irrigation system for the vegetable crops. None of the participants were well-educated, but they have a genuine interest in owning land, and are making a success out of the land through their farming.

The division of labour and the shared responsibilities on this farm has made the farm succeed from 2005 to date. According to the participants, not a lot of support came from government, except for the BOG that came from the DRDLR. This BOG is supposed to supplement and support the funding from other government departments, such as the Departments of Agriculture in the provinces and Local Government.

The noticeable lack of government assistance did not stop the participants from using the land that had been allocated to them.

A further observation was that the male partner was satisfied with the arrangement, and said that he did not feel bullied into the situation. He participated eagerly and willingly.

Decision-making on the farm activities was a challenge, because all members had to be present or give permission telephonically for any new events on the farm, even for this interview.

The sales of vegetables have made the business more profitable, because even though the participants did not have a formal market, they were guaranteed good cash sales in informal markets. This allowed them to invest money back into the land and pay other farm overheads. Table 5.6 below shows the levels of production on the farm before and after government's intervention. Government intervention has been in the form of support through the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) and the equitable share that has been allocated to the nine provinces.

CASP is a grant allocated through the Division of Revenue Act to the National Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF). The DAFF, in turn, transfers CASP funds to the various provinces for farmers' support. Support is in the form of the six CASP pillars: these being on-off farm infrastructure, marketing and business development, access to finance, information and technology management, technical and advisory support and training and capacity (CASP Implementation Manual, 2004: 5).

Table 5.6: Enterprises produced by the RESPL 2 group

Enterprises	Year of land acquisition 2005	1st year of loan repayment 2006	Year of support 2007	Year of breakeven 2008	Year of profit 2009
Vegetables in tons	2	5	5	10	12

Source: Land reform unstructured interview on women's sustainable development, 2010

Vegetable production is the main enterprise on the farm, and it has sustained the participants from 2005, since there was no form of government support until 2010. The participants indicated that they had stayed on the farm without much success, until they decided to divide their responsibilities into two women getting jobs outside the farm, and three members working on the farm since 2007. This was also when the participants received government support in the form of a borehole, a water pump and a mounted water tank. This has led to an increase in the production since the income coming from outside supplemented the farm's ability to produce and pay back the loan.

The case that follows is a PLAS-acquired farm; and there is no land ownership. Unlike the two cases above, the participants lease land from the DRDLR, and use it to sustain themselves and to pay the lease rental to government. A new discovery was made in this case in the form of shared responsibility and trust amongst the beneficiaries.

In contrast to the possibility of all five members arguing about their frustrations of lack of progress on the case, they came up with a possible solution; and this can be explored further in terms of other less-successful farms.

5.4.3 Case 3: RESPP 1 First PLAS case

The farm is situated around 25km north of Bronkhorstspruit; and occupation was taken in 2007. The members initially started with one female farmer; who was later joined by her mother, sister and daughter. The participant who was the first to take occupation of the farm is a teacher by profession. She gained formal education outside the farming profession and obtained a degree in education. Her experience in farming with pigs on a rented piece of land earned good results that led to her requiring her own farm. The total extent of the farm is 173 hectares and the farm enterprises at the time of the interview were a piggery with over 288 pigs (including piglets), 30 hectares under yogo beans (these are bean-shaped delicacies that have a nutty taste; and they are either boiled or roasted; in some African countries, they are eaten raw), 15 hectares under

sugar beans, 50 hectares under groundnuts; cattle used 5 hectares for grazing; pigs occupied 10 hectares; and 5 hectares were under maize.

PLAS-acquired farms do not have any BOG, but as of 2009, the DRDLR decided to provide infrastructural support to the farmers leasing these farms. The infrastructure support fund was calculated at 15% of the total farm purchase price; and this was allocated to the farmer to develop the farm infrastructure. The farm also received financial support from the Provincial Department of Agriculture and from the Kungwini Local Municipality.

The Provincial Department of Agriculture support was in the form of a pigsty. The Kungwini Local Municipality provided R40 000 as support to the farm. Of significance, was the number of jobs created by the farm, both casual and permanent employees. A total of 4 permanent jobs and about 70 casual employees were working on the farm on the day of visiting the farm. Details of the enterprises produced are contained in the table below.

The presence of the owners on the farm as managers made it easy to get all the information. The manner in which activities on the farm were organised and carried out showed a lot of professionalism. A formal market had been organised for all the produce. A challenge to the formal markets is that produce is received and payment is made at specified intervals. These involve some periods of waiting for payment, since the receipt of the produce and the large sums involved frequently come at a time when the financial reserves of the seller have frequently dried up.

Table 5.7 below shows the level of production on the farm since the land acquisition (which was in 2007). The piggery has been highlighted as the main enterprise that attracted the participants towards land acquisition. Maize, in this case, was planted as the first crop on the farm, even at a time when there no other form of support.

Table 5.7: Enterprise on the RESPP 1 case

Enterprises	Year of land acquisition	1st year of loan repayment	Year of support	Year of breakeven	Year of profit
Piggery (small stock unit)	27	64	112	288	288

Source: Land reform unstructured interview on women's sustainable development: RESPP 1: May 2010

The table above shows the piggery as the main enterprise on this farm, and it has been the source of income on the farm. The introduction of other crops was supported by the formal marketing of pigs. The quality of the pigs was such that they meet the entire formal market requirement pigs to be sold. The diagram below illustrates the production level of the piggery, from the initial year up to 2010. The trend on the piggery enterprise and others has shown that the case struggled during the starting years, but grew stronger in the later years. This is a further indication that the early years of production are difficult – due to a lack of experience and understanding of the processes.

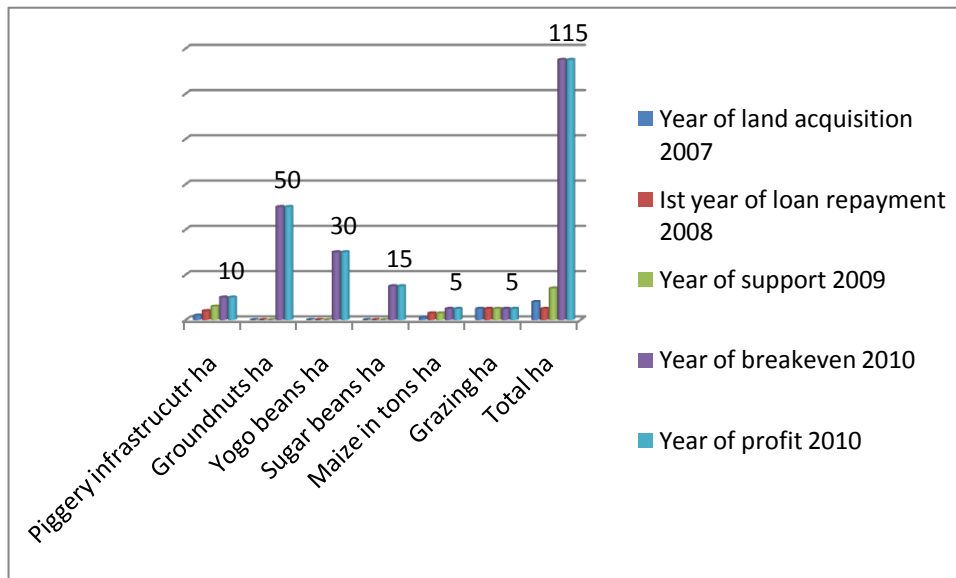
Success in the area of pig farming led to more confidence on the side of the participants and further diversification of the enterprises. It shows that the participants focused their energy on what they knew best and developed from there, introducing other enterprises on the farm. The later usage of land indicates the level of success on the use of land for income-generation.

At the time of the interview 66.47% of the land had been utilised by the participants and the remaining area was used for housing and storage facilities on the farm. The diversification of enterprises led to the increase in the number of jobs created on the farm – from four to eight permanent jobs, and up to 70 and more casual jobs, as well as food security for the families of the employed people.

The average price per kilogram (kg) of baconers was R10.56 per kg, while the accepted weight per baconer is supposed to be between 729 and 767kg per sow (NAMC Working Group, 2007:11). The gross income expected from 144 pigs sold as baconers at R10.56 per kilogram (kg) with each baconer weighing at least 730kg, comes to R1 110 067. The observation is that participants have indeed made more money from the piggery, and this enterprise supported other new enterprises on the farm.

Diagram 5.3 illustrates the number of hectares (ha) occupied by each enterprise on the farm. The piggery, as the largest producing enterprise, uses less land compared with crops, such as groundnuts and yogo beans. The conclusive observation is that land access is important, but of more importance is the usage thereof. In this case, women are proving that the size of land is not critical in the success of a business, since even a little piece of land can make a business successful – depending on the intensity and the type of enterprise.

Diagram 5.2: Bar chart indicating the level of area used versus the total area of the farm in years since acquisition



Source: Land reform unstructured interview on women’s sustainable development: RESPP 1: May 2010

The total area used by the farmer during this period was 115 hectares out of the 173 hectares farm area, and it was utilised as indicated above. The indication is that there is need for additional land. The decision-making ability could be observed in the amount of land usage and the level of the yield. In her own words, one of the young women RESPP 1 said that: “I am not a farmer, but I am a business woman in agriculture”. The emphasis on independence and self-esteem was observed, and this could be confirmed by the level of production occurring on the farm at the time of the visit.

The beneficiary (RESPP 1) had secured markets for the following:

- 288 pigs, which had increased from 27 at the time of occupying the farm;
- 50 ha of groundnuts;
- 30 ha of Yogo beans;
- 15 ha of sugar beans; and
- 5 ha of maize that had been planted to feed her pigs, and straw that would be used to add to her cattle feed.

Government support provided for this project has been in the form of fencing and piggery infrastructure. An added benefit was the increase in the number of jobs created from the above operations. The farm permanently employs eight labourers and up to 70 casual labourers (of which 21 are permanent for the cultivation of Yogo beans) at a rate of ± R50.00 per day. It is worth noting that even though the educated beneficiaries with a postgraduate count together of 12 qualifications were not necessarily qualifications in Agriculture, (but were qualifications either in nursing or teaching), the zeal and commitment on their farming activities was impressive.

The participants were ready to engage in the use of the land as a business and to ensure success and sustainability. Income generated by the project at the start of operations (2007) ranged between R30 000.00 and R40 000.00, but as of 2010, it is estimated to be above R250 000.00 per annum.

A report by the NAMC Working Group (2007:10) indicates that South Africa has about 400 000 small-scale pig producers who own 25 000 sows. These small-scale producers realise an average production of 10 slaughter pigs per annum. The lower production is mainly due to a high mortality rate and insufficient feeding, especially where there is a lack of government support (NAMC Working Group Report, 2007:10).

The NAMC Working Group Report (2007: 10) further stated that around 140 000 tons of pork are produced in South Africa, with 6 000 of this being exported to other African countries. Despite this, South Africa imports between 20 000 and 25 000 pork ribs annually due to the high demand for these ribs. This places South Africa as a net importer of pork, because it imports about 10% of its pork. The implications for the small-scale pork producers, according to the NAMC Working Group Report (2007: 10), are that the potential for increased pork production from farmers, such as these participants, still exists. Beyond their local formal markets for baconers, South Africa still needs more large pigs for the supply of pork ribs.

5.4.4 Case 4: RESPP 2 Second PLAS case

The farm is situated 36km West of Bronkhorstspuit. There are two beneficiaries, a mother and daughter. The contract to occupy the farm is written under the mother's name, while the daughter is there in a supporting role. The husband to the daughter is employed by government and, therefore, does not qualify to be a member of the PLAS project. He supports the farming operation with cash for inputs and labour salaries. The farm is 89 hectares and the farm enterprises are maize, piggery and cattle. The cattle are sold on auctions, while the pigs are sold to the same market to which the RESPP 1 case participant sells.

The initial occupant is a nurse by profession, but she left her job to take up an opportunity in farming. The women participants of RESPP 1 and RESPP 2 are young and more educated compared with the participants in the RESPL 1 and RESPL 2 cases.

Besides taking care of their own farms, they have indicated that they assist other farmers in the area with advice and even make suggestions for possible markets. This farm received financial assistance of R170, 000.00 from the DRDLR and water infrastructure from the Gauteng Provincial Department of Agriculture.

It became clear from the interview that the two PLAS cases were more organised and focused in their production activities. They were of service to the rest of the community in the area. To quote their words, they said that: “We are not farmers, but we are in the business of farming” (Participants from RESPP 1 & 2, 20 May 2010). Table 5.8 indicates the enterprises on the farm; and in this case, cattle were the main source of income. The use of maize for livestock feed was started during the year of support because there was a need for maize inputs.

Table 5.8: Enterprises grown on RESPP 2 case

Enterprises	Year of land acquisition 2007	1 st year of loan repayment 2008	Year of support 2009	Year of breakeven 2010	Year of profit 2010
Piggery (Small Stock Unit / SSU)	10	14	37	85	85
Cattle (Large Stock Unit / LSU)	19	27	30	33	33

Source: Land reform unstructured interview on women’s sustainable development: RESPP 2: May 2010

The RESPP 2 case, like the RESPP 1 case, had pigs and cattle as the dominant enterprises produced on the farm. The participants received their income from cattle and pigs.

An example was given that out of the 85 pigs the participants intended to sell 30 that were weighing 660kg. The participants expected a gross income of at least R209 088.00 from the pigs. This amount includes transport costs, labour wages, salaries and feed for the remaining pigs and piglets. Cattle sales on auction also assisted towards the payment of rental for the farm.

5.4.5 Case 5: RESPS 1 SLAG case

The farm is situated on the Eastern side of Pretoria, and the allocation was done in 2000. The group of 62 beneficiaries settled during this period on a 155 hectare farm that has been riddled with conflicts right up until the development of a new legal entity introduced in 2005.

During 2000, a Communal Property Association (CPA) was established as a legal entity to receive the land transfer on behalf of the applicants. Due to the ineffective functioning of the CPA, a new legal entity – in the form of a trust – was established.

Fewer beneficiaries compared with the initial number started to be productive and used the land as a means of survival. The group that remained on the farm had 90% of women in it. The women were more committed, as a result of the lack of any other formal employment. The group produces vegetables and sells these around the area, and outside a formal market. Formal markets, as opposed to informal markets, provide security to the sellers / suppliers, and guaranteed sales irrespective of the price at the time of sale and the constant transport costs.

Informal markets (in this case the East Rand Mall and the Masakhane Clinic), on the other hand, have only a limited security for the sale of produce. Produce can be sold or not sold – and because vegetables are highly perishable, the unsold produce can be damaged. Excess vegetables are donated to old age homes, as well as to the orphanages.

The presence of women in this group held the group together, because these women participants indicated that most men left after the second year, when they saw that the business was not earning enough money for their families. On enquiring as to why the women stayed, when the men left, the women indicated that they felt that; firstly, they owed it to their government that had acquired the land for them which they never thought was possible to own in a lifetime; secondly, they saw land as a sign of wealth, because as a result of produce from land they could now support their families and people around them; and thirdly, they kept the land so that they could leave it as an inheritance for their children.

In all the above cases, support from government came a year later, after the year of settlement on the farm and was no longer expected by the RESPS 1 case participants. The late support affected the productive use of the farms.

This late start had a negative impact on the repayment of loans and rental to the Land Bank. The delayed start of loan re-payments became a threat in terms of the accrued interest on the loan. Anxiety, as a result of this gap between farm occupation and actual time of support was observed in all the participants.

Loans were received by RESPL 1 and RESPL, two cases that are LRAD cases. The RESPL 1 case had received a loan for R120 000.00 and the RESPL 2 case had received a bank loan of R100 000.00. The RESPL 1 case had repaid R80 000.00 by May 2010, and the RESPL 2 case had repaid R60 000.00 during the same period. Loan repayment had been delayed by R3 200.00 for RESPL1, and RESPL 2 had made payments that were in arrears to the tune of R8 000.00 (they were supposed to pay R20 000.00 and instead they could only afford to pay R12 000.00).

This level of payment on a straight line indicates that if the cases had received support in the initial year of production, which was the first year of loan repayment, they would not been in arrears. The understanding that exists between government and the Land Bank in achieving national land reform targets has assisted these projects and others who could not repay their loans in the first year after the land transfer.

The Land Bank is a State-Owned Entity (SOE) and it receives support in the form of guarantees from government. The delay in supporting these farmers placed pressure on the Land Bank's records because these beneficiaries had to be given extended time to repay their loans.

Table 5.9 below illustrates the level of education and the ages of women from the selected cases – together with their levels of production.

The observation from the table is that there is a correlation between the age of women and their level of education. The younger women are more educated and diversify their production on farms, whilst utilising bigger land portions. Higher production has resulted in better incomes and sustainable cases. As a result of continuous production, the cases are self-sustaining, and the beneficiaries and their employees are able to live on the produce from the farm.

The area utilised for production is higher on the younger women's farms. The jobs are secure as a result of continuous production on these farms. An interesting aspect which was not investigated is the performance of farms that had loans (LRAD) versus those that are without loans (PLAS). The PLAS farms are, however, expected to pay rental as opposed to the loan repayments.

What is of concern is the fact that the amount generated from the farm productions has to be shared with outsiders in the form of loans and rentals.

Table 5.9: Level of education in relation to age and production of women beneficiaries

Details of women's level of education, age and production level			
RESPONDENT	Level of Education	Age Range of women beneficiaries	Production percent (100% is the total land area)
RESPS 1	Gr 0 – 10	35 – 69+	30 (total 155ha)
RESPP 2	Gr 12 +	29 – 35	50 (total 89ha)
RESPL 2	Gr 0	+ 69	55 (total 110ha)
RESPP 1	Gr 12 +	24 – 32	66.7 (total 173ha)
RESPL 1	Gr 10	+56	45 (total 55ha)

Source: Land reform unstructured interview on women's sustainable development: All participants: May 2010

Table 5.9 above shows the age, the level of education and the area of land used for production.

The illustration shows that educated women clearly have higher levels of production and prices in each enterprise. This demonstrates that there are prospects of higher income and for reinvesting in the farming operations.

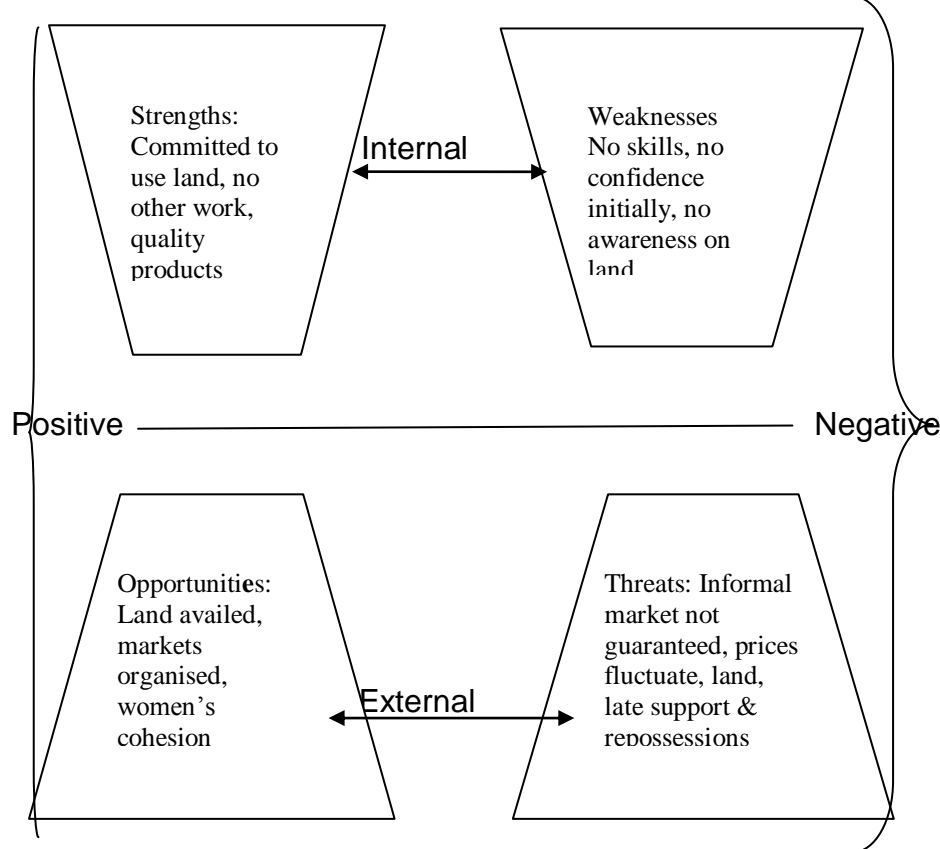
Educated women have usually had an opportunity to become exposed to business concepts, and are at an advantage in terms of understanding how to operate the farm as a business. Written information is easily read without anyone teaching them.

The following section deals with opportunities, strengths, weaknesses and the threats that these women face in their land utilisation engagements for sustainable development. Investigations have shown that there are markets for all the women's produce: both formal and informal markets.

Women have frequently acquired knowledge and confidence to deal with farm enterprises on their respective farms. There is no other engagement except the farming activity. This is an indication that the quality of the farm produce is assured.

An illustration of the SWOT analysis is given in Diagram 5.4 below.

Diagram 5.3: SWOT analysis of the land reform system, as it exists currently



The first section of the case study analysis has been done case by case, since the circumstances in each case are different and unique. The following section combines some of the generic characteristics in all the cases and an analysis of all the combined cases is then undertaken. There are specific characteristics in each of the case studies that are done better if analysed simultaneously, as is done in the SWOT analysis. They provide better comparative results if combined, than when analysed individually.

A presentation of the strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities that prevail in these cases is provided in diagram 5.4 above. The opportunities and threats exist within the external environment and the strengths and weaknesses are found in the internal environment.

