

**POST-SETTLEMENT CHALLENGES ON LAND RESTITUTION
BENEFICIARIES IN THE VHEMBE DISTRICT**

BY

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A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of

**Doctor of Philosophy (PUBLIC
ADMINISTRATION) AT THE
SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES
UNIVERSITY OF VENDA**

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JULY 2021

DECLARATION

I, **Tshifularo Samuel Tshigomana** of student number 11576285, hereby declare that the thesis: Post-settlement challenges on Land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District, for the **Doctor of Philosophy** in Public Administration degree at the University of Venda, hereby submitted by me, has not previously been submitted for a degree at this university or any other university, and that it is my own work in design and execution and that all references materials contained therein has been duly acknowledged.



Date 10/10/2021

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to thank the Almighty God for His love, guidance, protection and bestowing in me wisdom to organize this thesis.

I would also like to extend my special thanks to the following people who contributed to the success of this study:

My wife Mukondeleli Evelyn Kutame-Tshigomana, for her support and encouragement when I felt like quitting.

My high school friend Dr Musitha Mavhungu for his motivation throughout the journey

My children Rotenda and Agape', for technical support throughout.

My Promoter Professor Nkuna N.W for his guidance, constructive criticism, academic support, patience and belief in me.

My Co-promoter Professor Thakhathi D.R, for his creative inputs and guidance throughout the course of this thesis.

DEDICATION

This Thesis is dedicated to all my children and the late Tendani Tshigomana who always looked upon me as someone who should set the standard for them and their love to me which encouraged me to do what I pray they would do one day. I also want to dedicate this study to my wife for giving me space to put everything on paper and her prayers.

ABSTRACT

This thesis presents a study of post-settlement challenges faced by land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District in the Limpopo Province. Whilst it can be assumed that the government is attempting to address the challenges regarding the management of land reform processes in South Africa, with the aim of redressing the injustices in land ownership in South Africa, the land restitution beneficiaries, however, are faced with enormous challenges. This is evidenced by the continued increase in the collapse of the projects they have inherited. Many land reform projects have been implemented in South Africa since 1994, in an attempt to redress the imbalances in land ownership, and although, there is a general perception that many of these land reform projects are failing, there is limited evidence provided as to why these projects are failing and how such failures can be addressed (Lubambo, 2011:iv). The aim of this study was to investigate the post-settlement challenges faced by land-restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District Municipality, through an empirical analysis of their impact on sustainable economic development. The study contributes by providing suggestions for the improvement of the lives of the land restitution beneficiaries through better management of their projects or land. The study, thus, was conducted to find solutions or a model that can be used in addressing the plight of the beneficiaries and to ensure the sustainability of projects for economic development.

A mixed research method in which both quantitative and qualitative research approaches were used because they can be integrated in such a way that both methods retain their original structures and procedures. A qualitative approach was applicable, because it allows openness to ideas, experiences, opinions and feelings expressed by participants, while the quantitative approach allows a broader view which guarantees results from many respondents. Purposive sampling was used to select the respondents based entirely on the researcher's judgment regarding the characteristics of the participants. Two instruments were used to collect data, namely, questionnaires and interviews. The reason for selecting the structured questionnaire and an open-ended interview schedule was to get sufficient relevant information about the study. To analyse data, two types of data analysis were used: for data collected through questionnaires, the Statistic Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used and for the data collected through interviews a thematic analysis of the respondents' narratives was done.

The study showed that after the transfer of land to the beneficiaries, they are confronted by numerous challenges, such as - inability to access capital, group infighting, lack of adequate support from key stakeholders, corruption, as well as lack of communication and planning amongst the stakeholders.

The study concluded that inappropriate planning and lack of post-settlement support impact negatively on sustainable economic development of the land restitution beneficiaries. The findings recommended the following specific solutions - developing a well-communicated Code of Conduct and Constitution which should be followed; the introduction of annual training on different skills, such as business and project management; extensive support from all the layers of government, especially, on the development of farmers and sourcing funding for them; development of a communication strategy, and the strengthening of the roles and responsibilities of the Communal Property Associations (CPAs). It is anticipated that these research results will help, regionally and internationally, states, policymakers and beneficiaries with similar challenges faced in South Africa,

The limitations of the study were that the sample was predominantly black people as they are the main beneficiaries of the land reform programmes and the research was conducted only in the Vhembe District in the Limpopo Province, which is just one of the fifty-two districts in South Africa.

KEY WORDS: Beneficiaries, Communal Property Association, Economic Development, Land Reform, Livelihood, Post-Settlement Support, Redistribution, Resettlement, Restitution and Sustainable

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ABBREVIATIONS

ANC	African National Congress
ANCYL	African National Congress Youth League
ARDC	Agricultural and Rural Development Corporation
BEE	Black Economic Empowerment
BLF	Black Land First
CPA	Communal Property Association
CRLR	Commission on Restitution of Land Rights
DA	Democratic Alliance
DLA	Department of Land Affairs
DPLG	Department of Provincial and Local Government
DoA	Department of Agriculture
DRDLR	Department of Rural Development and Land Reform
EFF	Economic Freedom Front
EWC	Expropriation Without Compensation
IDP	Integrated Development Programme
ISRDL	Integrated Sustainable Rural Development
LCC	Land Claims Commissioner LED
	Local Economic Development
PAC	Pan African Congress
PSLR	Partnership for Sustainable Land Reform
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
RLCC	Regional Land Claims Commissions

RSA	Republic of South Africa
SSDU	Settlement, Support and Development Units
SPG	Settlement Planning Grant
WESSA	Wildlife and Environmental Society of South Africa
ZANU-PF	Zimbabwe African National-Patriotic Front

