

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.

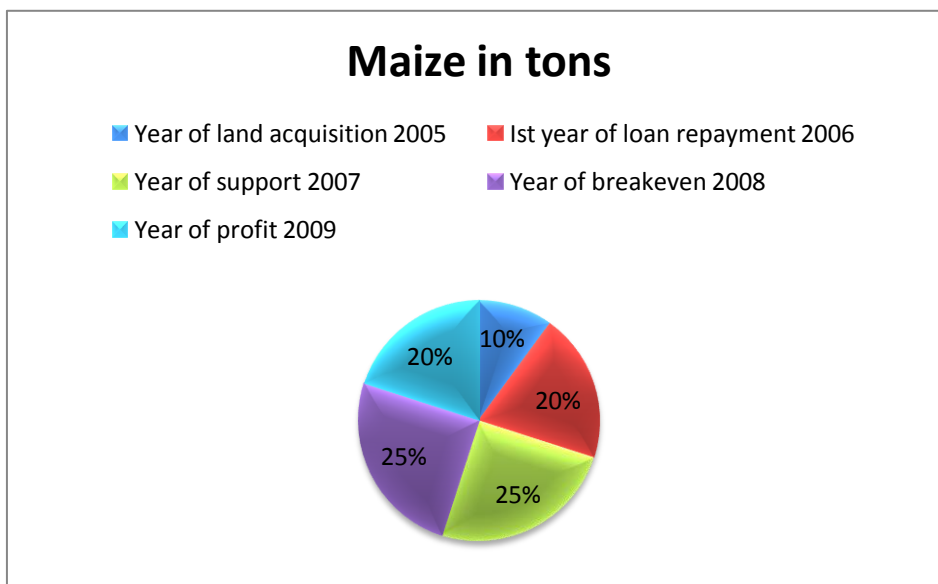
Table 5.3: Case 1 RESPL 1 Land acquisition details versus support

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 Bronkhorstspuit; 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
	2007	2008	2009	2010	2010
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.

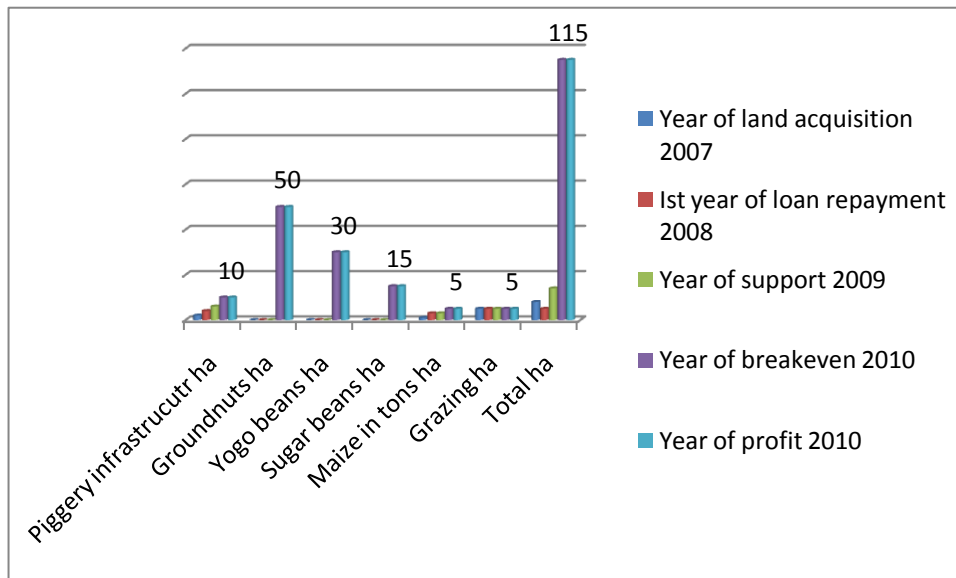
Success in the area of pig farming led to more confidence on the side of the participants and further diversification of the enterprises. It shows that the participants focused their energy on what they knew best and developed from there, introducing other enterprises on the farm. The later usage of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