The opportunities are in the form of land that is made available by government together with formal markets that have been organised for agricultural products – resulting in continuity and women’s cohesion – which has been created naturally, as a result of common discussions and the needs for women to gain access to government advice, once settled on land. The threats are that the informal markets are not guaranteed; prices fluctuate; support is often late, and this is coupled with land repossessions that threaten these women due to unpaid loans.

A critical threat is that the resale of land would receive buyers outside of government, and there is no restriction that prevents land beneficiaries from selling on the open market. The resale of government-acquired land distorts the figures and government records of land transfers. Land reform is a government programme of restoring land; and as indicated in other chapters as well, it must be promoted as a matter that concerns all South Africans, as well as buyers and sellers of land.

The extent to which the land is further used will determine whether the user is able to keep such land or is forced to sell it. The cases above have been discussed individually because of their uniqueness and locality. The following section deals with common characteristics of women as users of land.

5.5 Common characteristics observed on women in the case studies

The study also provided an opportunity to assess common characteristics amongst women in the cases. Aspects on land acquisition, awareness, level of education in relation to productivity, hectares grown for sale and other enterprises owned for income will be discussed.

The common characteristics that form part of land acquisition and land use are discussed in the following section, in order to formulate patterns that inform strengths and weaknesses in the individual cases.

5.5.1 Acquisition and awareness

It became necessary, subsequent to the interviews to know how the women participants had become aware of land reform. The discussion showed that only the SLAG case participants had become aware of land reform opportunities through government. The rest of the beneficiaries came to know of the programmes by their own means. The participants put a lot of effort into actualising their access to land.

Table 5.10 below indicates the manner in which all the women participants became aware of the government programme to access land

Table 5.10: Year of acquisition and awareness table

RESPONDENT	Land acquisition Details					
	Programme			Year of acquisition	Year of support	Awareness
	SLAG	LRAD	PLAS			
RESPS 1	X			2000	Not clear	Government
RESPP 2			X	2007	2008	News Papers and made follow up
RESPL 1		X		2005	2006	Male farmer
RESPP 1			X	2007	2007	Looked for bigger land after practicing on a smaller piece: male relative
RESPL 2		X		2005	2006	Government advertisements

Source: Land reform unstructured interview on women's sustainable development: All participants: May 2010.

The SLAG cases fall outside the period of study, but have been chosen to emphasise aspects of women's production and for comparison reasons. The land acquisition details include the year of acquisition and the means of becoming aware. On enquiring as to how the women had become aware of the Land Reform Programmes, two (one from LRAD and one from PLAS) indicated that their male farmers had informed them about the Land Reform Programme. In one case (RESPL 1), as indicated above in Section 5.3.1, the husband had passed away and left the widow with a number of cattle that needed proper land for grazing.

The need for land put pressure on the wife to get information on how to access land urgently. An already-existing male farmer who had acquired land through land reform informed the woman about the opportunity created by government for all HDIs to access land for themselves.

The other participant from the RESPP 1 case had been farming on a smaller scale, and when seeing the benefits, made enquiries for a larger land grant. They had received information from a male relative who had benefited from land reform. The SLAG beneficiary benefited from the programme because this initiative was a government move to empower the HDIs. LRAD participants for case RESPL 2 obtained information about the land reform on their own. Beneficiaries in this case were using communal land for vegetable production, and due to the challenges of theft on communal land, they had made enquiries on accessing government supported land.

One of the PLAS cases received information through reading government publications on the national campaign to redistribute land in South Africa. The years of acquiring land have been included in the table for purposes of assessing the period of settling people on land versus the time of getting production support.

It is clear from the above, that women were on the lookout for land even though they did not have information of the government programmes that aimed to empower them. Culturally, land ownership and farming have always been associated with men, and enquiries were subsequently made by men.

Men have, therefore, contributed positively to the process of making land available to women, even though they may not have been aware of this fact. Efforts to encourage women to read and learn about matters of empowerment for them are vitally necessary.

5.5.2 Level of education versus productivity

It has been observed that women beneficiaries with better education levels were more organised in terms of focused market-related production and higher numbers of labour employed on the farms.

This category is more skilled in terms of other related courses and has an understanding of general issues, such as the exact location of the farm. The Metsweding District Municipality within which the farm is located and farm descriptions with Registration Divisions, as detailed on the title deeds to avoid confusion, as a result of using farm common names only, were not clear to the RESPL 1 and RESPL 2 beneficiaries, but were easily identifiable by the RESPP 1 and RESPP 2 beneficiaries. RESPP 1 and RESPP 2 beneficiaries eagerly shared their knowledge by assisting other farmers in the vicinity, both males and females. The lack of knowledge on the actual farm names and descriptions is critical when aspects of deeds search are undertaken.

In the Deeds Office, only the farm description is registered, but not the project names. Such a deeds search assists in getting ownership details and the history on the farm. This is important for women as owners of such land.

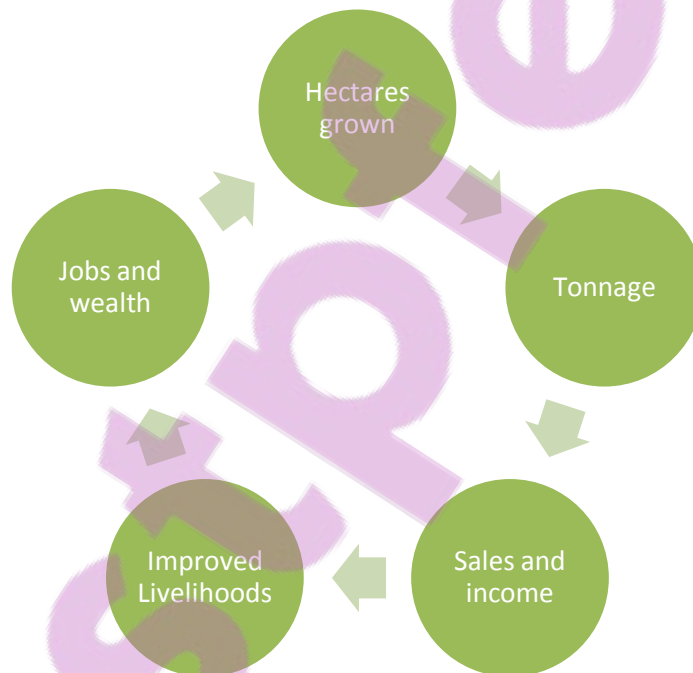
Additional information is shared on the ability to prioritise the investment of money in valuable enterprises, fixing their own implements, rather than buying new ones and the market opportunities available. An added requirement from the educated beneficiaries was the need for more hectares, because the current ones were fully utilised. It was observed that the least-educated beneficiaries had utilised less hectares at the time of the visit and their farms were smaller. Education, knowledge and understanding of activities that occur regarding women have assisted them with their growth and development.

Access to land has not only improved the women's productive efforts, but also their attitude towards their counterpart's development. The opportunity that was created by allowing women access to land, especially educated women, allowed the area around the farms to benefit from the transaction.

5.5.3 Hectares grown for sales

Hectares cultivated *versus* those left fallow were less with most projects, but more so for educated women. Diagram 5.5 below in the form of a cycle indicates a cyclical process of growth and sustainability in the crop enterprises. The number of hectares determines the amount of crops that can be grown, as well as the tonnage that can be harvested. The type and amount of inputs that are added to the soil further have an effect on the quality of produce that is harvested.

Diagram 5.4: An illustration of a series of stages in a crop-production cycle



The diagram above shows a cyclic relationship between planting and harvesting in terms of farms size in hectares, tons that are produced and later sold, and income that is realised from the tonnage. Opportunities to invest back into the field, as a result of improved yields (tons) and additional jobs are thereby created.

Better production realised better job opportunities for both permanent and casual employees. On the contrary, higher numbers of employees working positively influence the quality of the produce.

Continuity is an indication of sustainability; and hence, of growth and development. In the five cases RESPP 1, RESPP 2 and RESPL 1, have provided job-creation opportunities for both permanent and temporary jobs.

5.5.4 Other enterprises owned for income

A diversification of enterprises was observed in all the cases. As an alternative to crop farming, beneficiaries also had livestock, such as cattle, poultry and pigs. This was practiced to ensure the continuous engagement of employees on farms, even when it is not the season for crops.

Cattle owned are sold on auctions; and this service needs herdsmen – thereby creating jobs; and income is generated from such sales. In some cases, more investment would be made in the form of buying additional livestock for improvement and later selling this stock; and more jobs for higher livestock numbers and sales that would consequently result in better incomes.

The observation has been that women are totally committed to the land that they have accessed, irrespective of government support which came later than expected. Women participants who are members of a family, work on the farms tirelessly on behalf of their families, regardless of whether they are tasked to undertake activities or not by the other family members. Family-acquired farms are continuously productive, as opposed to the randomly organised groups, such as in the RESPL 2 and RESPS 1 cases in Table 5.10.

It is against this background that the study will propose better models and recommend ideal processes for women's access to land.

Table 5.11: Status of members in the projects

RESPOND- ENT	Beneficiary Number			Family / organised group
	Starting Number	Mid Term Number	Current Number	
RESPS 1	62	42	13	Organised group
RESPP 2	2	2	2	Family
RESPL 2	6	5	5	Organised group
RESPP 1	2	3	5	Family
RESPL 1	2	2	2	Family

Source: Land reform unstructured interview on women's sustainable development (May 2010).

Table 5.11 above shows that in family-acquired farms there is growth or constant numbers in terms of members, as opposed to organised groups, where there has been a significant drop in membership since acquiring the land. There is also a trend that the family projects are more productive and diverse in their enterprises, yet they are successful. A further analysis of women participant's personal efforts and inputs for the continuity of farm activities is undertaken to augment the investigation done above.

Sustainability has been observed on the side of enterprise development from the cases. Other personal attributes, such as the women's commitment, other farm-related knowledge, cultural and social attributes contribute to the sustainability of the farm. These have been categorised into the economic, social, cultural and environmental aspects of farm sustainability.

5.6 Women's inputs in sustainable production on farms

The discussion that follows adds to the above aspects and discusses other inputs that women have added to their cases to promote sustainability. Specific attributes are looked at to emphasise the participant's efforts in maintaining sustainable farming. Tilley (2007:10) argues that land reform becomes more effective when the beneficiaries have acquired the necessary experience in land use and management, and they have generated a sustainable income and provided sufficient food for their families.

When listening to the challenges that the participants had faced since their settlement at the farms to date, it became difficult to understand why these women were persevering with these farms. Perseverance emanated from the acquired skills, such as management, experience and knowledge in farming. Sustainability aspects that were discussed in Chapter Four are briefly discussed here; and additional characteristics have been attached to ensure common understanding. Women's inputs are looked into in terms of their economic, social, cultural and environmental aspects.

The assumption is that all four contribute equally towards farm sustainability; none of them is more important or contributes more than the others.

5.6.1 Women's economically related inputs in sustainability

As mentioned in Chapter Four, Section 24 (b) (iii) of the *Constitution* (1996), it is mandatory to protect the environment and ensure sustainable development, and to ensure that the use of natural resources is sensitive to the economic and social aspects, whilst still promoting development. Development that does not take care of the resources to promote economic and social development for the present and future generations lacks sustainability. In terms of the economic aspects of sustainability in these cases, the following issues were investigated: commitment; knowledge and success.

5.6.1.1 Commitment of the participants

Commitment is a condition whereby an individual or members of a group entrust their abilities to some task or goal (Fox & Meyer, 1995: 22). The level of commitment shown by a specific group towards its organisation is a reflection of the strength in that organisation's culture (Fox & Meyer, 1995:22). Banki (1981: 211) defines commitment in the administrative and management context as an obligation to undertake a specific activity or service. In an expenditure spreadsheet, commitment indicates the amounts of money that cannot be retrieved or re-used for other purposes, because they have been committed to an agreed-on service delivery programme.

Commitment from the women in the context of this study is the level of obligation, strength and belief entrusted by women through their time, energy and hope in their farming activities.

Under commitment the presence of the participant on the farm; the management of the farm operations and the ability to make decisions were investigated and used to measure the levels of commitment. These three attributes are critical for continuous production on farms.

Table 5.12 illustrates the commitment as an input from participants in the sustainable use of land and development. These were verified and interpreted as follows: presence on the farm: Always; sometimes; and never; and management of farm operations was investigated as self-managing; partially managing; and not managing; and decision-making as being able to make decisions; the need for partners to make decisions; and cannot make decisions at all. Women that were holding leadership positions were able to make decisions on how to utilise money received from farm operations. They were able to decide on how much money to reinvest on production, use for paying bills and for paying wages and salaries.

Table 5.12: Aspects used to determine the commitment of the participants as their input in sustainable farming

Participant	Presence on farm	Management of the farm	Decisions regarding the farm
RESPL 1	Always	Not managing	Make decisions
RESPL 2	Sometimes	Partially managing	Needs partners (Inputs into decisions)
RESPP 1	Always	Self manages	Makes decisions
RESPP 2	Always	Self manages	Makes decisions
RESPS 1	Sometimes	Partially manages (Collective management)	Needs partners (Makes inputs into decisions)

Source: Land reform questionnaire on women's sustainable development (May 2010).

The above table indicates that out of the five cases selected, three were fully committed and able to sustain both the participants and their employees.

The ability of beneficiaries to make decisions and fully manage the farm has a positive impact on the success of farming operations. The ability of the women to make independent decisions was further observed during the arrangement of the visit to the farms. The next aspects within the economic-related inputs that will be looked at are knowledge and success. RESPL 2 is managed by a trust and for the trust to make decisions all the members of the trust must be present. The same happens for RESPS 1, in which there are 13 members that are not family members and who collectively need to agree on any specific decision.

5.6.1.2 Knowledge of participants

Knowledge is a detailed familiarity with or even understanding of a situation gained from gathering the facts, information and realities through education, experience or reason (Wikipedia, 2011). Knowledge can either be implicit, which comprises skills and expertise, or explicit which comprises a theoretical understanding of a subject (Wikipedia, 2011). In this study, both the implicit and explicit forms of knowledge are critical. Knowledge that women have gained as a result of their experience in farming (implicit), as well as knowledge gained through training on farms and other related disciplines (explicit) – both formally and informally.

Knowledge verifies formal training accessed. In Chapter Four, the off-farm and on-farm training aspects of participants were tabled. Enterprise success and diversification are aspects that were investigated in terms of knowledge; the more knowledgeable the participant, the more the enterprises on the farm. In terms of the results of Table 5.1, RESPS 1 received no formal training; RESPL 1 and RESPL 2 had average training; RESPP 1 had received full training, while RESPP 2 had received above-average training on farming.

5.6.1.3 The success of the participants

The success of the participants means that government programmes and policies have achieved their intended goals. According to McKinney and Howard (1998:10), the criteria used for measuring success in the public sector relate to qualitative goals and objectives, such as the improvement of personal security and educating citizens to their fullest capability. Success of government programmes should entail aspects of assuring citizens in regard to their growth and development.

Elements of success in these cases include area utilised; markets access; income from enterprises (normal enterprises would be products such as maize) *versus* high-value enterprises (such as sunflower) and the ability to re-investment in the farm. Table 5.8 shows that the respondent RESPS 1 used 30% of the area; RESPL 1: used 45% of the total area; RESPP 1 used 66.7% of the total area; RESPP 2 used 55% of the total area; and RESPL 2 used 50% of the total area. Added to the land usage is the fact that RESPP 1, RESPL 1 and RESPP2 had formal markets and were assured of their money, as long as they honoured their contractual obligations in terms of supplying the required quality and quantities of farm products.

RESPL 2 and RESPS 1 sell their produce on informal markets, but they have made a success of their farming activities; hence, their continuous stay on the farms from 2005 and 2000 respectively. Added to the aspects that are contributing to the economic status of cases above are socially and environmentally related inputs from the participants. These will be discussed in the section that follows.

5.6.2 Socially related inputs from participants

The social inputs of the participants were looked at in the form of their roles in the community, their roles in the case – especially in the legal entity and their role in the household. With the exception of RESPL 1 and RESPL 2, all the other participants played a role within their communities, as well as in their legal entities, which are registered to transfer land on behalf of the beneficiaries. RESPP 1 was a chairperson of the women's group in the area and chairperson of the case's legal entity.

RESPP 2 was a treasurer within the case's legal entity, while the RESPS 1 was a secretary within the case's legal entity.

The household role was predominant for all the participants, including the RESPL 2 participants who had an active male member.

5.6.3 Cultural aspects and women's inputs

Culture is regarded as the complexity of knowledge, beliefs, laws and customs in a society which is what comes naturally to people (McKinney & Howard, 1998: 118). Vasu *et al.* (1998:266) in defining organisational culture define cultures as a collective phenomenon that embodies people's responses to the uncertainties and chaos that are inevitable in human experiences. The participants were aware of their cultural heritage and they respected the fact that some of them had husbands, and even those that no longer had husbands, recognised the fact that the husband's family still existed.

Participants acknowledged that at these farms they were often forced to make unanimous decisions because of the nature of their enterprises. The enterprises are seasonal, and time is of the essence to ensure quality and better market contracts.

A decision as to whether to take the produce to the market and even to buy new stock to continue farming had to be made by the women participants, even without their male counterparts as household heads.

The implications of not taking a decision would be detrimental towards the produce, the participant and those concerned in the case. A further observation was made that the ability to decide without getting permission or authorisation from their male counterparts (for example in the case of Rose and Dave) improved the women participant's self-esteem. They were subsequently more confident and better in control of the activities that occurred on the farms.

5.6.4 Environmental aspects and women's inputs

Matters that were scrutinised in terms of the participants input towards environmental aspects were their practices on farms for realising their produce; their disposal of waste, especially in the case of pig farmers; and their awareness of the environmental aspects of their operations. There was consensus that all waste should, as far as possible, be re-used in the fields – as fertiliser and as cattle feed. None of the participants were engaged in organic farming, even though they were aware of the benefits of engaging more lucrative markets if producing organically. The environment as one of the key aspects of sustainable development should be preserved for the current and future use. Organic products are said to fetch better prices than conventionally produced products; hence, consumers are paying too much for organic food (Royal Society of Chemistry, 2011).

5.7 The role of government in sustaining women

Johnson (2004: 6) defines the purpose of government as to support those who cannot care for themselves, and do not have others to help them. The role that women play in taking care of their children, their elderly and people with disabilities can be equated to the role that government plays; hence, the need to support women.

It is evident therefore that the expression of needs has to be factual, and it should allow all parties to have a common understating of what has to be achieved. The policy-makers or administrators have a mandate to serve the public; and they are able to plan for the resources that are essential to realise their plans, organise themselves and implement their plans, as proposed.

An additional challenge, as further outlined in Chapter Three of the *Constitution* (1996), is the need for the integration of government efforts in all spheres of government. The local sphere's contribution is especially critical, because it is at this sphere where most activities and recipients are located. Between the three spheres of government implementation occurs at the local sphere; and the economic growth benefits the local sphere first.

There are government programmes, such as the Land and Agrarian Reform Project (coined LARP for short), which emanates from the President's 24 apex priorities, and was stated in the State of the Nation Address for 2008. This project aims to accelerate service delivery and involves all spheres of government in its effort in realising growth in some identified areas in the progression towards development.

The *WPSALP* (1997) states that the land reform targets women as beneficiaries, but there are no details on how this should be done, what the time frames are, and who would ensure the achievement of this goal. The cases above have indicated that farms that have been allocated to family members such as the case with RESPL1, RESPP1 and RESPP2 become successful. This should be used to guide further government support on land allocation. The need to address women's sustainable development aspects is quite clearly expressed, but this lacks any detailed guidelines. The lack of any clear guidelines is complicated by the hostility regarding such matters on the farms, where women operate. The role of Parliament remains as the development of legislation that is expressed by Policies and Acts.

It is the responsibility of the executive authorities to ensure the implementation of such legislation through programmes. McKinney and Howard (1998:11) spell out the policy-administration dichotomy, as the development of policies by the legislature and the implementation of such policies by administrators. The people's needs keep changing – leading to changes in the priorities and implementation of policies. However, these changing needs are not usually coupled with an increase in resources – including the capacity to effect these changes.

According to Common *et al.* (1992: 92), in order to deliver a good service it is important to ask some basic questions, which are normally taken for granted. These questions are Who? What? When? How? And Why? It is important to know who will receive the service, what kind of service they will receive, when they should receive the service,

where they will get the service, how the service would get there, and why they need such a service (Common *et al.*, 1992:93).

There is a need for the proper co-ordination of support for and with beneficiaries – especially where the intention is to empower the people that will benefit. The cases here have shown that women are taking the land access opportunities with strength and are willing to make a living for their families – as a result of these resources. As indicated in all the five cases, government support in the form of production grants in all the cases came a year later, after the land transfer. Reasons for the late support range from uncoordinated government land transfer processes to the non-readiness of the beneficiaries to utilise land, and the conflicting needs of the beneficiaries. Inclusive planning and implementation will benefit both the providers of the services and the recipients.

The section that follows deals with international land reform trends. Access to land and the ability to make productive use of such land is critical to poor people worldwide (Deininger, 2003:1). The ideas and problems associated with the implementation of the Land Reform Policy, as this chapter will reveal, are almost similar to problems encountered during earlier attempts by various land redistribution pioneers in many countries – especially Latin America, India and Africa -- which had been under colonial rulers. Colonialism brought about a difference in the population groupings and hatred to a certain extent – due to the manner in which it was imposed on people, as well as the prioritisation of specific groups' needs above the needs of others.

According to Lowdens and Sullivan (2008: 69), the relationship between neighborhoods, citizen homogeneity and community cohesion presents significant governance challenges, particularly in a society in which diversity is increasing and is positively valued. A discussion of land-related experiences, as they have occurred in other countries allows for a better understanding of the origins and aims of follow-up land processes.

