

## 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
<b>Total difference</b>	<b>18 776 991</b>	<b>17 232 283</b>	<b>1 544 708</b>

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 (DRDRLR) 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.

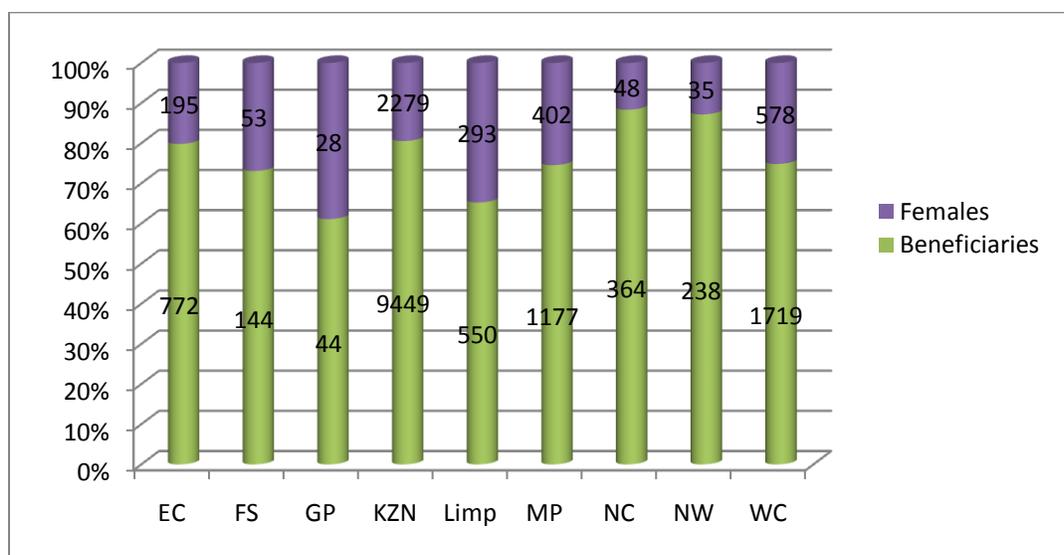
Various Land Reform Programmes, as discussed earlier, were subsequently developed to address the historically skewed land reform patterns in South Africa. There has been some progress since 1995 in delivering land to the HDIs, and funds have been spent towards realising this goal.

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.

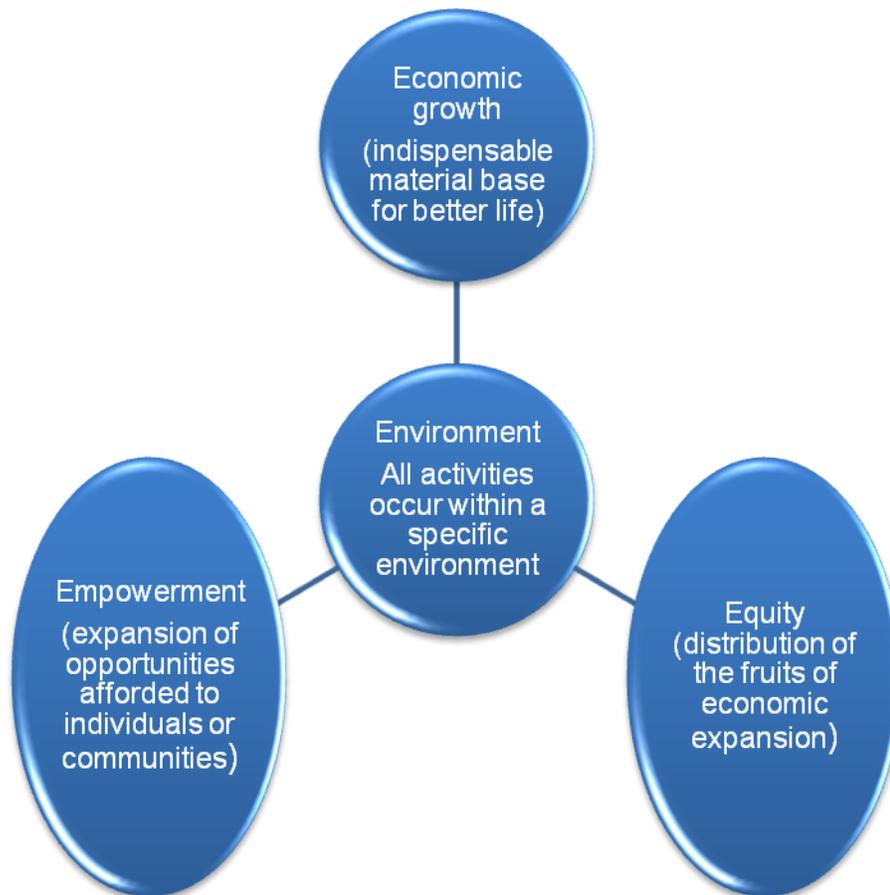
The study is motivated by the importance of harmonising the policy intentions and the practical implementation in the form of programmes aimed at achieving the objectives embodied in the policy.

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.”*

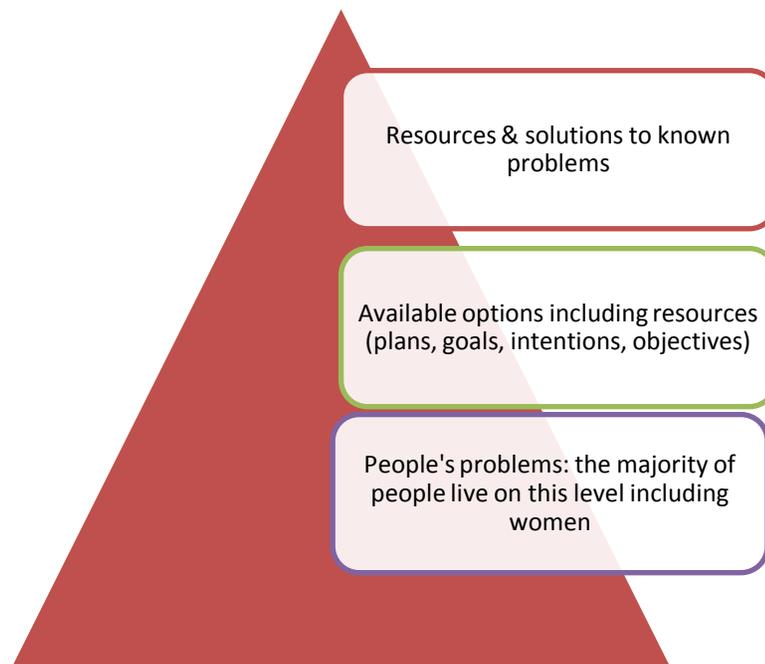
The WPSALP (1997) had to ensure that all the previous imbalances, concerning land acquisitions are addressed fairly and equitably. By the end of 2000, the Ministry of Agriculture and Land Affairs had approved 484 projects under the SLAG Programme, transferring 780,407 hectares to 55,383 people, with 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.