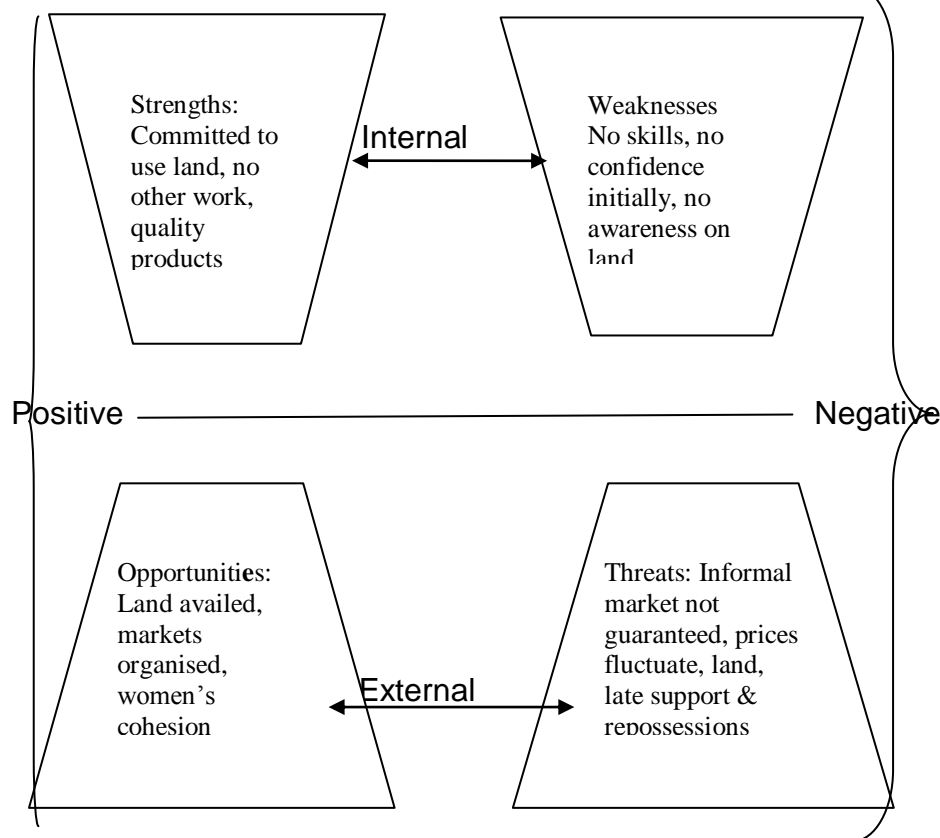
Educated women have usually had an opportunity to become exposed to business concepts, and are at an advantage in terms of understanding how to operate the farm as a business. Written information is easily read without anyone teaching them.

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.

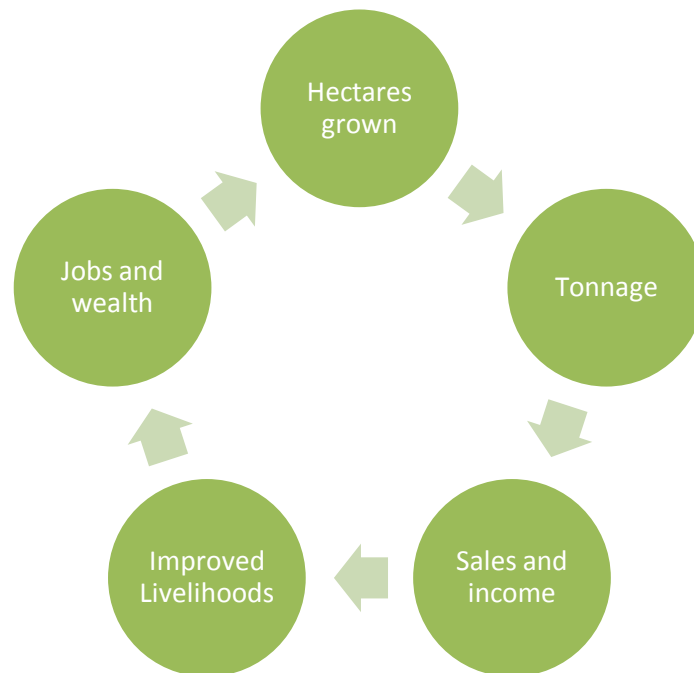
Additional information is shared on the ability to prioritise the investment of money in valuable enterprises, fixing their own implements, rather than buying new ones and the market opportunities available. An added requirement from the educated beneficiaries was the need for more hectares, because 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 herdsman – 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 indicted 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
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<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.
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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.