5.8 International Land Reform experiences

An exploration of some of the countries that were affected by colonialism and land ownership patterns will now be undertaken. The following section is discussed – not only for comparative reasons, but also to highlight how patterns of land ownership, as far as women empowerment is concerned was less prioritised. The intention for such an attempt is to identify proposals for the better inclusion of women and policy processes that recognise women as an important category of beneficiaries.

5.8.1 The South American land experience

Approximately 60 million rural women in Latin America work more than 12 hours a day to ensure the subsistence of their families (FAO 2001: 1). These women start with caring for the children, the in-laws, the husband and other relatives, and ending the day with ensuring that all have had a decent meal and are able to find a suitable sleeping place. Nevertheless, women's access to resources is not guaranteed (FAO, 2001:2).

Although reliable, sex-disaggregated data on land tenure are not available, various surveys and studies on land ownership report that men and women do not enjoy equal access to land resources (FAO, 2001: 2).

Ghimire (2001: 51) explains that in every Latin American case where significant land redistribution has benefited the rural poor, such as Brazil and Chile, the State has played a decisive role. The writer further alludes to the fact that the State was, in most cases, instrumental in preventing land reform earlier. Policies made by the State are either detrimental or beneficial to the recipients of such a policy.

Further facts highlighting the success and failure of land reform were the following (Ghimire, 2001: 54 - 58):

- (i) Peasant organisations: where significant land reforms have occurred, protests and demands by organised peasant producers and rural workers have made contributions to the realisation of pro-poor land ownership patterns. These peasant groups were the poor minority groups, but they enjoyed wide covert and passive support.

- (ii) The large land holders: Most of the large landholder's resisted land reform. This resistance scenario has led to the land reform becoming a controversial political issue.
- (iii) Political parties: The fact that land reform has become a political issue has led to it topping the agenda for politicians to deliver on their promises to transform countries. The majority of voters come from the rural poor, and where there are multi-party systems, the focus to canvass for more votes is mainly in the rural areas.
- (iv) Non-governmental organisations (NGOs): Their independence contributes to accelerated processes for achieving more results within a shorter space of time. These NGOs mobilise global governments for their support, and because they are mostly donor-funded they are highly autonomous.

The cases of Chile and Brazil, as mentioned above, indicate the involvement of the State in all land-reform related processes.

The situation is a top-down approach and citizens are forced to accept what is thought of as sufficient for them. Obstacles to increased sustainable agricultural productivity in Latin America are mainly institutional and political (Bhaduri & Skarstein, 1997: 150). As a measure towards dealing with anticipated shortfalls in domestic production, the Latin American governments accepted one of the damaging policies of assuring sufficient supplies of cheap food for their urban population through imports (Bhaduri & Skarstein, 1997: 146).

According to the FAO (2001: 2) laws or programmes that are directly or indirectly associated with the redistribution of land in the region have explicitly or implicitly excluded women, and have not taken any steps to guarantee their access to land. Even though all the national constitutions proclaim equal rights for men and women, most agrarian laws and civil legislation contain some discriminatory dispositions against women (FAO, 2001:2). Consequently, the majority of the actively employed still engaged in agriculture are landless (Bhaduri & Skarstein, 1997:146).

The difference with the South African Land Reform Policy is that even though the State is tasked with the responsibility for land redistribution, this function has since been decentralised from the national sphere. The intention of decentralising land reform is for the sole purpose that it becomes as inclusive as possible.

Added to this, is that the process involves all spheres of government. Interaction between the provincial departments that deal with land is critical for the success of accessing and utilising land. Land reform is equally political in South Africa, especially the Land Restitution Programme.

5.8.2 Land cases in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe was exposed to colonial rules; and these are the main causes of land allocation policies which preferred white land ownership over black land ownership. However, while colonial injustices are being corrected, post-colonial injustices are emerging and these have manifested in the discrimination against black women by black men. Mushunje (2001: 4) quotes Moyo (2000), as arguing that land policies have been developed, but there has been an inconsistent implementation of these policies by the Government of Zimbabwe.

This would perhaps explain the poor implementation of the 1999 Draft National Land Policy, which sought to redress gender imbalances in the Zimbabwe Land Reform Programme – but with little success.

Mushunje (2001: 8) quotes the author and historian, Chigwedere (2000), as noting that in the African tradition, women had land rights clearly spelled out; and these were only eroded after 1890, when the colonialists arrived in the country. The writer argues that the dispossession of land from the African women is more a colonial legacy than a traditional one. According to the analysis by Chigwedere (2000), the marginalisation of women as a traditional legacy is a "figment of women's imagination." Traditionally, a woman was entitled to land allocation after the married woman gave birth to her first child. The land was allocated to enable the woman to take care of her children and the family, which also acted as a source of security for the household.

The indigenous people were systematically and deliberately impoverished. This impoverishment also resulted in the changing roles of women. Women became providers of food security for the working men and *de facto* heads of households in their own right. According to Isaacs (2010:1) lands of 4000 white farmers have been handed over to black natives under the current land reform programme. The lack of productive use for such land has resulted in a deteriorating farming scene in the country. This becomes a lesson for most African countries that the transfer of land alone does not necessarily result in poverty reduction. Zimbabwe has a pluralist legal system, comprising the general law, which is more legislative, and customary law (Bowler-Bowler & Stoneman, 2000: 167). Customary law is commonly used to describe the regulatory and normative basis, often independent of legislation, on which the majority of the population conduct their lives (Bowler-Bowler & Stoneman, 2000: 167).

This two-pronged legal framework has been confirmed by Mushunje (2001: 14). In the case of land rights, usually the customary law would be applied, meaning that African women are at the mercy of traditional leaders, since they administer customary law.

The similarity of the Zimbabwe case to the South African case is in terms of the legislation that existed at the time of colonial rulers. This led to the deprivation of the majority of people of their land rights. The period systematically excluded women, and this was beyond the cultural aspects of the communities. The exposure of literature on neighboring countries assists in providing solutions that could not be known without such exposure. Challenges or mistakes made in one country can be avoided by its neighbours and *vice versa*.

What is more notable in the South African land access cases by women is the level of commitment towards utilising the land.

5.8.3 *The Indian experience*

According to Ghosh (2007:1), India is home to a significant fraction of the world's poor, and the bulk of India's populations are dependent on agriculture for their livelihoods. Hence, under the system of planned development in post-independent India, land reforms were considered as being essential in eradicating rural poverty (Ghosh, 2007:1). Indian reforms were grouped into four categories. These were tenancy reforms, which aimed to regulate tenancy contracts and/or transfer ownership to tenants; the abolition of intermediaries which sought to abolish the hierarchy of proprietary interests that existed between the State and the actual cultivator; ceilings on landholdings that allowed for surplus land to be redistributed to landless households; and land consolidation reforms that sought to consolidate disparate or fragmented land holdings.

In 1979, women from West Bengal, in India expressed their dissatisfaction with government's land redistribution programme that excluded women from getting titles as beneficiaries (Agarwal, 2002: 2). The challenge was that if their husbands were to evict them they would not have any form of economic security. Land has been described as being a wealth-creating possession and a life-sustaining asset (Agarwal, 2002: 2). According to Agarwal (2002: 2), in almost all developing countries large-scale surveys and agricultural census collect property-related information from households, without disaggregation by gender, except for Nepal where this is collected.

Surveys conducted in South Asia, as well as in India, depend on small-scale surveys and village studies to assess women's access to land. These surveys confirm that very few women own arable land – let alone have any control thereof. According to Mitchell (2011: 1), landlessness is a severely disempowering condition for the rural poor. The IFAD (2003) states that gender equality and women's empowerment as its objectives are critical instruments for poverty reduction. Millions of women in Asia, Africa and Latin America depend entirely on land for a livelihood.

In many countries men have moved to non-farm-work-related industries, whilst women have remained in agricultural jobs (Agarwal, 2002: 2) – with an estimated 86% of all rural female workers being in agriculture.

Agarwal (2002: 2) confirmed that women's domestic work burden, their inability to be mobile and poorer education, as well as fewer investable assets limit their exposure and entry into non-agricultural job opportunities. Self-employed women, unlike their self-employed male counterparts, are wageless workers on male-owned farms. This has had a negative impact on women's welfare, their efficiency, equality and empowerment.

Agarwal (1994, confirmed by Agarwal, 2002: 10 – 14) details the implications for women not having control over land they utilise and earning incomes from such, as follows:

- (i) On women's welfare: Land access has been confirmed to reduce a household's risk of poverty, but it has been realised that for several reasons land solely in men's hands need not guarantee female welfare. Land can provide women both direct and indirect benefits wherein direct benefits include growing crops, grazing animals and growing trees. On the other hand, indirect benefits can be in the form of using land as collateral for credit or as mortgageable or saleable assets for women.
- (ii) On efficiency: land rights can also enhance productive efficiency through incentives and the security of tenure. It is said that South Asian women have greater knowledge about traditional seeds and attributes of trees and grasses than their male counterparts. This information would be of better use for women than men. Tenure security, especially in the form of titles, can empower women to assert themselves better, with accessing support in the form of loans and other inputs.
- (iii) Equality and empowerment aspects: Equality is important on its own, because gender is a measure of just and progressive societies. Equality on land rights is a critical element in women's empowerment. Empowerment is defined as a process that enhances the ability of disadvantaged individuals or groups to challenge their existing power relations that place them in subordinate economic,

social and political positions (Agarwal 1994: 39, in Agarwal, 2002: 7). Entrusting women with land would empower them economically and strengthen their ability to have influence socially and politically in terms of gender inequalities.

Access to land in India is allocated in three main ways, which are: inheritance; State transfers and the market. Through inheritance, especially in India, it is not easy to identify data due to the lack of gender-disaggregated land ownership data (Agarwal, 2002: 10). A survey undertaken by Chen (2000 in Agarwal, 2002: 10) found that out of 470 women with fathers that were land owners, only 13% inherited any land as daughters.

Of the seven regions of India (four in Northern India and three in Southern India) each region or State has a different land-management system that suits the situation in that State. A study in Kerala in India has shown that social norms regarding women's work and women's needs to combine their household work with agricultural activities have led to enormous changes in agricultural practices (Cummings *et. al.*, 2001: 73). The writers further confirm that when men are engaged in paid employment locally, both men and women can make decisions regarding what happens on the farm. However, men are the primary decision-makers in most farms.

Experience gained by the Kerala study, explained in brief above, indicated that women's ability to function as independent farmers needs to be enhanced by policies that support them in gaining direct access to credit, production inputs, and information on agricultural practices, and which rectify the male-biased farming system (Cummings *et. al.*, 2001: 73). India's approach on the call for joint ownership of land can be related to South Africa's SLAG programme, which became a total failure with the exception of very minute areas where the programme still exists. It may be assumed that India's joint ownership land initiative provided a basis for the initial land-redistribution engagements in South Africa in the form of SLAG.

The fact that SLAG was not successful, however, did not stop South Africa from seeking alternative approaches. The introduction of LRAD, which had lesser numbers in group ownership of land, aimed to improve on the failures experienced in SLAG. The ultimate introduction of PLAS, as defined in Chapter 1, which promotes individual occupation of land, is a significant improvement in the Land Reform Policy. Growth in the Land Reform Policy towards ensuring sustainable development has been observed from 1994 right up to the present.

5.8.4 Other SADC countries' land experiences

Countries that were under the colonial rule have – in one way or another – delayed in getting their land policies in place. As the table below shows, land policies in these countries have neglected women as beneficiaries of land.

The establishment of rural land committees in Lesotho, which is also a trend in Tanzania, gives the local communities an opportunity to have a say on who gets land and who does not, in their jurisdiction.

Land ownership has been skewed for all in these countries; and the exclusion of women was an added burden with which the authorities have had to deal.

It is disturbing, yet true, that only about 10% of women in the region own land in their own right, and thus have the power to make decisions on how to utilise the resource (Crowley, 1999:).

Table 5.13 Land Policy Framework for some of the SADC countries

Mozambique	Lesotho	Namibia
<p>1995 Land Policy and 1997 Land Law; 1998 Regulations Land Policy Framework:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Customary or traditional rights are protected by law and 	<p>Land Act of 1979 (still in force):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Removed powers of traditional authorities and vested rights in 	<p>National Land Policy and the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act 6 of 1995:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Willing-seller, willing buyer principle in land reform acquisitions

<p>as such remain as they have been allocated by government from any interference</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identification and registration of customary land rights using co-titling or condominium titling • Definition and recognition of representatives of local communities in land administration • Recognition that women can be title holders • 50 year land use rights, renewable for same period; registration not obligatory for right holders under customary occupation • Foreigners able to hold land • Compulsory consultation with communities in deciding upon new investment • Individuals may obtain individualised title by delinking from community jurisdiction • Titles in urban/peri- 	<p>community-based institutions – land committees and village development councils</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allocation in rural areas is done by land committees chaired by local chiefs • Selected development areas established <p>Draft White Paper on National Land Policy, 2001.</p> <p>Proposals:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comprehensive National Land Code will be developed to reconcile customary and statutory law • Grants of land in freehold may be made in selected areas for specific purposes • Commitment to removal of all forms of gender discrimination in land dealings • Restrictions should be relaxed to enable foreigners to acquire title subject to approval • Statutes will be amended to allow for compulsory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Any commercial farmer wishing to sell land must first offer it for sale to government • State has right of first refusal • Non-Namibians are forbidden rights of ownership unless authorized by government • Creation of a Land Reform Advisory Commission • Expropriation of excessive land • Establishment of a Land Acquisition and Development Fund • Taxation of all commercial agricultural land • Affirmative Action Loan Scheme administered by Agricultural Bank to help disadvantage people buy land and livestock <p>Communal Land Reform Act:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establishment of Land Boards to administer land allocation and land disputes in
---	---	---

<p>urban areas allowed to be bought and sold</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Land use plan required for acquiring use rights; extinction of rights when plan is not implemented • Provisional authorization and later full title can serve as collateral • Identification and registration of community rights of way to ensure access to water and grazing • No transfer rights for agricultural land 	<p>acquisition of land for public purposes and payment of compensation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Certificates of rights to long-term occupiers on urban land to provide urban poor with secure tenure while avoiding costly title registration. <p>Land Redistribution</p> <p>Government will develop a range of options – taxation, enforcement of lease conditions, tightening payment of rent and use of powers to acquire land for public purposes to curb land hoarding and land speculation</p>	<p>respective areas</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leasehold tenure to individuals for renewable periods of 99 years, upgradable to freehold <p>Land Redistribution:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Land Acquisition: Government prefers to buy the best farms, thus must be selective • Two target groups of beneficiaries – the poor and successful farmers in communal areas • Redistribution of people onto commercial farms helps create space in communal areas for smaller farmers to grow and for entry-level farming.
---	--	---

Source: Adapted from SARPN: Land Reform and Poverty Alleviation in Southern Africa. www.sarpn.org.za/EventPapers/Land/eve. 12 November 2008

The above table depicts the land redistribution patterns in Namibia, Mozambique and Lesotho. These countries have made decisive Acts towards the sale of land. An example is the refusal to sell land to foreigners in Namibia.

Countries, such as Namibia have come up with systems such as market-led land reform: the Affirmative Action Loans Scheme, which provided has targeted subsidised credit to formerly racially disadvantaged groups to assist in buying farms from their white counterparts (Lodhi *et al.*, 2007: 291).

Most women landowners acquired land through the open market and communal land, but the percentages are very low. In South Africa, as illustrated through diagram 1.1 in Chapter One, statistics show that the majority of women have not benefited in the Land Reform Programme.

In Lesotho, according to the Land Act of 1979, the allocation of land in rural areas is done by land committees chaired by local chiefs, as opposed to some African countries, such as South Africa and Zambia, where the traditional authorities are the sole administrators of land and the allocation thereof on behalf of the Ministries of Lands. Malawi has taken a step towards allocating land to women; and if the woman gets married, the husband is expected to join the woman in her place of birth.

This practice is done to secure the land ownership rights of the woman's children – even when the mother is no longer alive. The involvement of local communities in decisions that affect their growth, as opposed to deciding for them, would enable them to own the processes and the consequences.

According to Lastarria-Cornhiel (1997); Mackenzie (1998:); and Gray & Kevane (2001:), women's land rights under customary systems vary considerably from place to place. The writers confirm that substantial differences exist between patrilineal and matrilineal societies, with women generally having stronger land rights under the latter. However, in most cases in Africa, rights in arable land are allocated by the lineage authority to the male head of the household; women have secondary, derived rights, obtained through their relationship with male family members (husbands, fathers, brothers or sons).

The Land Reform Policy is aimed at assisting the poor, labour tenants, farm workers, women – as well as emergent farmers (*WPSALP*, 1997: 29).

In rural areas, the number of women is more than for men, because men sometimes leave the rural areas for better job opportunities in the cities, and some die there, whilst some never come back, since they choose to resettle in the cities (they get other wives and remarry). The most questionable aspect was that formal employment of expectant women was prohibited because it was believed that their condition would prohibit maximum productivity.

On the other hand, the same women were expected to till the lands and provide food for their households in this same condition.

As a result of the gendered division of labour in the rural areas, women carry the main responsibility for much of the labour associated with food production; and again, because of the gendered division of labour, women are most burdened with other labour and energy-demanding responsibilities, such as wood and water collection, cooking and child care (Walker, 1998:16). The above-mentioned activities occupy most of the women's time in agricultural production, as these chores take a lot of energy from women.

The lack of a clear policy on land ownership by foreigners in South Africa is a matter of concern and should be finalised soon. The above cases are similar to the scenario in South Africa in terms of traditional power structures – with the exception of Mozambique. This calls for co-ordinated planning and co-operation on issues of commonality.

5.9 International trends in women's access to land for sustainable development

According to the International Fund for Agriculture and Development (IFAD, 1999), gender equality and women's empowerment are both objectives of, and instruments for, poverty reduction. In its operations, IFAD aims to expand indigenous women's access to and control over fundamental assets, such as land, capital, knowledge and technologies. A further aim is to strengthen women's agency or their decision-making role in community affairs and representation in local institutions (IFAD, 1999).

Access to land and security of tenure are crucial in achieving the objectives of poverty reduction, sustainable livelihood security and the valorisation of indigenous cultural value systems (IFAD, 1999).

Women, as the providers of food for their families, should have guaranteed access to other natural resources, such as water, fuel wood, and other products. Land, as a resource, is critical for poverty alleviation and also crucial for food security and income, particularly as land becomes increasingly scarce and access becomes an equal challenge for women and men alike.

According to Crowley (1998:9), women own only about 2% of all land. Land ownership is a matter of concern even for the United Nations Economic and Social Council Commission on the Status of Women. They state that those who insist that "land rights discrimination is a violation of human rights" and urges States "to design and revise laws to ensure that women are accorded full and equal rights to own land and other property.

In the Southern African Development Community (SADC), the challenge in the lack of access to land adds to the precarious situation of economies and families already too careworn to cope with such challenges as HIV and AIDS, political unrest, lack of access to basic services, and gender inequalities. The situation is such that events and strategies for improvement are hampered by similarities in the other African countries (circumstances are almost similar; so are the rules guiding these).

Crowley (1998: 9) estimates that about 14 million people across SADC are in need of food aid; this is worsened by the latest food price crises recorded during 2008/09. It is not surprising that as many as 60% of the most vulnerable are women, and these are the food providers and producers.

Despite the importance of agriculture as the backbone of the regional economy, and the fact that about 80% of the inhabitants depend on agriculture for food income and employment, the region does not have a binding instrument on food production. The FAO (2006:8) has confirmed that there are 820 million chronically hungry people in developing countries, and one in four of these lives in sub-Saharan Africa. UNICEF has also released shocking statistics that one out of five children in Malawi, Mozambique and Zambia is underweight, and the proportion of underweight children in Lesotho and Zimbabwe was higher in 2004 than in 1990.

UNICEF has further published that the number of malnourished people stood at 38% of the total SADC population in 1990 to 1992, and this has increased to 42% during the period 1997 to 1999.

The situation of food security has not changed, as during the 2005/6 agricultural season when four countries in the region experienced harvest decreases in the range of 29% - 75%. There is a concerning observation of outside assistance in the international land initiatives. All the countries above have a common denominator that international assistance had to provide for them to realise their lack in policies that address women's challenges and support for land access.

This highlights the international support through FAO, IFAD, and the World Bank which provides single-sided information in terms of what these organisations supplied and very little to no information on what the specific country initiated.

The proven lack of access to land by women, as indicated in the international examples used herein show that a lot of work still needs to be undertaken towards empowering women. The international cases continuously confirm that access to land for women ensures food security for all; yet, there is no legislation that seeks to satisfy this need. Hindrances that exist in the lack of women's land access are legally accepted and part of the countries' culture. South Africa, on the other hand, has made some strides – especially with the introduction of legislative guidelines that seek to ensure the inclusion of women.

The challenge is the lack of clear and enforceable mechanisms in realising that women are afforded the opportunity to access land for sustainable development. There are lessons that the international countries can learn from the South African perspective, besides the delays in the support for access to land; and the non-inclusion of women.

5.10 Conclusion

In contrast to what the *WPSALP*, 1997 has cited as its aim to empower women and ensuring that women are prioritised in accessing land, the opposite has occurred, as indicated in diagram 5.10. The diagram shows that there is progress towards enabling women's access to land, the figures still indicate that fewer women have accessed land in relation to the total number of beneficiaries. The five selected cases are unique in terms of acquisition and performance as land-related projects for agricultural production. One SLAG case was selected and two cases from LRAD and two from PLAS. SLAG has been discontinued; hence, the selection of only one case. PLAS is the currently applicable programme, since LRAD has been halted.

There is a significant amount of success in terms of women being able to sustain themselves and their families from the cases selected above. Of importance, is the ability for women to produce on the farms even before support from government has been provided. In all the cases cited, all projects were supported a year or even longer after the year of settlement. The level of commitment shows that if government support came immediately after transfer, increased production could have been realised. The observation is that productivity occurred even with the late support; and to date, the projects are still in existence and supporting the beneficiaries. This is an indication of sustainable development having occurred.

Countries that have been used as examples of other African, Asian and South American continents are an indication that women are faced with more challenges than their male counterparts. The reality is the situation, as seen in the international cases above. This

situation warrants further attention than mere comparisons of men's and women's constraints. Furthermore, elevating the disparities that have occurred and continue to occur between men and women deserves to be placed at a policy level if any success is to be realised.

The above matter calls for aggressive and focused policy reviews to deal with the challenges faced by women. Women's challenges, therefore, call for stronger interventions towards ensuring that women are treated better and more focused programmes are put in place to empower them.

The importance and relevance of the lessons learned in other countries that have had similar experiences in addressing land-reform-related policies vary from one country to the other. Important differences exist in the manner in which countries have dealt with policy issues, but there have been similarities in the manner in which the land aspect and its benefits to women have been handled by these countries. The lack of success in dealing with land aspects in the separate countries leaves challenges and a few lessons for South Africa, which has less than 15 years since its inception of land redistribution. The following chapter proposes a model that looks into the level of government support through policies towards land access, land use and land benefits.

CHAPTER 6

A SYSTEMS MODEL FOR WOMEN'S SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT THROUGH LAND REFORM

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the different land reform cases and how production aspects – as a result of land reform – played a role in women's sustainable development. Challenges that women face in accessing land, utilising land and sustaining themselves have been dealt with in relation to the government's policies and women's efforts. The different legislative prescriptions that support land reform have been discussed in relation to their applicability to the study.

Chapter six highlights the systems approach for women's sustainable development through land reform. Land ownership policies have played a central role in people's development in South Africa, Zimbabwe and other African countries such as Zambia, Malawi, Namibia and Mozambique, to name a few, as early as the 1950s. Land usage tends to contribute to better livelihoods, improved economic development and environmental sustainability.

Land ownership and the usage thereof is often seen as a way of providing the basic needs for a household.

Chapter Six proposes the systems model, specifying the necessary inputs that are processed and the resultant outcome. The proposed systems model becomes applicable in this study because the discussions have up to now emphasised the point that land reform is a system of government, which has been proposed to allow equitable access to land. The sections that follow provide clarity on the systems model, as a proposed model for this study.

6.2 The systems approach defined

The systems approach is one of the approaches to organisation theory. The organisation theory deals with specific organisational dimensions. Vasu *et al.* (1998: 26) stated that organisation theory deals with dimensions, such as organisation design, which is the formal structure, internal functioning of the organisation and the external environment. According to the Free Management Library (2010), a system is an organised collection of parts (or sub-systems) that is highly integrated to accomplish an overall goal. Robbins (1987) in Roux *et al.* (1997:28) and Vasu *et al.* (1998: 45) define a system as a set of interrelated and interdependent parts arranged in a manner that produces a unified whole.

There is a visible interconnectedness and interdependence between the sub-systems or parts of a system (Symphony Orchestra Institute, 2010). A system is the grouping together of functionally related parts that are conceptually separated from their environment – in order to achieve a unified whole (McKinney & Howard, 1998: 156). All systems require a feedback mechanism, known as the feedback loop, which cautions the system on how effectively it is performing (Vasu *et al.*, 1998: 45).

The Systems Approach, which is said to have been based on the Decision-making Approach puts the emphasis on the process and description of organisational reality. According to Jones and Street (1990: 61), any analytical or management approach which attempts to accommodate the basic notions of general systems theory might be termed a systems approach. The systems approach builds on the principle that organisations are *open* to their environment and should strive for an appropriate relation with their environment for sustenance (Morgan, 1997: 39).

In this approach, an understanding of how existing structures function is critical, as opposed to organisational efficiency, productivity and rationality. Within the systems approach, organisations are conceptualised using the model of the system. Senge (1990 in Vasu *et al.*, 1998: 45) defines a model as a representation of a phenomenon that helps with understanding reality in a more comprehensive way.

The section above discussed the systems approach and other approaches to organisational theory. The open systems model, as a representation of the systems phenomenon, is outlined in the following section.

6.3 The open systems model

Open systems acknowledge the existence of environmental inputs into their existence, in this case: the need for land, and the outputs that are produced. External clients and forces become important for the process to continue. Easton (1990: 118) stated that a system represents a kind of dynamic coherence among the parts that generates special properties, such as feedback. This makes it possible for a system to adapt and regulate itself for a goal-oriented change.

Living systems have integrity and their character depends on the whole or entirety (Senge, 1990:66). According to Edwards III (1978: 87), to decide on the best means to a given end, policy-makers must have a clear notion of the end they desire to achieve. The question to government departments is whether the role they play as government departments in the policy process and the realisation of this goal actually lead to women's sustainable development.

The central ideas regarding the characteristics and behaviour of systems include the notion that systems contain components which interact with each other, and such interaction is a determinant of the system's behaviour (Jones & Street, 1990: 61). The nature of a human life can be associated with such a system; and added to that, would be the opportunities and the resources provided to support life. A goal is usually set at the beginning of a period, followed by plans and policies to realise such a goal. The plans, processes and resources are allocated to achieve the set goal. Implementation of a government programme, such as land reform, would be representative of the systems approach. People's needs for land, staff, budget and documents all become part of the inputs, with the departments concerned forming part of the system; and the urgency to deliver then becomes the output.

The measurable output is constituted by the activities of the employees and the observable results of the activities constitute the outcome. The outcome, in this case, would be the benefits earned from the use of such land and the ultimate income and sustainable improved conditions of life.

The system consists of various inputs, which go through specific processes to produce certain outputs. These together, accomplish the overall desired goal of the system. Within a system, items influence one another for the benefit of the whole; hence, the notion of systems thinking. Systems' thinking is defined as the process of understanding how things influence one another within a whole (Wikipedia, 2011). Senge (1990:12) relates to systems thinking as making it possible to understand the subtlest aspect of a learning organisation, and as the new way in which individuals perceive themselves and their world.

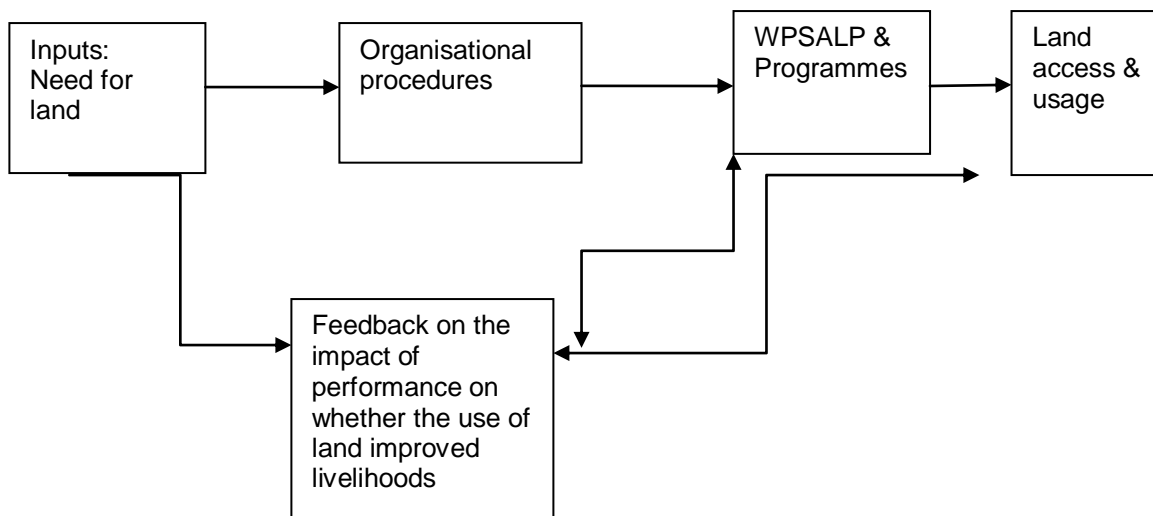
This is a correct assumption, because the State itself is constituted, amongst other things, by the people that exist in it. Senge (1990:6) associated the formation of rain with the system's thinking, because as soon as clouds form and darken the sky everyone expects rain; and it is only after the rain has fallen, that the clouds clear and it is hoped that a clear sky will be seen.

The components of the systems model are inputs, conversion processes and outputs (Vasu, *et al.*1998:45). According to Denhardt (2008: 83); Vasu *et al.* (1998:45) and Morgan (1997: 39) systems can be considered as either open systems or closed systems. These authors define open systems as dynamic, exchanging information, energy or other material with their environments. Open systems are capable of self-maintenance – on the basis of a throughput of resources from the environment (Scott, 1998: 89). There exists a direct influence between the open systems and their environment. Open systems receive various inputs from their environment and these are transformed within the organisation and then translated into outputs.

Open systems operate in a dynamic interactive way with their environment (McKinney & Howard, 1998: 157).

Morcol (2007: 195) describes complex systems as open systems, because there are loops in the interactions. Complex systems are also regarded as having a hierarchical feature in the form of levels, not as status and power (Scott, 1998:91). Diagram 6.1 show an example of an open system, which is said to maintain itself – to prevent the loss of the required flow of energy.

Diagram 6.1: Open systems



Adapted from McKinney and Howard, 1998. Public Administration: Balancing Power and Accountability: Second Edition. London: Preager Publishers

Diagram 6.1 above illustrates the importance of the input and output received from the input, as well as feedback on the total process. Received feedback is indicative of the fact that there is interaction between the different parts of the unit. As a result of the received feedback, it is possible to improve on processes and increase the level of output.

The level of land usage determines the amount of land that should be redistributed continuously; lack of land use, on the other hand, will determine whether redistribution should continue or not continue.

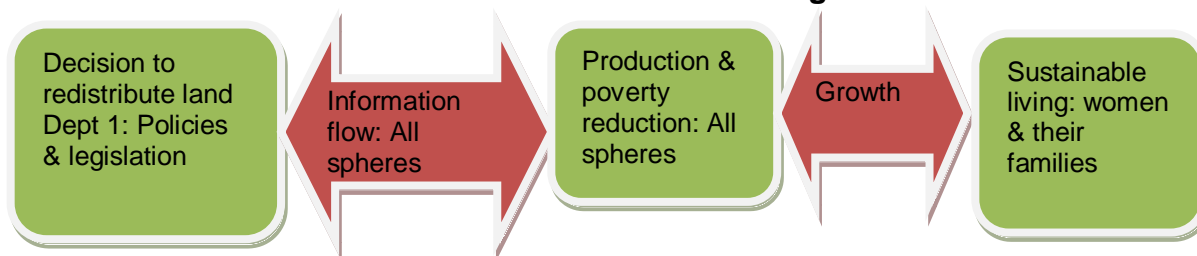
As indicated earlier, a system is usually made up of many smaller systems, or sub-systems (Free Management Dictionary, 2010).

An example is an organisation which is usually made up of many administrative units – with, management functions, products, services, groups and individuals. Systems interact with their environment and have a direct impact on the environment. The reverse happens when an environment hosts the system and has a direct impact on the system; hence, there is a need for the feedback loop. If one part of the system is changed, the nature of the overall system is often changed.

The Symphony Orchestra Institute (2010) defines an open system as any distinct entity that takes in resources from its environment, processes them in some way, and produces an output. The open system depends on its environment, and on interactions between the parts that make it up – also known as sub-systems – as mentioned in the previous paragraph. In an open-systems approach, there is a need to look both within and outside the environment.

Relationships that occur between the sub-systems internally are as important as those that occur outside the environment. It is crucial to recognise feedback signals received from the environment for the effective performance of the system. Systems are composed of multiple sub-systems and have a common character of interdependence and connectedness (Scott, 1998:91). The diagram below illustrates the process flow within decision-making as a sub-system within a complex system.

Diagram 6.2: Process flow in terms of the decision-making institution and contributions from other institutions for the same goal



Adapted from Botes, P.S., Brynard, P.A., Fourie, D.J & Roux, N.L. 1992. *Public Administration and Management: A guide to Central, Regional and Municipal Administration and Management*. Pretoria: Kagiso Tertiary.

Diagram 6.2 depicts a process flow in which the demand department (in this case DRDLR) has been used as an example. The decision to redistribute land is informed by the level of success in the use of such acquired land; and hence, sustainability. It becomes a logical sense to redistribute more land if the already redistributed land is utilised effectively and has the ability to ensure food security for the beneficiaries. On the contrary if less success is realised even after land transfers decisions to proceed with redistributing land become less.

6.4 The proposed systems model for women's sustainable development through land reform

The systems model has been confirmed to be either an open system or a closed system. Within land reform, the open system is more applicable due to its nature of experiencing negative entropy. The limited use of land as a production resource results in decreased food production and subsequent poverty. Inputs received within the land reform open system are inclusive of contributions received from support organisations. Such support organisations would be government through its departments and political directives, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), research and learning institutions, such as the Agricultural Research Council (ARC) and the Grootfontein Agricultural Development Institute (GADI) which are the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF), State-Owned Entities, beneficiaries and community-based organisations (CBOs).

The process of conversion happens, based on the type of input; and the output is then realised. Within the land reform process, there is a need for the sustainable use of land. The sustainable use of acquired land becomes the ultimate outcome of the whole systems process. According to Vasu *et al.* (1998:49), in bureaucratic agencies, such as in the case of the DRDLR, the main aspects that influence the way public managers perform are outputs and outcomes.

Outputs are questioned when the activities of employees can be observed and if the results of such outputs can be felt. Changes that can be felt in the long term and become the reason for the agency's existence are the outcomes.

In the case of land reform, land transfers are the outputs, but the effect of such transfers, which is the sustainable use of land, becomes the outcome.

As opposed to the private sector, the public sector or government realises their fulfillment by knowing that the public is satisfied; and the effectiveness of programmes is subjective. In the private sector returns on investment determine the success of the business.

The tables below show the type of government and non-government inputs, conversion processes, output and outcome that are ideal in the success of land reform. The private sector tends to integrate financial planning into their strategic plans, and based on their income expectations, however, towards partnership creations some of the financial assistance is derived from the public sector, which is government (McKinney & Howard, 1998: 64).

Table 6.1: Government based inputs towards the systems model for land reform

Entity	Inputs	Conversion process	Output	Outcome
Politics	Political	Campaign	Elections	Law and order (governance)
Government	Legislation: WPSALP, the Constitution	Programme: Redistribution; Tenure Reform	Projects: Cases production	Better life: Improved income sustainable income
	Financial: Budget vote	Purchase of farms	Number of hectares transferred and utilised	Ownership; Production; job creation; Income
	Administrative capacity: Human Resources	Dedicated staff Training, ongoing monitoring and evaluation	Support in the form of training, infrastructure, marketing, production finance, technical support and information.	Service delivery

In Table 6.1 above, government based inputs emanate from political pronouncements and are translated into policies. The policies are further converted to programmes, which become outputs in the form of the actual projects (stated as cases in Chapter

Five). The cases realise a better life for the beneficiaries. In this thesis the five selected cases have indicated that women put efforts towards their use of land and hence they are able to sustain themselves and their families. Government inputs have been categorised into legislative, financial and administrative inputs. Chapter One detailed the reasons and the need for equitable access to land by all – as well as the constraints that led to a lack of access to land. The skewed land redistribution called for need to announce the necessity to redistribute land. This was followed by the development of the WPSALP (1997) and other related policies. The policy was later simplified into the different Land Reform Programmes, which aimed to realise the projects (cases as used in this study).

The process of land redistribution would not be possible without the allocation of resources, such as finances and people. In an open system, inputs are constantly received from the environment which ensures that the process remains permanently active.

Besides government inputs there are non-governmental inputs, as indicated in Table 6.2. These include efforts from NGOs and the beneficiaries through their sweat equity, accounted for by the individual’s daily engagement in the activity that is undertaken.

Table 6.2: Non-Government-based inputs towards the systems model for land reform

Entity	Input	Conversion	Output	Outcome
NGOs / CBOs	Awareness creation	Advocacy Advisory Training	Representation Transformation	Equitable access to resources
Beneficiaries	Applications; commitment;	Land acquisition and utilisation	Hectares of land under production	Food security, empowerment, independence and skills development

Table 6.2 above depicts non–governmental related inputs from NGOs / CBOs and beneficiaries. Commonly, inputs made by the NGOs and beneficiaries are not tangible

(finances or staff) in terms of people's benefits. NGOs contribute their time towards ensuring that their client's needs are met.

Beneficiaries contribute with sweat equity on the land, and it is through their commitment (as discussed in Chapter Five) that success is realised.

There are additional inputs that are associated with production, such as fertilisers, seeds and chemicals that will enhance the productivity of land. These inputs become part of the conversion and output processes and are added and tilled into the soils, subsequently increasing the level of yield. The manner in which these inputs are utilised impacts on the environment either positively or negatively. The negative impact on the environment is as a result of excess fertilisers in the soil that end up polluting the soil and degrading the soil in terms of its productivity.

Sustainability has been explained as involving the optimisation of the economic, environmental and social elements (Bowler, 1996:16). The elements of sustainability involve strengthening political commitment, diversifying the sources of income and reforming institutions – for promoting widely shared growth and the adoption of environmentally sound technologies (NEPAD, 2003: 63).

Economic and social factors are human-related constructions; here, societal cultural aspects become important. These concerns are closely linked to acceptable conduct within society. The environmental aspects are related to nature; and there are hardly any negotiable requirements for realising its sustainability. There is a relationship between the political commitment, economic development, sociological behaviour, technological adaptation, legal aspects and the environment.

The above aspects come together within the environment, and they play a critical role in harmonising or destabilising the environment within which they occur.

6.4.1 Political aspects for women's sustainable development in land reform

According to the *WPSALP* (1997:5), land use and ownership have been critical in shaping the political, economic and social processes in South Africa.

Past land policies were the cause for insecurity of tenure, landlessness, homelessness and poverty in South Africa (*WPSALP*, 1997:5).

The current government realises poverty alleviation as one of the key priority areas that must be tackled. The original causes of poverty were brought about by the government of the time; and it is the government of today that has to reverse the same challenges.

The RDP (1994:21) confirms that support services and training at all levels must be provided to ensure that the allocated land will be utilised effectively. Section 25 of the *Constitution* (1996) confirms the right to property for all South Africans. Land became critical for the realisation of poverty reduction; and poverty is considered a basic problem in people's survival. Land must be suitably located geologically and environmentally with regard to economic opportunities and social facilities (RDP, 1994:24).

The traditional theorists, inclusive of Woodrow Wilson (1887:210), had a hostile view of political involvement in the management of public processes (Thomas, 1995: 16). These theorists believed that every effort had to be made to protect public administration from political interference. The form that these beliefs took was that of a politics-administration dichotomy. Goodnow (1900: 26) in Thomas, (1995: 16) explained the distinction between politics and administration as politics being related to policies, which can also be expressed as the will of the State. On the other hand, administration is related to the actual execution of these policies. According to these theorists, politics was seen as an arena for public involvement and public say, whereas administration was supposed to be left for the professional administrators without any public involvement.

The inequitable distribution of land in South Africa emanates from historical actions that were politically related. According to Davids (2005:1), the public voice reminds leaders at national, provincial and local spheres that they do not only lead; but, they also serve the public.

There is a difficulty, therefore, in separating political rulings from economic successes, because a positive economic success is indicative of a successful political ruling.

The process of administration was considered highly technical and immune to any public inputs, as well as any political influence. In this politics-administration dichotomy the formulated policies would flow down from the elected policy-makers through to the public administrators and end up with the public. The process was only top-down, and it did not allow for inputs upwards or any feedback in the reverse direction. Levi-Faur and Vigoda-Gadot (2006: 249) argue that the way public policy is formulated, expressed and implemented is reshaped by cross-cultural and cross-national policy transfers and diffusion. Even though these paradigms are not new, they have an effect on the ways in which public policy is shaped, consolidated and implemented.

Policy transfer is prevalent amongst political scientists, and is more oriented towards case analysis, whereas policy diffusion is prevalent amongst sociologists, and enjoys a rich tradition of quantitative research (Levi-Faur & Vigoda-Gadot, 2006: 249). Policy-makers use specific styles of working to handle the overwhelming amount of issues or problems posed to them by the political agenda (Van Thiel, 2006: 117). One can imagine if the order from the political agenda is too tall what happens to the rest of the processes in achieving good results from such policies.

Land reform was a priority, as far back as 1994, and it is still a priority to date. The prioritisation of the policy allows for resource allocation in the implementation of such policies. In Chapter Five, the observation was made that support in the form of funding for production was delayed, which led to the lower production challenges that most of the women in the cases had experienced.

Sustainable development allows for circular feedback between what goes in, in the form of an input and what comes out. The economic aspect, as one of the aspects of sustainable development is discussed in the following section.

The systems model is equally typical of what happens within sustainable development as far as sustainable development factors are concerned.

What goes into the environment, as a result of human social activities in their endeavor to improve economic growth determines the safety and shelf life for that environment in providing the same resources for the future.

The quality of what occurs to the environment determines the long-term usage of such an environment; there is a constant feedback seen through the environmental reaction. This, therefore, calls for the following recommendations:

Recommendation 1: Awareness creation is essential in the effective and efficient use of the resources in relation to their environment. The use of natural resources determines their ability to sustain both current and future generations from the outputs realised.

There is a possibility of utilising land exhaustively for immediate survival if proper support and guidance in the use of the acquired land is not provided on time.

Based on the critical need for government intervention on the land and its use, it is further recommended that:

Recommendation 2: Government, as the supporter of the public needs, should ensure that the current policies are implemented and appropriately supported. The urgency to redress inequitable land ownership has led to an oversight on some of the phases necessary to promote independence amongst women as beneficiaries of land; hence, the assumption and observation that government is obliged to support women as beneficiaries of land throughout the stages of land allocation.

This therefore calls for:

Recommendation 3: There is an obvious need to develop a plan of action for the access to land and to support it with a clear programme that includes an exit strategy. It has been observed that the lack of co-ordinated support to women through land reform has left other critical support steps, such as proposals on how long a government

department should support one beneficiary, as well as a clear exit strategy after the support of beneficiaries.

6.4.2 Economic aspects for women's sustainable development through land reform

As discussed in Chapter Four, economic aspects are regarded as that which makes the agricultural performance of women's activities on land realise their reason for living on land. A relationship further exists between the economic growth and the social aspects. Where a positive economic growth thrives, there is development in the lives and status of the communities; and, consequently, there is social cohesion. Hitchcock and Willard (2006: 16) define a healthy economy as including the following:

- (i) multiple buyers and sellers;
- (ii) timely and accurate information;
- (iii) accounting standards and enforcement;
- (iv) absence of governmental corruption;
- (v) markets for financing development (stock markets, bond markets and banks); and
- (vi) absence of deflation or high inflation.

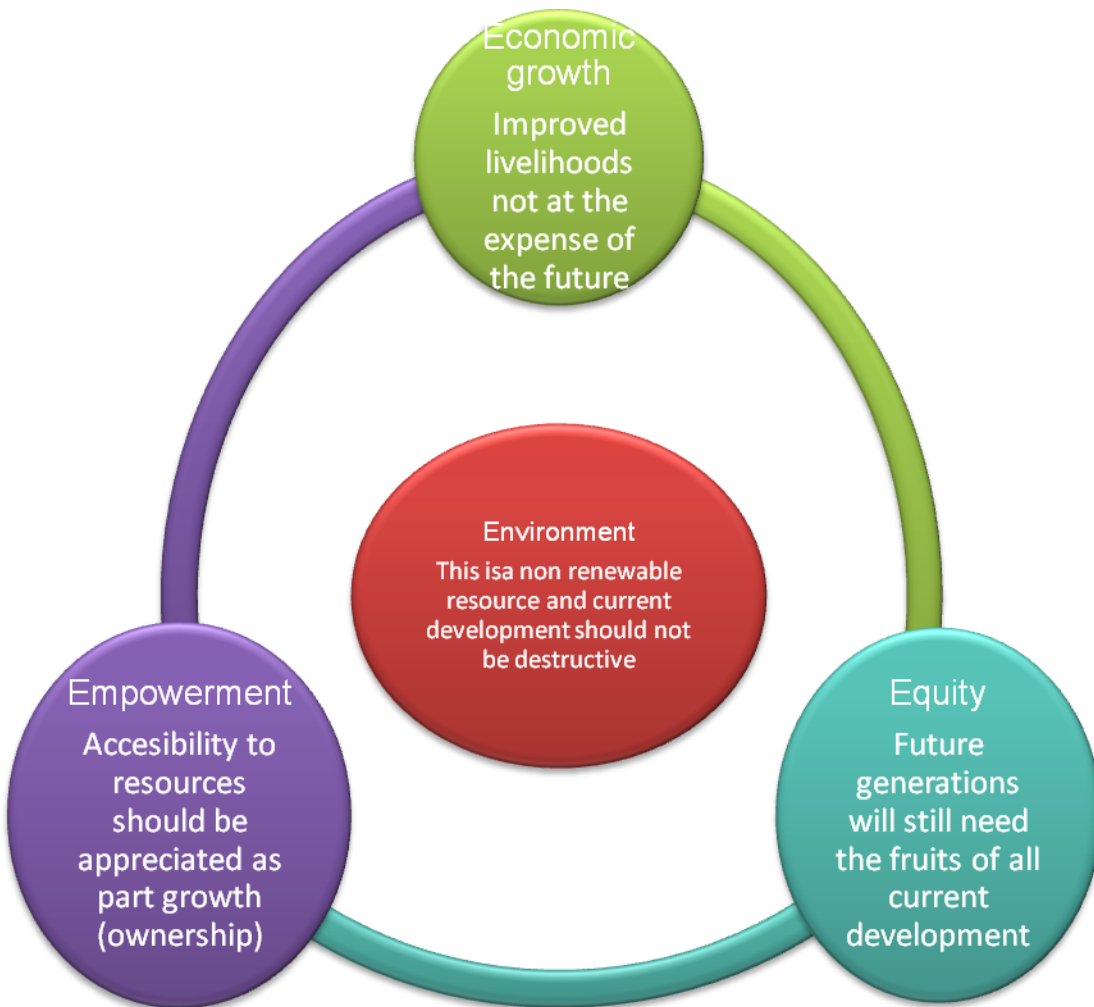
The main focus of the study has been defined as looking at challenges that women face in terms of benefiting from the Land Reform Policy for their economic growth, equity, empowerment and environmental growth in sustainable development.

Women's empowerment for economic growth, equity and environmental development aimed at their sustainable development has proven to be an all-inclusive and challenging process.

Recommendation 4: Observations made on LRAD and PLAS farms as highlighted earlier in section 5.7 of Chapter Five indicate levels of success in the farming operations due to lesser numbers (in these cases beneficiaries were family members). This calls for more focus on supporting family farms for success.

It can be a concern for government as a public entity to support a single family, instead of a community, but if more jobs are created and more families are food secure, the route towards supporting individual families is the best. The following Diagram 6.4 illustrates that the processes are closely related to the environment within which they occur.

Diagram 6.5: Outcomes of development



Adapted from Cloete, F. and Mokgoro, J. 1995. Policies for Public Service Transformation, Kenwyn: Juta & Co, Ltd.

Diagram 6.5 above is an illustration of how important the environment is within which activities that lead to growth and sustainability occur. In the centre of the diagram is the environment; and the current generation's empowerment and economic growth depend on it. The same environment is expected to provide for the needs of the future generations in the same way to meet their growth and development needs.

Land is not different; what happens to it currently will determine what output it will provide for the future.

According to Bowler (1996: 10), the structure of the economy is never stable for a long period. The credit crunch during 2008/09 is an example showing that the economy never stabilises. Communities in a country strive for improved economic growth, but the result is that the strained environment is not able to continue from generation to generation. The result of such a credit crunch was an increase in the input costs for land users and a resultant decline in the overall production and sales due to fewer buyers. The price increase challenges were different for these women as evident from the cases women operating under such difficult economic conditions were still able to increase their production because of their commitment to the production process.

When prices fall in the market, land becomes abandoned at the expense of production. The case of Zimbabwe as mentioned in 5.8.2 of Chapter Five is a crisis scenario, wherein even though land is availed it cannot be put to good use because of the decline in the economy of a country. The trend in South Africa is that due to neglected land activities, land owners put it up for sale, with the result that government procures it and settles people. The newly settled farmers face the same immediate challenges that their predecessor faced. The lack of success from land-use related activities leads to further neglect of the land and in some cases repossession of such properties due to the non-repayment of loans. The economic dimension within a system is reflected in the value of the output, in that the better the output, the higher the investment costs from the markets (Barnett *et al.*, 1995: 7).

If the output has a lower value, increased costs are experienced in the form of increased inputs costs; and this leads to a possible system's failure. In the case of land reform, as shown in Chapter Five, women producers will not be able to meet their market targets if they are faced with high input costs.

6.4.3 Social aspects for women's sustainable development through land reform

Societal aspects are dependent on the culture of the society (Hitchcock & Willard, 2006: 17). The universal basic human needs which cannot be substituted are as follows, according to Hitchcock and Willard (2006:17):

- (i) the subsistence need, as well as the protection and security needs;
- (ii) the desire for affection and understanding;
- (iii) participation in activities that affect women;
- (iv) the ability to be creative and have identity and meaning; and
- (v) freedom of speech or association.

Women are affected by all the above needs more than men, because of their presence within their communities. It is in the latter years with the introduction of the Acts, such as the *Employment Equity Act, 1998 (Act 55 of 1998)* that the acceptance and support for women has been prioritised. Land was associated with livestock ownership and livestock owners were mainly men. Livestock ownership was, however, not associated with food security which is taken to be women's responsibility.

The success of the social aspects is reflected in the capacity of the system to adequately support farming communities and related institutions, such as markets (Barnett *et al.*, 1995:7). Lack of secure tenure, poor policies and changing social conditions are some of the social factors that lead to non-sustainable agricultural systems (Barnett *et al.*, 1995:7).

Recommendation 5: The inclusion of women in the land reform process has been assumed to be in the form of recipients, and not as contributors. There is an urgent need to consider women as contributors to the success of land reform.

The concept used in the economic inputs of women in land reform's sustainable development has resulted in real success for women. Elements that have contributed to women's commitment were: Presence on the farm with management capability and the ability to take decisions together made up commitment.

Where:

- Presence on the farm = PF
- Management capability = MC
- Ability to take decisions = AD
- Commitment = C.
- The knowledge of participants which = KP
- The success of participants = SP

Women's contributing factors, such as Commitment, Knowledge of Participants and Success of Participants make up the Women's Economic Input (WEI). The economic input should be looked into with the Women's Social Input (WSI), Women's Cultural Inputs (WCI) and Women's Environmental Inputs (WEI). The above should be used as a guideline to inform policy on what women and other beneficiaries should contribute to the success of land reform.

It is hoped that studies such as these will strengthen women's participation and improve their access to resources, including land.

6.5.4 Technological aspects for women's sustainable development through land reform

The introduction of technology in farming has improved efficiency in farming in terms of yield, time spent in production and time spent on hard labour. The introduction of mechanisation has improved agricultural production by increasing crop and livestock yields, reducing the labour force, and thus producing a higher output per worker, per hectare of land and per unit capital invested (Bowler, 1996: 14).

Technology is an important input in realising good outputs, especially in the short term, such as in the agricultural sector where production is highly seasonal. Examples include shorter maize varieties, increasing milk production yields in dairy cow breeds due to more efficient feed conversion ratios, disease-resistant potatoes, dwarf root-stock in apple and pear trees (Bowler, 1996:16).

It has been observed that some of these technological improvements have had controversial health implications for humans such as the use of quick release fertilizers which will shorten the growth span of a crop but have harmful effects to people's health.

Acceptance of these technologies might be beneficial to women as producers in the short term, due to the quick results earned, but the long-term effects on the consumers might be detrimental due to the high amount of chemicals used to modify the level of production.

Some of the technological improvements are in communication aimed at improving the amount of time spent on farms for production. Women, like all farmers need to spend sufficient time on the land for them to be successful. The time spent on the farm should not, however, compromise women's access to information. Methods that can improve women's lives in terms of government bureaucracy are essential. Such methods, however, should not deny them the necessary time to work on the farm.

Recommendation 6: There is a need to implement the National Land Summit resolutions which are stated in Section 3.4 of Chapter Three of this document. These encourage partnerships and co-operation in realising delayed land reform targets and the necessity for co-ordinated efforts in achieving the land reform targets.

The cases used in the study have revealed that women have been able to overcome poverty – as a result of their access to land. Women are discriminated against by tribal authorities, colonial and apartheid rulings and the family law of inheritance. The discrimination that faces women, as a result of social practices – both inside and

outside the household – has not affected women’s performance on the land. Legislation such as the *Constitution* (1996) has been instrumental in removing some of the legal restrictions that were intended to impede women’s access to land and the financial services needed to develop it.

The fact that Land Reform Policy implementation has contributed to the success of women as users of land paints a different picture from the doubt that the State has in terms of further redistributing land to the HDIs. The business sense and commitment observed from women has contributed to their success, regardless of the late support that was received from government. One of the cases used was led by a widow, yet the case is one of the most successful in sustaining the beneficiaries.

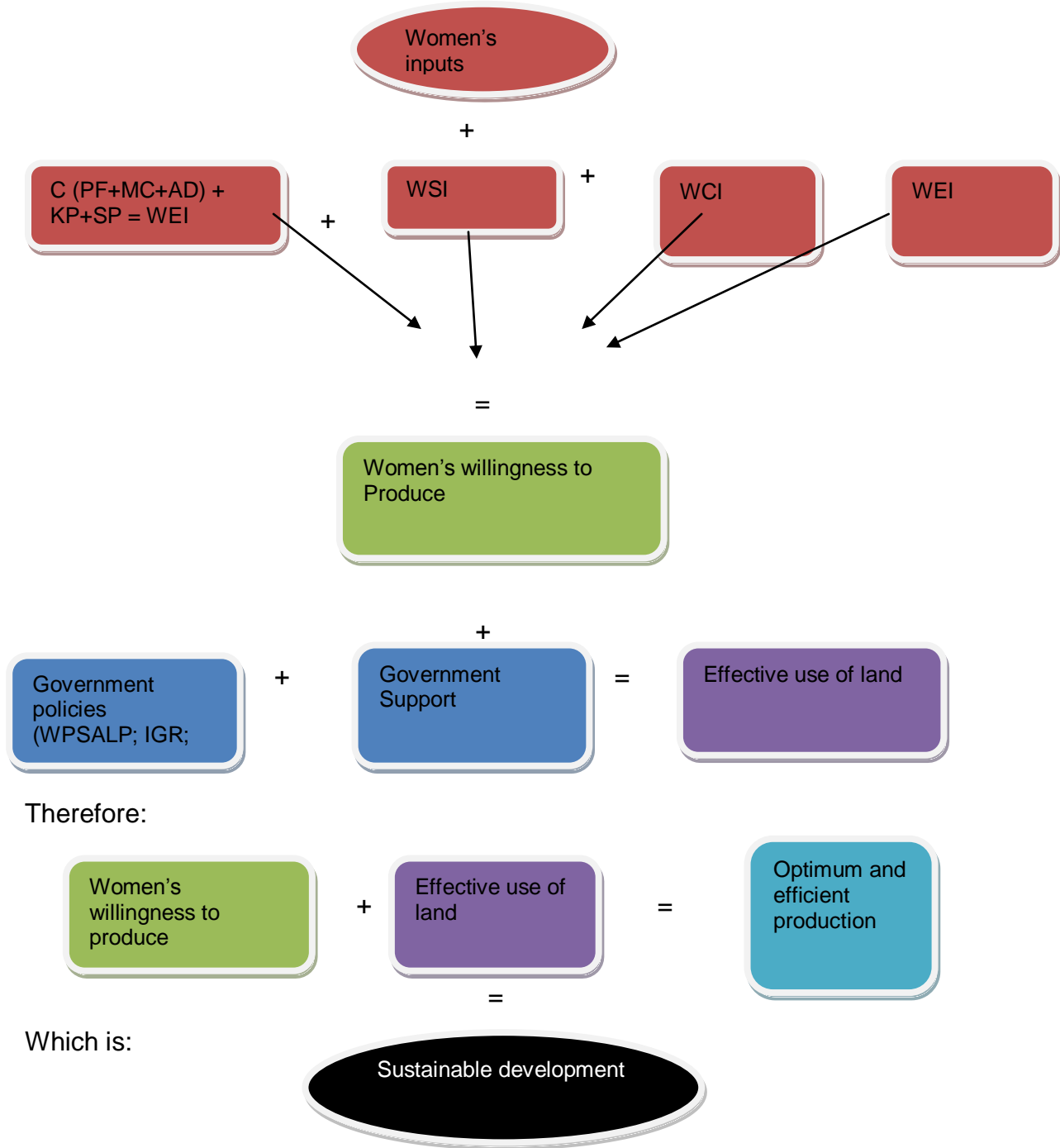
Women have not accessed land in large numbers, as is indicated in Figures 1.1, but the few that have accessed land have utilised it to their benefit and to the benefit of their employees. The argument has been that there has been little assessment of land reform on gender relations between women and men in households and communities, especially in terms of finding out who controls the land and resources, as well as the income derived from the use of land.

The study has revealed that women are successfully in control of land, and are fully responsible for its use.

Diagram 6.5 illustrates the results of women’s inputs and government policy as inputs of a land-reform systems model; the processes, in the form of women’s activities on farms, and government support and the outcome – which is in the form of production and women’s livelihoods.

The impact of the whole process becomes sustainable development in which resources and people are in harmony.

Diagram 6.6: Sustainable development as a result of joint government and people's efforts within the context of the land-reform systems model.



The above diagram is an illustration of the fact that combined efforts from both women and government will realise good results in the sustainable use of land and sustainable development.

Policies that are targeting women's empowerment have assumed that women are somehow handicapped, and they need to be saved from their situation. This study has indicated that women's inputs in their development have actually assisted in ensuring sustainability.

Policy formulation, therefore, has to take cognisance of the fact that the beneficiaries of such a policy play a critical role in its success.

6.7 Conclusion

The discussion above has shown that human sciences, as opposed to the natural sciences are vastly different. In natural science, laboratory tests are conducted and normally results are predictable, whereas the results of the human sciences are quite unpredictable. In an engagement with humans, as in Public Administration, it is not easy to know what results will be found, as opposed to the natural sciences which is tested to prove facts that had already been anticipated. There is a further relationship between natural sciences and human sciences in terms of their use of resources for their existence. The natural sciences, however, are more on the experimental side than on human science. In this study, land use for sustainable development has been analysed in terms of the policy that guides its distribution; and the use of such land is in terms of sustaining the women's livelihoods.

The common resource in this study is land. Land benefits for women's sustainable living depend on their ability to utilise the land in an ecologically friendly manner. Results obtained from the use of land are more quantitative, and become useful in informing women's lifestyles in terms of their success or failure as a result of using land. On the other hand, women's commitment towards using land can only be assessed qualitatively because it is a relative term.

Unless commitment can be analysed by using the variables provided in Chapter Five, it becomes difficult to measure it.

The development of policies should take environmental aspects into consideration. since as stated in Chapter Four, the environment within which a policy is developed and the implementation thereof are important for the success of such a policy. A spectrum of inputs is necessary for successful policy implementation. Successful policy implementation, in this regard, is taken as the implementation of policies which lead to sustainable development. These inputs or success factors include the role that the public plays in the formulation of these policies, the amount of information that is available for use and the awareness levels of the people involved.

All development that is not enhancing the sustainability of communities does not help the current nor the future communities. Several initiatives, as stated in Chapter Four, show ways of improving the manner in which people should preserve their environment. All activities that have a bearing on the environment will impact on the livelihoods of the people in that surrounding. Participation of the to-be beneficiaries of such development activities must be involved in activities that will benefit them. Non-involvement of the relevant stakeholders will lead to a lack of ownership of such development – and ultimate failure.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter's discussions elaborated on women and their access to land. The purpose of this study was to assess the role that the Land Reform Policies have played in improving women's sustainable development. The challenge in the three Land Reform Programmes has been the need to redistribute land and prioritise specific categories of the communities, and in this case, HDIs – without compromising agricultural development for sustainable livelihoods. Women were selected as a category within the HDIs and due to their proven dependency on land for survival.

The figures provided in Diagram 1.1 from the Department of Land Affairs Annual Report 2009, indicate that few women have accessed land, either on their own or as partners in a group of beneficiaries. Of the few projects, as shown in Chapter Five in which an estimated total of 279 projects were recorded as at September 2010 in the Western region of the Gauteng Province, only 20 of these were led by women. Chapter Five looked at five specific cases, namely: one SLAG, two PLAS and two LRAD acquired projects.

The observation has been made especially of women who have acquired land that they are committed to what they are doing with the land in their possession. Women with access to land are not only providing for their families but also supply the markets in their vicinity. The assumption is, therefore, that increased access to land would ensure that women would become self-reliant and successful in terms of job creation, acceptable income and food security.

The case studies presented in the study proved that land that is in the capable hands of women can provide food for all. It becomes clear, therefore, that further commitment from government in providing support, such as finance, on-farm and off-farm

infrastructure, technical advice, further market opportunities and training for these women would enhance their self-sufficiency.

This chapter provides conclusive remarks on the study. The main conclusion being that the perception made of women as struggling with the usage of land was found to be questionable because there was production on all the land cases investigated in this study. The delayed support from government has merely reduced the level of production, but not eliminated it all together. This chapter provides brief, but conclusive remarks on what the study revealed and the rationale for the proposed systems model.

Chapter-specific observations and conclusions are discussed in the section that follows.

7.2 Specific conclusions regarding land reform for women's sustainable development

The study intended to answer the question on how the Land Reform Policies and the related programmes have contributed to women's sustainable development in South Africa. The investigations have revealed that land accessed by women has been utilised to acceptable levels. Land utilisation has been linked to women's survival and success, because in all the cases investigated in the study women were found to be food-secure, fully employed on the farms and eager to continue with their land-use activities.

Specific conclusions are provided for purposes of reflecting on the document and for supporting the recommendations that are made from the study. The study objectives that were set in the beginning of the study are again provided – to guide the conclusive discussions of the study.

The objectives of the study as stated in Chapter One are:

- To provide clarity and input on the Land Reform Policy-related factors impacting on the sustainable development of women as beneficiaries of land reform;
- To establish an understanding on the impact that the implementation of Land Reform Programmes have had on the sustainable development of women beneficiaries of land reform programmes; and

- To propose a model that factors in women's contribution in policy for the sustainable development of women who have benefited from land reform programmes.

The study chapters have discussed historical land-related policies that resulted in the skewed land-ownership patterns. The discussions have further elaborated on the new land-related policies, as they currently apply. The section that follows provides a brief discussion of chapter-specific observations and conclusions, as detailed in the study.

7.2.1 Conclusions with regard to the research methodology

A discussion on the methodology used in the study is elaborated on to provide clarity and justification of the selected research approach. Use of the qualitative research approach, as opposed to the quantitative, was explained in this chapter. Qualitative research is not based on prescribed methods and detailed hypotheses that would rigidly guide the researcher, but rather on the actual assessment and analysis of specific cases in their locality – starting with people's expressions and activities in their natural settings.

Qualitative research further involves some kind of direct encounter with the world; whether it takes the form of ongoing daily life, or interactions with a selected individual or group. Public Administration research has dilemmas as far as its theory, methods and focus are concerned. The lack of theory in Public Administration causes it to depend on other fields. This dilemma is further increased by the lack of funding support from Public Administration. The methods dilemma lacks agreed-on methods, as well as the necessary research criteria.

The lack of agreed-on methods puts Public Administration in a weak position when it comes to specific approaches towards research. The focus was on what Public Administration tended to put on the discipline at the expense of its practice.

Lack of funding for Public Administration research has led to these dilemmas. Research, further studies and engagements in Public Administration need to look at promoting the discipline to encourage funding.

Public Administration research is forward-looking, since it carries implications – as a result of policy change. On the contrary, other fields, such as Political Science or Sociology tend to explain behaviour. The involvement of the researcher in the phenomenon has contributed to the understanding and interpretation of the selected cases.

Qualitative research is not based on prescribed methods, and its ability to study issues in their natural setting has led to the discovery of other aspects of women's success on the farms. The discovery and understanding resulting from the close proximity to the observation have led to the initial perception that the all land-reform cases are failing. However, the close engagement and interaction with women during the study revealed that there are cases where success is being realised.

People's actions were observed and meaning was attached to them. The approach has made it possible to understand the extent to which women exert pressure in their activities – in an effort to succeed. The qualitative research types that were used in these case studies: unstructured interviews and a literature review, have provided a relaxed atmosphere and allowed the participants an opportunity to contribute positively to the study.

The ethical requirements for students have allowed the study process to be transparent and consultative enough to reveal information, as agreed on with the participants. This increases the level of trust between the researcher and the research participants.

7.2.2 Conclusions regarding Public Administration and land reform

The importance of Public Administration in the context of land reform was discussed, in order to deal with the relationship that existed between land reform – as a programme of government – and the government legislative processes. The origin of Public Administration, as both a discipline and an activity, has been discussed. The importance of locating Public Administration as a discipline is a necessity for all government and

non-government institutions. Literature on Public Administration, as depicted in this chapter indicates that several efforts to improve the function of public administration occurred as far back as the 19th century.

Public Administration is made up of the legislative, the executive and the political aspects. These all play a significant role in the realisation of public administration activities. In most industrialised countries, the efforts to improve public administration were driven through internal processes dependent on the available resources, as opposed to the less-developed countries, where such improvement efforts were imposed by external aid.

The assistance provided by the World Bank in realising land reform goals is one of the examples of external aid in the development and implementation of policy.

As discussed above, traditional public administration has been discredited theoretically and practically. This has led to the establishment of a New Public Management (NPM); this was intended to realise the birth of a new paradigm in the public sector.

7.2.3 Conclusions regarding the environmental factors impacting on women's sustainable development

Sustainable development emerged from recognition of the need to maintain a balance between economic development and environmental protection, and the need to ensure generational equity. Environmental factors impacting on women's sustainable development were addressed. The South African land policy framework was discussed in relation to the international land policy framework.

An investigation was undertaken on the extent to which the land reform-related programmes and Policy had an impact on promoting food security and ensuring that land is being utilised in a sustainable manner.

The importance of the environment within which women operate in their sustainable development is of importance.

Opportunities have been provided in the form of legislative processes and the necessary framework to create a conducive environment for land access and use – especially by women. Debates regarding gender equality gained momentum as a result of world conferences on women, amongst which was the Nairobi Conference in 1985 and the Beijing Conference held in 1995.

The issue of women’s access to land received both national and international recognition; and this was emphasised in the form of policy frameworks to guide the process.

Women’s inputs into societal aspects, including food security, are of international interest. South Africa should ensure that women’s needs are included in the issues that empower them.

7.2.4 Conclusions regarding women and sustainable development

Sustainable development is regarded as a process that meets the present human needs without sabotaging the opportunities for future generation’s needs. None of the cases were less than two years at the time of this enquiry; yet, the commitment from women was still at its peak. There is a positive correlation between the economic aspects of sustainable development and the economic growth of women. Women realised better yields from the use of their farms. These better yields, in turn, resulted in increased incomes.

Such yields contribute positively to the women’s social life in terms of food security for their households, acceptability and respect by the community.

Sustainable development involves strengthening political commitment, diversifying sources of income and reforming institutions for promoting widely shared growth together with the adoption of environmentally sound technologies.

The need to improve on yield depends on new technologies. Environmentally friendly technologies are necessary to sustain the earth’s resources for the future.

7.2.5 Conclusions regarding the selected cases

Case studies that were selected due to their relevance to the study were discussed and analysed. Land reform cases with women as the beneficiaries were selected and assessed. The findings from these case studies have been used to formulate the systems model, as was discussed in Chapter Six. The five cases are indicative of the efforts that women are putting into ensuring that the resources accessed by women are fully utilised.

Specific characteristics of women have been addressed in relation to their ability to produce effectively on land. Cases have been analysed in the form of tables, diagrams and discussions. It is evident from the selected cases that women were able to secure food for themselves and for their families.

Limited knowledge regarding land reform, with only one case having accessed land-reform-related information from government, calls for improved communication of government programmes. Communication methods, such as pictures (pamphlets, posters and banners) are visible to all – including women who cannot read – should be used.

7.2.6 Conclusions regarding the model

A systems model in land reform which is associated with government and non-government inputs, such as legislation, finance, administrative resources and time spent on the land, whilst planting and sowing seeds and fertilizers, will go through the process of being converted – through germination – and yield at a later stage.

These become processed through a medium, such as the soil, and later become the products that sustain people's lives.

Empowerment programmes that focus on women as food providers are necessary and urgently needed to ensure that the delays of the last five decades, as outlined earlier, are adequately addressed.

The democratic processes in South Africa have emphasised the importance of access to resources, especially for women's economic growth and empowerment. As stated by the RDP (1994), women have been identified as facing specific disabilities in obtaining land. Further on, the WPSALP (1997) confirmed that land reform in South Africa was implemented with the knowledge that the country has constraints already.

Some of these constraints included the poor state of rural organisations in terms of co-ordination and communication.

Of importance, is an indication in the chapter that women's personal attributes contributed to the success of farms in such cases. Inclusive policies would enable women to voice their needs earlier, and solutions could be tailor-made to address these needs. It is understandable that the policy-making process since 1994 has had to be hastened and little time could have been allocated to the process of area-wide consultation.

The level of haste in developing legislation that aims to empower women has decreased; and this has created an opportunity for proper consultation.

7.3 Recommendations regarding Policy

In Chapter One legislation discussed clearly indicates that there were no intentions of bringing equal opportunities for all into the country. The different legislative pieces do not pronounce any involvement or benefits for the black communities, let alone women. The *Bantu Homelands Citizens Act* of 1970 compelled all black people to become citizens of the homelands, in accordance with their ethnic group, regardless of whether they had lived there or not, whilst their South African citizenship was removed indefinitely.

This put pressure on the already-scarce resources, especially in the homelands, where land for settlement was quite limited and that for farming was virtually non-existent. The reversal of such strong and rigid legislation will be a challenge for generations to come.

According to South Africa's National Policy Framework for Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality, as discussed earlier in 4.12, the following issues were realised as the main constraints towards women's success:

- Access to employment;
- Economic empowerment of women;
- Access to land and poverty;
- Access to basic needs, such as education, housing, welfare, fuel and water; and also
- Access to information, time and income;
- Access to basic resources and the current globalisation.

The lack of access to the issues above has improved with time, but the indication is that there is still a backlog in terms of expediting the process of success in achieving the above. The cases in Chapter Five have proved that the more educated women were producing better and were able to hold leadership positions in their communities.

The use of land, generally, especially in communal areas, has declined compared with previous years; a lot of land is lying fallow and is currently under-utilised, especially in rural areas. Reasons for the under-utilisation of land are attributed, amongst others, to the previous legislation which did not portray land use as being important for survival.

The contemporary programmes are encouraging people to use land, and especially with the imminent food shortages and the current high food prices experienced in 2008 and 2009.

Initially, rural people took the initiative and went to the fields to till the land and produce food – even before they were encouraged to do so by any policy.

The land ownership patterns were still skewed, but this did not hamper women from producing to provide food for their families. One may argue that too much knowledge is as dangerous as the lack thereof. In earlier days, women did not know that they could own land; and hence, ownership was not important.

Currently, women demand the same rights as their male counterparts; and on the contrary, they are not at liberty to go to the fields as much, since they have to attend meetings to express their additional needs and to fight for their rights.

During the course of this study, a visit was undertaken to some land reform beneficiaries in Gauteng, Bronkhorstspuit. Five projects were visited; and they all belonged to women. In all the projects, women indicated their satisfaction with the assistance received from government, but according to them, they were still not able to meet all their production needs, even though food security has been fully accomplished.

One of the cases in Gauteng was able to employ additional labour on the farm, but was still not breaking even. The beneficiary from this case needed extra resources from government. The role of NGOs would become greatly appreciated by these businesses because most of the ground work has already been undertaken by government.

7.4 Recommendations for the factors that influence productivity

The four factors of production in agriculture are: land, labour, capital and markets. These are in no order of priority, but they form the basis for all production in agriculture. Land acquired through the LRAD and PLAS programmes is intended for agricultural productivity.

Labour should be provided to manage land that has been tilled; and there is a continuous need for funding in farming. Because some of the funding is in the form of loans, the produce had to be tailor-made to serve a specific market.

Land ownership and use forms the basis of productivity – both in the rural and urban areas. Access to land forms the basis of support to women's food access.

This, in turn, supplies families. Without land as a resource, current and future generations would not be able to sustain themselves, but access to land should be coupled with the following principles:

- Application of agricultural norms and standards which would promote the safe and cautious use of land, and its subsequent preservation as a resource;

- A specific size of land which can accommodate an identified number of users. In the case of livestock, there are norms on grazing capacities per one Large Stock Unit (LSU); and stretching land beyond its capability would destroy the resource, and the ability to sustain both the current and future generations would not be realised; and
- The preserved land must not only sustain the current users, but their future generations as well.

Sustainable development is regarded as highlighting the relationship between economic, social and environmental aspects. The following section deals with environmental issues that needed to be addressed for sustainable land use by women.

7.4.1 Environmental recommendations

Knowledge and understanding of the environment within which operations occur internally and externally, were used advantageously to minimise threats and optimise the opportunities. The internal environment in this study was the farm operations and the women's inputs towards the success of farm activities. The external environment comprises the political scene which influences departmental operations in which the Land Reform Policy finds itself in.

The environment dictates the type of output that will be realised from the input made and processed. Production activities, such as the pig farming, as practiced by the RESPP1 beneficiaries should be practiced in line with the requirements of the *National Environmental Management Act* of 1998 (Act 107 of 1998) and the Environmental Impact Assessments (EIA) prescripts.

The EIA would have to consider the aspects of water and air pollution, the beneficiaries and their neighbour's health and the consumers. A further aspect to consider is that in all women's cases, none of them were practicing organic farming at the time of the study. Organic farming is costly, less productive in terms of bulkiness, and much sought

after. For the purposes of sustainable development, the introduction of organic farming would ensure that the land is conserved for current and future generations.

7.4.2 Recommendations regarding sustainability

Land is not an expendable resource; there is an inverse relationship between population growth and land. With an increase in the population, there is a direct decrease in land. One writer said: “Preserve land; they are no longer making it” (unknown, 2009). The amount of pressure that is exerted on land determines its future strength and its ability to serve as a resource for the future. Sustainable development aspects of women for land reform have been categorised as being political, economic, social and technological.

The political aspects of women’s sustainable development investigated the relationship between administration and politics. The belief was that there is a need to protect administration from politics. This was seen as the politics-administration dichotomy.

The distinction between politics and administration may be defined as politics being related to policies which can also be expressed as the State’s will; and administration can be expressed as the actual execution of the policies. Politics was seen as the arena for public involvement, while the administration was seen as the arena for public administrators – excluding the public. The study, however, proposes the inclusion of women in the activities that affect their development.

Economic growth and the empowerment of women from land reform is the basis for the women’s social development. The ability of these women to make decisions is related to their economic growth; and their empowerment may be seen as a result of their commitment to the land. The independence observed from women responds to the need for equitable access and ownership of land for the HDIs.

The justification to prioritise women as a category of the HDIs is seen through this study. It is further recommended that the emphasis on empowering women be strengthened to uplift more women.

7.4.3 Recommendations regarding women involved in land reform

Land reform and its importance in empowering women have been on the South African agenda for development, gaining impetus since 1994. According to Section 25 of the *Constitution* (1996), the emphasis has been on the importance of accessing land by all, especially the previously disadvantaged. Other acts, such as the *Provision of Land and Assistance Act* (1993) (Act 126 of 1993) on land further prioritised the importance of equal access to land by all who live in it.

This act was further supported by policies including the *WPSALP* in April 1997.

The *WPSALP* (1997) was a process that came about as a result of several consultative sessions that started with a Framework Document on Land Policy document in 1995; this was followed by the Draft Statement of Land Policy and Principles, discussed at a National Land Policy, and later the Green Paper on South African Land Policy in 1996.

The use of land by women, as seen in the case studies, enhanced women's success in terms of food security, empowerment in agriculture and the personal management of their affairs. Women's leadership role within their legal entities, as stated in Table 5.2., has shown that women have the ability to take development into their own hands if they are well positioned.

Some of the aspects to strengthen women's efforts are that:

- Support for women in land reform should go beyond land acquisition, land use and the products achieved. It should focus on ensuring that women have markets for their products, because this would promote continuity in the use of land.
- Women's efforts towards making success in the use of land are not easily visible and have not been added as a visible input into the overall performance of the farm. The labour and management provided by women in their lands, as seen in the selected cases is a positive input in reaching the land-reform goals.

Analysis of success in land reform should include and acknowledge the amount of effort added by women; and this should be translated into to monetary terms.

- Land acquisition-related Policies must detail the specific roles of the partners, including women's roles towards ensuring the sustainable use of land.

The haste in achieving the transition to ensure that HDIs, especially women, are empowered, has neglected the critical factors that contribute to a holistic approach in achieving results. The role players involved in the land reform process should be provided an opportunity to make some input into the process.

7.5 Specific recommendations

The study has looked at the land reform case studies that benefited women in the Gauteng province. The data analysed comprised those on the beneficiaries' characteristics, their farming enterprises and their assets and liabilities. The purpose of assessing the personal attributes of women was to address women's ability to independently engage in government initiatives, such as land reform. Several objectives were outlined in Chapter One, and the study aimed to deal with each of these objectives as intensely as possible.

Chapter Five attempted to address some of the objectives; however, during this process other aspects that were not part of the objectives of the study became evident; hence, the need for the discussion on the recommendations for the future and further studies.

The objectives of the study were set as the following:

- (i) To establish an understanding of the impact that the implementation of Land Reform Programmes has had on the sustainable development of women land reform beneficiaries:

This objective was addressed in section 5.2 of the study, which accommodated all the Land Reform Programmes in the selection of cases. The selection of cases included even the SLAG case, which was the initial programme of land reform.

One may refer to this programme as the pace-setter in land reform. Success from the implementation of this programme was very limited; hence, the introduction of the LRAD

programme. The current redistribution programme is the PLAS. This aims to settle families on land as opposed to the previous programme.

The level of success which is seen from the SLAG, LRAD and PLAS is on an increasing scale. Women from the PLAS cases are very successful, more so than women from LRAD and from SLAG. Table 5.9, which explains the level of education and the production percentage relative to the total land owned, further shows that educated women can successfully use larger areas for production. Educated women also had an opportunity to gain exposure to business concepts and are at an advantage in terms of understanding how to operate the farm as a business. Another challenge and observation in the LRAD cases was the loan component for topping up the mortgage amount. This put additional pressure on the production processes, because payments were due in the first year.

Government packages for land acquisition should consider all the land aspects. These should also cater for circumstances where beneficiaries are obliged to get loans.

The general assumption and knowledge of the skewed land ownership patterns in South Africa comprised the driving force for the development of all land-related legislation. Consideration for women in the study was as a result of the above assumption on the skewed land ownership patterns, and the fact that women are the tillers of land. The second objective intends to provide clarity and input on policy-related factors that impact on sustainable development for women as land-reform beneficiaries.

- (ii) To provide clarity and input on the Land Reform Policy-related factors impacting upon sustainable development of women as land-reform beneficiaries:

This objective has been addressed through the discussion on the RDP (1994); the *Constitution* (1996) and the international agendas aimed at promoting the prioritisation of women and their access to land. Women's inputs towards sustainable production on farms in terms of their economic inputs, social inputs, cultural inputs and environmental inputs for successful land use have been discussed. Aspects of presence on the farm,

management of the farm and decisions regarding the farm activities are critical factors in women's success on land. Economic aspects include a commitment to work the land, participant's knowledge in terms of formal training, and the success of participants in their farm operations.

The discussion has revealed that if all aspects that determine commitment are met, the farming business usually becomes sustainable. Of importance is also Diagram 6.5 which illustrates the outcomes of development in which economic growth, equity and empowerment are highlighted. The last objective was addressed in Chapter 6 through Diagrams 6.2 and 6.5, the systems model and the inputs from women for sustainable development, respectively.

(iii) To propose a model that factors in women's contribution for the sustainable development of women land-reform beneficiaries.

Based on the commitment shown by women it became evident that the inclusion of women in land-reform related processes should not assume that women will only become the recipients of such programmes. Contributions made by women, in the form of time spent on the farms, the ability to make decisions and their roles in the relevant legal entities ensured that the cases would become a success. The lack of women education, as seen in the cases of older women (as seen in RESPP 1, RESPL 1 and RESPL 2) in Table 5.9, calls for a more rigorous approach towards stakeholder empowerment in decisions that affect the stakeholders.

The following section makes proposals based on the gaps seen during this study. These suggestions are not, however, urgent or critically important for the overall success of land reform.

The systems approach is made up of inputs that are in the form of policies and programmes for land reform. These policies and programmes are translated into applicable activities that allow for the selection, settlement and support of farmers on

land. The expectation – after settling these farmers – is that their land occupation will realise successful production.

The recommended model carries with it an awareness of the fact that resources are always a constraint in the fulfillment of the various needs. The following are recommendations made to realise the goals of the model:

- (i) The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform should adopt the principles of the proposed model – even in the midst of current initiatives towards transferring land to beneficiaries. The current land redistribution programmes are the PLAS which is already in existence and the Equity Share Scheme that is still a Bill. The recipients of land should not be treated as helpless receivers, but rather as partners in realising the goals of land reform.
- (ii) Diagram 6.6 proposes a government that is in the center of the land reform process, according to the diagram. The position of government is such that it should play the role of facilitator – not of driver or initiator. Women should be empowered throughout the policy development processes and encouraged to submit their needs. These would, of necessity, spell out their roles in the process of such development.
- (iii) Departments engaged in social development programmes – in this case DRDLR and the Departments of Agriculture – should strengthen their working relationship, especially when it comes to the use of resources. It is the responsibility of the land users, as it is also that of government, to ensure environmentally friendly practices in the use of resources. The rehabilitation of dilapidated resources becomes the responsibility of government. As indicated earlier, the government resources are limited, but the needs are vast; hence, proper prioritisation of the needs, including avoiding unnecessary use of these limited resources, becomes a vital necessity.

There are obvious omissions, characterised by the absence of appropriate legislative, administrative and policy initiatives, where particular approaches fail to either achieve the stated goal of improving women's access and rights or have negative consequences. The lack of policy dynamism is visible throughout the efforts to fast track

women's empowerment and equity in terms of access to resources, the key one being land.

It has been noted that in the African tradition, women had land rights clearly spelled out; and these were only eroded after 1652, when the colonialists arrived in the country. The arrival of colonialists was exacerbated by the introduction of land taxes which meant that African men had to work in the mines and in the colonialist's fields to earn money to pay for the taxes. Women were forced to provide for the children and had to utilise land, irrespective of whether they owned it or not. The lack of money for the family needs resulted in forced employment and men's ignorance of land ownership.

Effective control over productive resources, especially land, by the rural poor is said to be crucial to their capacity to construct a rural livelihood and overcome poverty. It can be concluded, therefore, that the process of land allocation land as a resource is an all-inclusive effort, and is critical for poverty alleviation. Countries are concerned about the increase in their levels of poverty, South Africa included. Huge sums of money are invested in studies on poverty levels, as well as daily allowances that could sustain the average family.

Such funding can be effectively utilised to increase the focus on what resources are available and how these could be best used to alleviate poverty.

Further enquiry into the resources, especially land, and the accessibility thereof by women has not yet reached acceptable levels.

Women have been systematically denied access to resources, such as land, especially in Africa and South Asia. The analysis of Land Reform Policies of other countries, such as India, Brazil and Chile in South America and Zimbabwe has confirmed that the legacy of colonialism had adverse effects on the ownership of land. The lack of access to land flies in the face of the initial cultural customs, whereby women were regarded as providers for their families.

A further identified challenge was that women who lived on farms were often not regarded as having the legal rights of an *occupier*, but only regarded as resident-based, according to the rights of their husbands and fathers. Several reasons have been mentioned for this lack of inclusion for women, others being that the process of consulting communities would generally have been lengthy and time-consuming and even frustrating to bureaucrats who wish to provide projects in a speedy manner.

It is clear from the above, that additional efforts are needed to ensure that all public administration processes are as inclusive as possible. Long-term results start with taking care of the environment and the surroundings; this is the beginning of a sustainable public administration. Policy-makers, whether official or unofficial, tend to be guided by what their environments present in terms of what policies to formulate and when to implement them. Providing clear definitions for policies alone has been seen as insufficient to guarantee the promotion of the general welfare of people.

The emphasis should be on knowing who influences who in public policy-making; what has an effect on what and to what extent; what is justified and what is not; and who does what. The tendency is that the public voice reminds leaders at national, provincial and local spheres that they do, is not only to lead, but also to serve the public.

7.6 Recommendations for the future and further studies

The study has established that women have the ability to utilise resources allocated to them, land being one of them. The assumptions that were made through certain departments that all land reform projects are failing should be investigated further. There is still a general feeling that land-reform-acquired farms are not adding value to people's lives. The ideal scenario, therefore, would be to investigate such allegations further – in order to inform future policies on land reform.

The need for such further investigative studies would assist in addressing the current slow pace of achievement towards reaching the 30% land-reform target. Mistakes that

are similar to the ones that led to the current skewed land ownership patterns would be detrimental to government's resources. Below are some of the proposed recommendations for this study and for future studies. The discussion starts with recommendations that are relevant for this current study; these are followed by suggestions for other possible future studies.

7.6.1 A sustainable production-oriented settlement strategy

The South African Land Policy and other development-related policies, such as the RDP, emphasise the centrality of women's empowerment in the development of communities and the country as a whole. However, there has been a huge gap when it comes to the coordinated implementation of these policies. As indicated in Chapter Five, the lack of support in the form of immediate finance after settlement is a common challenge to all the selected cases.

Firstly, the partial success experienced by women comes as a result of their commitment to work on the land. All the settled women had production intentions when they acquired land, but the obvious gap between their settlement and support for production shows a need for a communicated settlement strategy.

This strategy should entail the training and implementation of selection criteria for women as land owners. Secondly, the process should avoid the compulsory settlement of groups on pieces of land; this should be optional.

The third matter is that selected clients should be settled on appropriate land parcels with the necessary infrastructure, financial and market support.

7.6.2 Targeted settlement and support

Women identified for settlement should be prioritised in acquiring formal agricultural qualifications. Targeted technical, extension and financial support should be tailor-made for such a strategy. The settlement of individual users on land, whether males or females, should be the main thrust of land allocation for sustainable development in

South Africa. Settlement should be guided by criteria used to select ready and willing farmers, as opposed to the cases in SLAG and LRAD, in which groups of people were settled for the purpose of increasing the number of beneficiaries that have to be reported on. The initial aim of land reform put emphasis on the number of targeted hectares to be achieved by 2014, and not on the increase in the number of people acquiring land.

7.7 Conclusion

Since 1994 South Africa has been aiming for reconstruction and development. Such a mandate came about with a land-reform policy which had to be developed to deal with the following:

- (i) the injustices of the racially based land dispossession of the past;
- (ii) the need for a more equitable distribution of land ownership;
- (iii) the need for land reform to reduce poverty and contribute to economic growth;
- (iv) security of tenure for all; and
- (v) a system of land management which would support sustainable land use patterns and rapid release of more land for development. It is clear from the above, that sustainable development has and still is the cornerstone of all efforts towards economic growth and a better life for all.

The autonomous nature of the different spheres of government has had a bearing on what policies are made and how such policies are to be implemented. This trickles down to the nature of the benefits received by the beneficiaries as a result of such policies. There is pressure that is observed from the executive arm, as a result of the political arm; and the results are felt by the majority of people, who have little influence to change such circumstances.

Table 7.1 illustrates the specific functions of each sphere of government as they relate to land reform. It has been confirmed that land reform is a matter of national interest; and, therefore, it affects all spheres.

Table 7:1: The land reform roles for all three spheres of government

Government sphere	Role on land reform	Measure of success
National sphere	Policy formulation; awareness on policy and Policy reviews	Acceptance by the Provincial sphere and success in policy implementation
Provincial sphere	Policy implementation through interpretation and support to beneficiaries	Land occupation and use; more productivity on land and less hunger
Local sphere	Policy alignment to Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) and Local Economic Development (LED); By-laws development; monitoring and evaluation	Successful projects; satisfactory livelihoods and income; less service delivery protests.

The national sphere of government, as the policy arm of government, must play its role in ensuring that the provinces implement the said policies, as planned, and the local sphere does continuous monitoring and evaluation of such policies. Policies of a national nature, like the Land Reform Policy, must be part of the Provincial Growth and Development Strategies (PGDS) of the provinces and be part of the Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) and the Local Economic Development (LED) strategies of all Municipalities.

Such commitments must be legislated and enforced by law, as far as possible. The law must also deal with issues of non-compliance.

It is worth noting that land reform is everyone's focus – due to the manner in which previous policies have dealt with it. Hence, all efforts should be aimed at addressing this resource, because – according to the study – there has not been much success in the empowerment of women who are the main food producers in the African countries. Few

women have successfully accessed land relative to the total number of beneficiaries that received land as depicted in Diagram 1.1. Out of the five cases selected, there is success as far as productivity on land is concerned; and yet, based on this diagram, it would not even be 50% of women that have acquired land.

Diagram 1.1 focuses on the results for one year, but it can be seen that the figures are too low for women to sustain themselves and their families, as far as land access and usage are concerned.

Given the limitations of government's role in community development, the NGO sector has a major responsibility to educate rural women on the opportunities opening up to them, and to help build women's organisations at the local level. It is evident from the above, that the number of women's organisations in the country – large as it is – has not touched most women, especially in terms of ensuring that women become part of sustainable development. While there are some encouraging initiatives, the overall level of organisation is weak; and NGOs are themselves battling to redefine their role in the post-apartheid era, due to amongst other things, reduced funding.

There is also a real disjuncture between the demand for rapid land reform and the time needed to build women's capacity to maximise the opportunities that land reform undoubtedly holds for them. It is too early to judge the success of the land-reform programme, but not too early to state that there is absolutely no basis for complacency. The chances that greater resources and political importance will be granted to the programme in the near future are minimal, and so, as is evident from the cases, government's commitment to land reform should be held accountable for the commitment shown by women as beneficiaries of land reform.

REFERENCES

ADB, UNDP & UNESCAP, 2006. *Pursuing gender equality through the Millennium Development Goals in Asia and the Pacific*. Asian Development Bank.

Agarwal, B. 2002. *Are we not peasants too? Land rights and women's claims in India*. SEEDS series paper for the Population Council. Delhi: Population Council.

Agfirst Consultants. 2010. *AgFirst Farm Credit Bank and District Associations 2010 Annual Report*. <http://www.Agfirst+consultants+2010+report+on+maize+price>. Accessed on 11 July 2010.

Alistair, B.E. 2001. Apartheid legislation in South Africa. <http://africanhistory.about.com/library/bl/blsalaws.thm>. Accessed on 18 March 2008.

Australian Aid, 2010. The Millennium Development Goals: the fight against global poverty and inequality: Australian Government. <http://www.ausaid.gov.au/keyaid/mdg.cfm>. Accessed 28 October 2010.

Bailey, M.T. & Mayer, R.T. (Eds) 1992. *Public management in an interconnected world: essays in the Minnowbrook Tradition*. New York: Greenwood Press.

Banki, I.S. 1981. *Dictionary of Administration and Management*. USA: Systems Research Institute.

Barnett, V., Payne, R. & Steiner, R. (Eds) 1995. *Agricultural sustainability: Economic, environmental and statistical considerations*. West Sussex: England: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Bassett, T.J. & Crummey, D.E. 1993. *Land in African agrarian systems*. England: The University of Wisconsin Press.

Bazilli, S. 1991. *Putting women on the agenda*. Johannesburg: Ravan Press.

Benschop, M. 2004. Women in human settlements development: challenges and opportunities – women's right to land and property. Commission on sustainable development: UN Habitat.

Berrisford, S., DeGroot, D., Kihato, M., Marrengane, N., Mhlanga, Z. & van den Brink, R. 2008. *In search of land and housing in the new South Africa: the case of Ethembaletu*. World Bank Working Paper No.130. The World Bank: Washington D.C.:USA.

Bhaduri, A. & Skarstein, R. 1997. *Economic development and agricultural productivity*. United Kingdom: Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

Bosch, G.S. 2007. Restitution or discrimination? Lessons on affirmative action from South African employment Law School of Law University of Exeter. *Web Journal of Current Legal Issues*. School of Law University of Exeter: G.S.Bosch@exeter.ac.uk 2007 4Web JCLI also available on <http://webjcli.ncl.ac.uk/2007/issue4/bosch4.html>. Accessed on 9th January 2008.

Botes, P.S., Brynard, P.A., Fourie, D.J & Roux, N.L. 1992. *Public Administration and Management: A guide to Central, Regional and Municipal Administration and Management*. Pretoria: Kagiso Tertiary.

Bowler, I. 1996. *UPDATE: Agricultural change in the developed countries*. Britain: Cambridge University Press.

Bowyer-Bower, T.A.S. & Stoneman, C. 2000. *Land reform in Zimbabwe: Constraints and prospects*. England: Ashgate Publishing Limited.

Brons, J. E. 2005. *Activity diversification in rural livelihoods: The role of farm supplementary income in Burkina Faso*. Netherlands: Wageningen University.

Bullard, R. & Waters, H. 1995. *Land ownership in Southern Africa. our common estate: The Royal Institute of Chartered Surveyors*. London: SWIP 3AD.

Butler, J.E. 2003. *New perspectives on women entrepreneurs: a volume in research in entrepreneurship and management*. USA: Information Age Publishing Inc.

Cameron, R. & Milne, C. 2009. Minnowbrook, Mount Grace and the State of Public Discipline. *Journal of Public Administration*. Volume 44, No. 2, pp 380-395.

Capegateway Directories. 2004. *Land grants*.
<http://www.capegateway.gov.za/eng/directories/services/17200/9671>, Accessed on 22 June 2008.

Chadwick, B.A., Bahr, H.M. & Albrecht, S.L. 1984. *Social science research methods*. Englewood Cliffs, N J: Prentice – Hall.

Chandler, R.C. & Plano, J.C. 1988. *The Public Administration Dictionary: 2nd Edition*. England: Western Michigan University.

Chigwedere, E. 2000. *The historical background of women's land rights in Zimbabwe. Paper presented at a women and land lobby group workshop*.
ufh.netd.ac.za/jspui/bitstream/10353/. Accessed on 13 July 2009.

Christopher, A. J. 2001. *The atlas of changing South Africa*. London: Routledge.
usj.sagepub.com/content/42/1/7.refs. Accessed on 10 June 2007.

Cloete, F. & Mokgoro, J. 1995. *Policies for public service transformation*. Kenwyn: Juta & Co, Ltd.

Cloete, J. J. N. 1991. *Public Administration and Management*. Pretoria: J. L. van Schaik (Pty) Ltd.

Cloete, F. 2007. *Data Analysis in Qualitative Public Administration and Management Research*. South African Journal of Public Administration, vol 42, Issue 6, pp. 512-527.

Clough, P. & Nutbrown, C. 2002. *A student's guide to methodology*. London: SAGE.

Coetzee, W. A. J. 1988. *Public Administration: a South African introductory perspective*. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.

Common, R., Flynn, N. & Mellon E. 1992. *Managing public services: competition and decentralization*. London: Butterworth – Heinemann Ltd, Oxford.

Cotula, L., Toulmin, C. & Quan, J. 2006. *Policies and practices for securing and improving access to land*. ICARRD: Issue Paper No.1

Creswell, J. W. 2007. *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing Among Five Traditions: 2nd Ed*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.

Cross, C.H.D. 2002. *Opportunities and obstacles to women's land access in South Africa. A research report for promoting women's access to land programme*. Pretoria: National Land Committee and the Department of Land Affairs, in Association with the Centre for Rural Legal Studies and the Centre for Applied Legal Studies (Wits).

Crowley, E. 1998. *Women's rights to land and natural resources: some implications for a human rights – based approach*. Rome: FAO Land Tenure Service.

Cummings, S., van Dam, H. & Valk, M. (Eds) 2001. *Gender perspectives on property and inheritance: A Global source book critical reviews and annotated bibliographies series*. The Netherlands: KIT (Royal Tropical Institute): Oxfam GB.

Czaja, R. & Blair, J. 2005. *Designing surveys: a guide to decisions and procedures: 2nd Edition*. USA. Sage Publications, Inc.

Dale, P. & McLaughlin, J. 2003. *Land Administration*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Dauids, I. 2005. *Voices from below: reflecting on ten years of public participation: the case of local government in the Western Cape*. Cape Town: Foundation for contemporary research.

Deininger, K. 2003. *Land Policies for growth and poverty reduction*. Washington: The World Bank & Oxford University.

Denhardt, R.B. 2008. *Theories of public organisation*. USA: Thomson Wadsworth.

Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. 2008. *Strategies of qualitative inquiry: 3rd Edition*. USA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Department of Agriculture. 2004. *Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme Implementation Manual*. Pretoria: Department of Agriculture.

Department of Agriculture. 2005. *DOA unpublished study on the appraisal of land reform projects in the North West, the Mpumalanga and the Free State*. Pretoria: Department of Agriculture.

Department of Environmental Affairs. 1992. *Building the foundation for sustainable development in South Africa: national report to the United Nations conference on environment and development (UNCED)*. Pretoria: CSIR.

Department of Land Affairs. 2001. *LRAD implementation manual for Provincial Land Reform Offices*, Pretoria: Department of Land Affairs.

Department of Land Affairs. 2001. *LRAD Policy*, Pretoria: Department of Land Affairs.

Department of Land Affairs. 2007. *LRAD reviewed Policy*. Pretoria: Department of Land Affairs.

De Villiers, A. & Critchley, W. (Eds) 1997. *Rural land reform issues in Southern Africa: lessons for South Africa's Northern Province*. South Africa: University of the North.

Deyle, R.E. & Bretschneider, S.I. 1995. Spillovers of state innovations: new York's hazardous waste regulatory initiatives. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, Volume 14, Issue 1, pp. 79 – 106.

Du Toit, D. & Van Der Waldt, G. 1997. *Public Management – the grassroots*. Kenwyn: Juta & Company Limited.

Dye, T.R. 1992. *Understanding public Policy*. London: Prentice – Hall International Ltd.

Easton, D. 1990. *The analysis of political structure*. New York: Routledge.

Edwards III, G.C. 1978. *The Policy predicament: making and implementing public Policy*. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman & Company.

Erasmus, J. 2010. *Bumper crop in maize for SA*. www.mediaclubsouthafrica.com/index.p. Accessed on 3rd November 2010.

FAO. 2001. *Rural women's access to land in Latin America, gender and development fact sheets*. Rome: FAO.

FAO. 2008. *Support women to put food on the table*. www.fao.org/dimitra/dimitra-workshops. Accessed on 12 September 2009.

FAO. 2009. *Item 3 "Elements of the strategic framework and Medium-Term Plan (MTP) 2010- 2013 of Relevance to COAG"*. www.fao.org/fileadmin/user_upload/G77/. Accessed on 28 April 2010.

Farazmand, A & Pinkowski, J. 2006. *Handbook of Globalization, Governance and Public Administration*. USA: CRC Press: Taylor & Francis Group.

Fassed, E. 2001. *Mandela's first memo to Thomas Friedman*. www.mediamonitors.net.arjan/23html. Accessed on 28 October 2009.

Fesler, J.W. 1980. *Public Administration Theory and Practice*. USA: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Fesler, J.W. & Kettl, D.F. 1991. *The politics of the administrative process*. New Jersey: Chatham.

Flick, U. 2007. *Designing Qualitative Research*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Flick, U. 2009. *An Introduction to Qualitative Research: 4th Edition*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Fourie, C. 2000. Land and the cadastre in South Africa: its history and present government Policy. Paper presented as a guest lecturer at the International Institute of Aerospace Survey and Earth Sciences (ITC). The Netherlands: Enschede, 1st November, 2000.

Fox, W & Meyer I. H. 1995. *Public Administration Dictionary*. Pretoria: Juta & Co Ltd.

Fox, W. & Van Rooyen, E. (Eds) 2004. *The Quest for Sustainable Development*. Cape Town: Juta & Co.Ltd 2004.

Gandhi, I. 1972. Sustainable development: Learnings and perspectives from India. http://envfor.nic.in/divisions/ic/wssd/doc4/consul_book_persp.pdf. Accessed on 22 September 2010.

GCIS. 2001. Right to land. http://www.sahrc.org.za/home/21/files/Reports/4th_esr_chap_3.pdf. Accessed on 12 August 2010.

Ghimire, K.B. 2001. *Land reform & peasant livelihoods: the social dynamics of rural poverty & agrarian reform in developing countries*. London: Intermediate Technology Development Group Publishing.

Ghosh, A. 2007. Land reforms and women's nutrition: evidence from India. <http://conferences.ifpri.org/2020chinaconference/pdf/doctorgosh.pdf>. Accessed on 11 April 2009.

Giovarelli, R. 2011. The word on women – why does it matter who has rights to land in the household? United States: Landesa Center for Women's Land Rights.

Gladden, E.N. 1961. *An introduction to Public Administration*. London: Charles Birchall & Sons LTD.

Golembiewski, R.T. 1968. *Perspectives on Public Management: Cases and Learning Designs*. Itasca: Peacock.

Gray, L.C. & Kevane, M. 2001. Evolving tenure rights and agricultural intensification in Southwestern Burkina Faso. *World Development*. Elsevier, Volume 29, Number 4, pp. 573-587.

Griffin, K.; Khan, A. R. & Ickowitz, A. 2002. Poverty and the distribution of land. *Journal of Agrarian Change*, Volume 2, No.3, pp. 279 – 330.

Halcrow, H.G.1980. *Economics of Agriculture*. USA: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Hall, R. 1998. Design for equity: Linking Policy with objectives South Africa's land reform. *Review of African Political Economy*, Vol. 25, No. 77, pp. 451-412. University of Western Cape: Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies.

Hall, R. 2004. Land and Agrarian Reform in South Africa: A Status Report 2004. *Report No. 20*. Cape Town: Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies: School of Government University of Western Cape.

Hall, R. 2009. *Umhlaba Wethu: A Bulletin Tracking Land Reform in South Africa*. Cape Town: PLAAS. Bulletin 8, p4.

Hampton, D. R. 1981. *Contemporary management*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Hanekom, S.X., Rowland, R.W. & Bain, E.G. 1987. *Key aspects of Public Administration*. South Africa: Macmillan.

Hanekom, S.X. & Thornhill, C. 1986. *The functions of the public administrator*. Durban: Butterworth Group.

Hargreaves, S. & Meer, S., 2000. *Out of the margins and into the centre: gender and institutional change: At the Crossroads: Land and Agrarian Reform in South Africa into the 21st Century*. Braamfontein: National Land Committee. pp. 264-279.

Henry, N. 2001. *Public Administration and Public Affairs*. New Jersey USA: Prentice Hall, Inc.

Henry, N. 2004. *Public Administration and Public Affairs: Handbook of organisational consultation: Second edition*. Washington: Brookings Institution Press.

Hesse-Biber, S.N. & Leavy, P. 2006. *The practice of qualitative research*. USA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Hill, B.1989. *Farm incomes, wealth and Agricultural Policy*. Great Britain: Gower Publishing Company.

Hitchcock, D. & Willard, M. 2006. *The business guide to sustainability: practical strategies and tools for organisations*. United Kingdom & USA: Earthscan Publishing.

Hughes, O.E. 1994. *Public management and administration: an introduction: 2nd ed*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

IFAD. 2002. *Valuing diversity in sustainable development. Appraisal and formulation reports (1999, 2001)*. www.ifad.org/events/wssd/ip/ip.htm. Accessed on 22 June 2008.

IFAD. 2008. *Policy on promoting access to land and tenure security Summary: EB-2008-94-R-2*. www.ifad.org/gbdocs/repl/8/v/e/Rep. Accessed on 15 May 2009.

Ilbery, B., Chiotti, Q. & Rickard, T. (Eds) 1997. *Agricultural restructuring and sustainability: a geographical perspective*. Wallingford: CAB INTERNATIONAL.

Isaacs, D. 2010. Zimbabwe: New land policy favours black farmers. <http://southasia.oneworld.net/globalheadlines/zimbabwe-new-land-policy-favours-black-farmers>. Accessed on 7 June 2011.

Jacobs, S. 2002. *Land reform: still a goal worth pursuing for rural women?* *Journal of International Development*, Volume 14, Issue 6, pp. 887 – 898.

Jeeves, A.H. & Crush, C. 1997. *White farms black labor: the State and agrarian change in Southern Africa, 1910-50*. Pietermaritzburg: University of Natal Press.

Johnson, W.C. 2004. *Public Administration: partnerships in public service*. 3rd ed. Long Grove, IL: Waveland Press.

Jones, G.W. & Street, P.R. 1990. *Systems theory applied to agriculture and the food chain*. New York: Elsevier Science Publishing Co. INC.

Kachika, T. 2009. *Land grabbing in Africa: a review of the impacts and possible Policy responses*. Pan African Programme: Oxfam International.

Kariuki, S. & Van Der Walt, L. 2000. *Land reform South Africa: still waiting*. South African Report, SAR, Volume 15, No 3, May 2000.

KIT (Royal Tropical Institute) 2001. *Gender perspective on property and inheritance: The Netherlands: A global source book*. KIT publishers.

Klein, H.K. & Myers, M.D. 1999. *A set of principles for conducting and evaluating Interpretive Field studies in Information Systems*. MIS Quarterly. Vol. 23, No. 1, Published by: Management Information Systems Research Center, University of Minnesota. Also available on <http://www.jstor.org/stable>. Accessed on 27 March 2009.

Kumar, R. 2005. *Research methodology: Second Edition: A step by step guide for beginners*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Kumwenda, O. 2010. *South Africa farmers say hurt by power price hikes*.
<http://www.forexyard.com/en/news/SAfrica-farmers-say-hurt-by-power-price-hikes>.
Accessed 10 November 2010.

Kuye, J.O., Thornhill, C., Fourie, D., Brynard, P.A., Crous, M., Mafunisa, M.J., Roux, N.L., van Dijk, H.G. & van Rooyen, E.J. 2002. *Critical perspectives on Public Administration: issues for consideration*. Johannesburg: Heinemann.

Lahiff, E. 2007. *Business models in land reform*. Bellville: Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies.

Landrine, H. & Klonoff, E.A. 1997. *Discrimination against women: prevalence, consequences, remedies*. London: SAGE Publications.

Lastarria-Cornhiel, S., 1997. Impact of Privatization on Gender and Property Rights in Africa. *World Development*, Vol. 25, No. 8, pp. 1317-1333.

LeMay, M.C. 2006. *Public Administration: Clashing Values in the Administration of Public Policy*. USA: Thomson Wadsworth.

Levin, R.M. 2009. Transforming the public service to support the developmental State. *Journal of Public Administration*, Volume 44 , No.4.1 Special Issue, pp. 943-968.

Levi-Faur, D & Vigoda-Gadot, E. 2006. New public Policy, new Policy transfers : some characteristics of a new order in the making. *International Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 29, No. 4-6, pp. 247-262.

Lewis, J. & Ritchie, J. 2003. *Qualitative research practice: a guide for Social Science students and researchers*. SAGE Publications: London.

Limpopo Department of Agriculture. 2006. *Limpopo Department of Agriculture 2006/07 Budget Vote*. Polokwane: Limpopo Department of Agriculture.

Lodhi, H.A., Borrás Jr, S.M. & Kay, C. 2007. *Land, poverty and livelihoods in an era of globalization: perspectives from developing and transition countries*. Routledge: New York.

Lofland, J. & Lofland, L.H. 1995. *Typological systems: analyzing social settings: 3rd ed.* Belmont, California: Wadsworth.

Lowndes, V. & Sullivan, H. 2008. *Public Administration: how low can you go? Rationales and challenges for neighbourhood governance*. UK Oxford: Blackwell Publishing. Vol. 86. No.1. (53 – 74).

Lunenburg, F.C. & Irby, J.B. 2008. *Writing a successful Thesis or Dissertation: tips and strategies for students in the Social and Behavioral Sciences*. USA: Corwin Press, Inc.

Mackenzie, F. 1998. *Land, ecology and resistance in Kenya, 1880-1952*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Mafunisa, M.J. & Maserumule, M.H. (Eds) 2004. *Cases in Public Administration and management: a South African perspective*. Sandown: Heinemann.

Marini, F. 1971. *Toward a new Public Administration*. USA: Chandler Publishing Company.

Marshall, P. 2007. *5 Steps to mastering the most powerful, cost-effective way to attract new customers and build your company's credibility*. [http://www.Marshall.2007.5stepstoMasteringtheMost Powerful&btnG](http://www.Marshall.2007.5stepstoMasteringtheMostPowerful&btnG). Accessed on 18 October 2009.

Mascarenhas, R.C. 1988. *A strategy for rural development: dairy cooperatives in India*. New Delhi: SAGE publications.

Mathebula, F. M. 2004. *Intergovernmental relations reform in a newly emerging South African Policy*. Thesis submitted in fulfillment for the requirements of D Admin degree. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

May, T. 2002. *Qualitative research in action*. London: SAGE Publications.

Mayson, D. 2003. Evaluating land and agrarian reform in South Africa: an occasional paper series: No.7. Joint ventures PLAAS. School of Government: University of the Western Cape and Surplus People Project.

McGee, L. & Boone, R. 1979. *The black rural landowner – endangered species: social, political and economic implications*. USA. Greenwood Press.

McKinney, J.B. & Howard, L.C. 1998. *Public Administration: balancing power and accountability: Second Edition*. London: Preager Publishers.

McNabb, D.E. 2002. *Research methods in Public Administration and non- profit management: quantitative and qualitative approaches*. London: ME Sharpe.

Meer, S. (Ed) 1997. *Women, land and authority: perspectives from South Africa*. Claremont: David Philip and Oxford: Oxfam.

Merriam, S.B. 2009. *Qualitative research: a guide to design and implementation: revised and expanded from qualitative research and case study applications in Education*. USA: Jossey-Bass.

Mitchell, R. 2011. *Landlessness is not forever*. <http://www.landesa.org/landlessness-is-not-forever/>. Accessed 9 March 2009.

Mokgope, K. 2000. *Land reform, sustainable rural livelihoods and gender relations: A case study of Gallwater A Farm, Volume 1, Research Report No.5.* Cape Town: Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies.

Mouton, J. 2001. *How to succeed in your Master's & Doctoral Studies: a South African guide and resource book.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Morcol, G. 2007. *Handbook of decision making.* USA: Taylor & Francis Group, LLC.

Morgan, G. 1997. *Images of organisation.* USA: SAGE Publications Inc.

Muller, J. J. & Van Rooyen, E. N. eds. 1994. *Public Administration in post apartheid South Africa.* School of Public Management, Cape Town: University of Stellenbosch.

Mushunje, R. 2001. *Women's land rights in Zimbabwe: broadening access and strengthening input market systems:* BASIS Management Entity: Madison.

Narayan, D. 2002. *Empowerment and Poverty Reduction: A Sourcebook:* World Bank: PREM.

Nell, W.T. & Napier, R.J. 2005. *Strategic approach to farming success: securing competitive advantage in a turbulent global agricultural environment.* Bloemfontein: Wim Nell Agricultural Management Consultant.

Nengwekhulu, R. H. 2009. Public Service Delivery Challenges Facing the South African Public Service. *Journal of Public Administration:* Volume 44, No. 2. Pp. 341-363.

Net Tel@Africa. 2010. *South African Land Reform Discriminate Against Women.* <http://www.google.co.za/search?q=Net+Tel@Africa.+2010+women+land&btnG=Search&hl=en&source=hp&aq=f&aqi=&aql=&oq> Accessed on 03 January 2011.

Newfarmer. 2010. *Women in sustainable agriculture conference: whole farm planning course*. co.zw/inside.aspx. 2010. 20 December 2010.

New Partnership for Africa's Development, 2003. *Africa's framework for agriculture, NEPAD's Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme*. Pretoria: SATC.

Norgaard, R.B. 1994. *Development betrayed: the end of progress and a co evolutionary revisioning of the future*. London: British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data.

Ntsebeza, L. & Hall, R. (Eds) 2007. *The land question in South Africa: the challenge of transformation and redistribution*. Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Peters, B.G. 1996. *The future of governing: four emerging models*, Kansas: University Press. USA: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Quaddus, M.A. & Saddique, M.A.B. 2004. *Handbook of sustainable development planning: studies modeling and decision support*. Cheltenham, United Kingdom: Elgar.

Raynolds, F. & Goldsmith, J.E. 2002. Women and sustainable development from local to international issues: Issue 3. *The Millennium Papers Issue 3*.

RESPL 1. 2010. Land reform unstructured interview conducted on women's sustainable development, Gauteng Province: Bronkhorstspuit, on 20 May 2010.

RESPL 2. 2010. Land reform unstructured interview on women's sustainable development, Gauteng Province: Bronkhorstspuit, on 20 May 2010.

RESPP 1. Land reform unstructured interview on women's sustainable development, Gauteng Province: Bronkhorstspuit, on 20 May 2010.

RESPP 2. Land reform unstructured interview on women's sustainable development, Gauteng Province: Bronkhorstspuit, on 20 May 2010.

RESPS. Land reform unstructured interview on women's sustainable development, Gauteng Province: Germiston, on 22 May 2010.

Roberts, B. 1995. *The end of the post-cold war era: Washington Quarterly* Vol. 18, no. 1. Pp. 208-212. Center for Strategic and International Studies: Information Access Company.

Robbins, D. & Borders, S. 2005. Symposium Introduction: The Current and future State of Research Methods in Public Administration. *Journal of Public Administration*: Vol. 2, No.1. pp. 1-3.

Roth, M. 2002. *Integrating land issues and land policy with poverty reduction and rural development in Southern Africa. Paper prepared for the World Bank regional workshop on land issues in Africa and the Middle East held in Kampala, Uganda, 29 April to 2 May 2002*. University of Wisconsin – Madison: Land Tenure Centre.

Roth, M., Nxasana, V., Sibanda, S. & Yates, T. 2004. *National Land Tenure Conference: finding solutions, securing rights: papers and perspectives from the National Land Tenure Conference, International Convention Centre Durban, South Africa*. Durban: LexisNexis Butterworths.

Rosenbloom, D.H., Goldman, D.D. & Ingraham, P.W. 1994. *Contemporary Public Administration*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc

Rosenbloom, D.H., Kravchuk, R.S. & Clerkin, R. 2009. *Public Administration: understanding management, politics, and law in the public sector: 7th ed*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Royal Society for Chemistry. 2011. *Consumers pay too much for food*. <http://www.rsc.org/Chemsoc/Chembytes/HotTopics/Organic/Index.asp>. Accessed on 13 January 2011.

Roux, L., Brynard, P.A., Botes, P.S & Fourie, D.J. 1997. *Critical issues in public management and administration in South Africa*. Pretoria: Kagiso Tertiary.

Rubin, H.J. & Rubin, I. 2005. *Qualitative interviewing: the art of hearing data: 2nd Edition*. USA: Sage Publication, Inc.

Rutherford, B. 2008. Development and change: conditional belonging: farm workers and the cultural politics of recognition in Zimbabwe. *Institute for Social Studies*, Vol. 39, No.1, pp. 73–99. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

SARPN. 2008. *Land Reform and Poverty Alleviation in Southern Africa*. www.sarpn.org.za/EventPapers/Land/eve. Accessed on 12 November 2008.

Scott, W.R. 1998. *Organisations: rational, natural and open systems: Fourth Edition*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc.

Scott, D. 2002. *The impact of HIV/AIDS on land: case studies from Kenya, Lesotho and South Africa: A synthesis report*. Southern African Regional Office: FAO.

Seale, C., Gobo, G., Gubrium, J.F. & Silverman, D. 2002. *Qualitative research practice*. London: SAGE Publications.

Senge, P.M.1990. *The fifth discipline: the art & practice of the learning organisation*. United Kingdom: Random House.

Silverman, D. 2005. *Doing qualitative research 2nd Edition*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Shafritz, J.M. 2004. *The dictionary of Public Policy and administration*. USA: Westview Press.

Sharkanky, I. 1975. *Public Administration: policy making in government agencies, Third edition*. U.S.A: Rand McNally College Publishing Company.

Sheldon, C. & Yoxon, M. 1999. *Installing environmental management systems: a step-by-step guide*. UK & USA: Earthscan Publications Ltd.

Simons, H. 2009. *Case study research in practice*. London: SAGE Publication Ltd.

Sithole, E. 2002. *A gender analysis of agrarian laws in Zimbabwe: a report for women and land in Zimbabwe*. University of Zimbabwe: Harare.

South Africa. 1950. *Bantu Authorities Act, 1950 (Act 41 of 1950)*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Smith, J. 2010. *Consulting and organisational development: systems thinking – what's that?* <http://managementhelp.org/blogs/consulting-skills-systems-thinking-what-that/> . Accessed on 4 January 2011.

South Africa. 2003. *Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment Act, 2003 (Act 53 of 2003)*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 1996. *Communal Property Association Act, 1996 (Act 28 of 1996)*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 1995. *Development Facilitation Act, 1995 (Act 67 of 1995)*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 1998. *Employment Equity Act, 1998* (Act 55 of 1998). Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 1950. *Group Areas Act, 1950* (Act 41 of 1950). Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 1996. *Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act, 1996* (Act 31 of 1996). Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 2005. *Intergovernmental Relations Act, 2005* (Act 13 of 2005). Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 1996. *Labour Tenants Act, 1996* (Act 3 of 1996). Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 2007. *Millennium Development Goals Mid – Term Country Report* p13 – 45.

South Africa. 1998. *National Environmental Management Act, 1998* (Act 107 of 1998). Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 2000. National Policy Framework for women's empowerment and gender equality. Pretoria: The Office of the Status of women.

South Africa. 2002. *National Treasury Regulations*. Government Printers.

South Africa. 1936. *Native Trust and Land Act, 1936* (Act 18. of 1936). Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 1999. *Public Finance Management Act, 1999* (Act 1 of 1999). Government Printers.

South Africa. 1993. *Provision of Certain Land Rights for Settlement Act, 1993* (Act 126 of 1993). Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 1994. *Restitution of Land Rights Act, 1994* (Act 22 of 1994). Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 2003. *Towards a ten year review*. Pretoria: The Presidency.

South Africa. 1996. *The Constitution, 1996* (Act 108 of 1996). Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 1913. *The Natives Land Act, 1913* (Act 27 of 1913). Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 1994. *The Reconstruction and Development Programme: A Policy Framework*. Johannesburg: Umanyano Publications.

South Africa. 1993. *Upgrading of Land Tenure Rights Act, 1993* (Act 112 of 1993). Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa. 1997. *White Paper on South African Land Policy*. Pretoria: Department of Land Affairs.

South Africa: 1995. *White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service*. Pretoria: Department of Public Service Administration.

South Africa: 1995. *The White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service*. Pretoria: Department of Public Service Administration.

South African Government Information: 2009. *Comprehensive Rural Development Programme*.

http://www.info.gov.za/aboutgovt/programmes/rural_development/index.html. Accessed on 12 January 2010.

South Africa's Women's Organisations. 2004. *Women's Organisations*.
<http://www.distel.ca.womlist/countries/southafrica.html>. Accessed on 19 October 2008.

South Africa Online. 2007. *Agriculture, Forestry and Land*. www.southafrica.co.za/agriculture. Accessed on 22 October 2008.

Stabler, M.J.1975. *Macmillan studies in economics: Agricultural Economics and Rural Land – Use*. Great Britain: The Macmillan Press LTD.

Statistics South Africa. 2007. *The people of South Africa Population Census: Population Census 1996 by Province, gender, religion and population group*. Report Number 03-01-11: Fifth edition. www.statssa.gov.za:1996, Accessed on 31 March 2008.

Stone, A. B. 1995. *Serving the public: a guide for practitioners and students*. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik Publishers.

Streib, G & Roch, C. 2005. Strengthening Public Administration research: identifying boundaries and horizons. *International Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 28, No. 1 & 2, pp. 37-55.

Terrell, J. Y. 2009. *Defining equality: the politics of women, land and tradition in Kwazulu Natal, South Africa*. New School for Social Research: APSA: Toronto Meeting Paper.

The Free Management Dictionary. 2010. *Definition of Subsystems*. www.thefreedictionary.com/subsystem. Accessed on 2 February 2010.

The Hunger Project. 2000. *The hunger project on empowering women as key change agents*. www.thp.org/what_we_do/programme_overview/empowering_women? Accessed 5 September 2009.

The NAMC Working Group. 2007. *Report on the request for statutory measures (Levies, Registration and Records & Returns) on pork in terms of the marketing of agricultural products Act, 1996*. Pretoria: NAMC.

Thomas, J. C. 1995. *Public participation in public decisions: new skills and strategies for public managers*. San Francisco: Jossey ~ Bass Inc: California.

Thornhill, C. & Hanekom, S.X. 1995. *The public sector manager*. Cape Town: Butterworths Publishers.

Thornhill, C. 2005. The Political / Administrative Interface: Time for Reconsideration? *Journal of Public Administration*, Conference Proceedings October 200, pp. 176-185. Pretoria: SAAPAM.

Thorpe, R. & Holt, R. (Eds) 2008. *The Sage dictionary of qualitative management research*. London: SAGE Publication Ltd.

Tilley, S. 2007. *International comparative study of strategies for settlement support provision to land reform beneficiaries*. Bellville: Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies.

Tripp, A. M. 2001. Development and change: women's movements and challenges to neopatrimonial rule: preliminary observations from Africa. *Institute of Social Studies UK*: Blackwell Publishers. Vol. 32, No. 1 -2, pp. 33-54.

Trochim, W.M.K. 2006. *Social research methods*. www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/
Accessed on 08 June 2007

Turner, S. 2002. *Land and agrarian reform in South Africa: a status report*. Cape Town: Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies, University of the Western Cape. Research report; no. 12.

Umhlaba Wethu, 2009. *A bulletin in tracking land reform in South Africa: special edition: insecure tenure and labour – farm*. Cape Town: Institute for Poverty, Land and Agrarian Studies.

UNICEF, 2006. *A situation and trends analysis*. www.unicef.org/sitan/files/SitAn.
Accessed on 14 November 2010.

United Nations, 2002. *Declaration and Programme of Action on 10 Commitments*. www.earthsummit2002.org/WSSD/10commit. Accessed on 9 April 2008.

United Nations, 2000. *We can end poverty: 2015 Millennium Development Goals*. www.un.org/millenniumgoals/bkgdshtml. 22 October 2010.

UNDESA, 2010. *Assessing progress toward the 2010 target*. <http://www.cbd.int/2010-target>. Accessed on 5 November 2010.

United Nations Development Programme & Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2002. *Sustainable development strategies: a resource book*. USA: Earthscan Publications Ltd.

Valodia, I. 2001. Economic Policy and Women's Informal Work in South Africa. *Development and change*, Vol.32, No.5. pp. 875-877.

Van den Brink, R., Thomas, G., Binswager, H., Bruce, J. & Byamugisha, F. 2006. *Consensus, confusion and controversy: selected land reform issues in Sub-Saharan Africa*. The World Bank Paper No.71. Washington DC: USA.

Van Dijk, H.G. 2003. *Critical Issues Impacting on Skills Development in the Department of Public Administration Service Administration: Trends and Options: Thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for D Admin Degree*. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Van Thiel, S. 2006. *Styles of reform: differences in Quango creation between policy sectors in the Netherlands*. Vol. 26, Part 2 May – August 2006.

Vasu, M.L., Sterwart, D.W. & Garson, G.D. 1998. *Organisational Behaviour and Public Management. Third Edition, Revised and Expanded*. Boca Raton: Taylor & Francis Group.

Venter, D. & Neuland, E. 2005. *NEPAD and the African Renaissance: First edition*. Northcliff: Johannesburg: Richard Havenga & Associates.

Vocino, T. & Rabin, J. 1981. *Contemporary public administration*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Vyakarnam, S. (Ed) 1990. *When the Harvest is in: Developing Rural Entrepreneurship*. London: IT Publications.

Wagner, K & Gill, J. 2005. Bayesian inference in Public Administration Research: substantive differences from somewhat different assumptions. *Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 28, No. 1 & 2 pp. 5-35. USA: Routledge: Taylor & Francis Inc.

Walker, C. 1998. Land reform and gender in post – apartheid South Africa. UNRISD Discussion Paper No. 98, October 1998: Geneva: Switzerland.

Weideman, M. 2004. *Who shapes South Africa's Land Reform Policy*. Polikon, Volume 31, issue 2, pp. 219 – 238.

Wessels, J.S. & Pauw, J.C. (Eds) 1999. *Reflective Public Administration: views from the South*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Wikipedia Free Encyclopedia. 2001. *South Africa Under Apartheid*. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/apartheid>, Accessed on 16 June 2008.

Wikipedia. 2008. *History of South Africa series: South Africa under apartheid*. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/South_Africa_under_apartheid. Accessed April 2009.

Wikipedia. 2010. *Earth Summit: Agenda 21*. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Agenda_21. Accessed on 12 December 2010.

Wikipedia. 2011. *Systems Theory*. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Systems_theory. Accessed on 15 January 2011.

Willis, J. W. 2007. *Foundations of qualitative research*. London: Sage Publications, Inc.

World Bank, FAO, IFAD. 2005. *Market access as a source of income*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

World Bank Commodity Price Chart. 2009. *Commodity prices: the end of historic boom*. <http://go.worldbank.org>. Accessed 17 July 2010.

World Bank, FAO, IFAD. 2009. *Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook*. Washington DC: Library of Congress Cataloguing in Publication Data.

Yugandhar, B.N. & Iyer, K.G. 1993. *Land reform in India, Volume 1: Bihar Institutional Constraints*. New Delhi: Sage Publications.

UNSTRUCTURED INTERVIEW

QUESTIONS

1. Demographics:

- 1.1 How many were you at the beginning of this project and how many are you currently?
- 1.2 What type of legal entity do you have (that was used for the transfer of the farm)?
- 1.3 What is your position in the legal entity?
- 1.4 How old is the most senior member and how old is the youngest member?
- 1.5 What is your highest qualification?
- 1.6 Did you receive any farming related training since you settled on the farm?
- 1.7 What is your marital status?

2. Project Location:

- 2.1 In which province is your project located?
- 2.2 Which District Municipality do you fall under?
- 2.3 Who is your Local Municipality?
- 2.4 In which WARD is your project located?
- 2.5 What is your nearest town and how far is it from the farm?

3. Land acquisition details:

- 3.1 How big is your farm?
- 3.2 Which Land Reform Programme did you benefit from?
- 3.3 In which year did you acquire this farm?
- 3.4 Did you apply for a loan to top up the mortgage bond for the farm, and from which financial institution?
- 3.5 Have you paid the loan back and how was it done?

4. Support and production details:

- 4.1 In which year did you start producing?
- 4.2 When did you first receive government support?
- 4.3 What was the type of support and from which programme?
- 4.4 What are your production enterprises?
- 4.5 Of these enterprises, which one sustains the farm and the family? i.e. the dominant enterprise?
- 4.6 Is the total area of the farm under production at all times?
- 4.7 How is the area divided amongst the enterprises on the farm?
- 4.8 Where do you sell your produce?
- 4.9 Is this a formal or a non formal market?
- 4.10 How did you know about it?
- 4.11 Are you supplying enough to the market? If not what do you do to augment any shortfalls?
- 4.12 Do you share farming information with your neighbouring farmers?
- 4.13 How many jobs have been created through this farming business?

5. Other information:

- 5.1 Do you own any farming related assets and can you estimate their value?
- 5.2 How do these assets support the farming operation?
- 5.3 What are your liabilities and how do you intend to address these?
- 5.4 Do you permanently stay on the farm?

Is there any other information that you want to share on your farming activities?

I hereby give consent that the above information may be used for purposes given to me. I understand that my participation is voluntary and confidential.

Signature

Date