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Public Administration is an organized non-political executive state function (Pauw, 1999: 28). It is a detailed and systematic execution of public law and government programs (Gildenhuys, 1988: 14). As a scientific discipline, it is primarily concerned with the implementation of government policies (Botes, Brynard, Fourie, & Roux, 1996: 257), therefore, public administration is required to implement new legislations and to administer the consequences of such legislations (Tshikwatamba, 2007: 761). It serves as a vehicle for expressing the values and preferences of citizens, communities, and societies (Bourgon, 2007: 07). The introduction of Land Reform programme in South Africa moments after the establishment of the first democratic dispensation of 1994 represented a policy position that brought hope to the previously disadvantaged (Lahiff, 2001; Hall, 2004). Such introduction of land reform programme remains among the best things that ever happened for the landless disadvantaged black people of the country (De Villiers, 2003: 46). The land question, however, remains one of the key challenges to post-apartheid South Africa since the country has been struggling with the issue since 1913 (Lahiff, 2008: 01). It is on that basis that the question remains, whether implementation of such a programme has brought about the anticipated changes to the intended beneficiaries. This study, therefore, investigates the post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District Municipality area, Limpopo Province in South Africa. A sociological paradigmatic perspective is used within the public administration context to establish the extent to which the programme has managed to meet its objectives of eradicating poverty and creating jobs for the intended beneficiaries. Sociological theories help us to understand, explain and predict the social world we live in (Mooney, Knox & Schacht, 2007: 01). Phatlane (2016: 08) defines Social Theory as the basis for creation of ideas for solutions of society's problems; it points to issues to do with the organ of the social structure and the way in which society is positioned.

Society is characterised by pervasive inequality based on social class, gender and other factors, therefore, far-reaching social change is needed to reduce or eliminate social inequality and to create an egalitarian society (Mooney *et al.*, 2017: 22). Society is structured

on the pattern that retains the discriminatory status quo, and it favours some and side-lines others by depriving them of their rights keeping them in their place and not allowing any change that may work in the favours of the poor sections of the society (Harper,2020). Political and economic liberalization should be able to remove rigidities in social structure (Mikhalev,2000:07).This study is grounded on the sociological theory within a participatory governance of stakeholders involved in land reform process, within the Vhembe District Municipality area.

This chapter serves as an introduction of this study detailing the background of the study with the rationale. The study's problem statement is followed by the aim, the objectives which are then stated as guiding research questions. The chapter further provides for the definition of key concepts and the outline of the whole study.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The debate on land is historical, ever since 1913 when the apartheid government passed the Native Land Act 18 of 1913 and the Native Trust and Land Act 18 of 1936 'which led to the allocation of fertile land and vast areas of South Africa in the sole hands of whites while 'blacks' were given some 'traditional areas where they were believed to have resided historically' (Lahiff, 2008: 01; De Villiers, 2003: 46). At the beginning of the ninetieth century, black African people lost land as they aspired to the nascent middle class and entered the migrant labour force (Everngham & Jannecke, 2006: 547). It is on that basis that the issue of land has always been critical in South Africa; tensions over land started in the colonial era, particularly, as Boer Voortrekkers moved inland, displacing indigenous Africans as they went along (Dlamini, 2014: 07). The matter of land dispossession continued even during the apartheid government where land was used as a tool for economic and social oppression of the majority of the South African citizens. The dispossession and forced removal of African people under colonialism and apartheid resulted in the physical separation of people along racial lines, extreme land shortages and insecurity of tenure for much of the black people (Lahiff, 2001: 01). The white control and unequal distribution of land based on apartheid system laws and policies gave wealth and power to the whites at the expense of the black majority of South Africans (Waldo, 1991: 18). The exclusion of blacks from the economy made blacks dispossessed people and beggars on white-owned land (Manenzhe, 2007: 01). The issue of land dispossession has led to an imbalance of power. The dispossession happened in different ways, such as - providing spacing for national interest like giving space for the military and

creation of parks owned by the state and normal dispossession which benefitted the whites (Blignaut & De Wit, 2004: 412). The history of dispossession of land created bitterness in the black South Africans, hence, as the rightful owner, they developed a strong desire to have their land restored to them. The white minority's demands for land and its unequal distribution were two of the main bases of the apartheid system and the source of white people's wealth and power. The land question in South Africa must, therefore, consider the effects of colonial rule and national development prior to land dispossession under apartheid (Everingham & Jannecke, 2006: 547).

When the African National Congress (ANC) came into power, floods of land claims were received from racial, religious and linguistic groupings as well as indigenous peoples seeking land restitution (Everingham & Jannecke, 2006: 545). The post-apartheid state started with the negotiations for appropriate settlements and how to pay 'just and equitable' compensation to current landowners if their land was to be acquired for restitution purposes (Walker, 2005: 647). Since 1994, the democratic government led by the ANC has tried to consolidate political power and has embarked on a major socio-economic transformation process (The SACP, 2009). After the democratic elections of 1994, many South Africans expected the government to move with speed in terms of redressing the injustices of the previous regime, including land reform (Hall, 2004: 01). Redressing the massive land dispossessions suffered by black South Africans under white minority rule and protecting established (white) property rights, however, became major points of tension during the constitutional negotiations (Walker, 2005: 647).

To redress the injustices of the apartheid system, the ANC prioritised the issue of distributing land to black South Africans and transforming the structural basis of racial inequality, but land reform in South Africa has fallen far short of both public expectations and official targets (Hall, 2004: 213). According to the White Paper on Land Policy of 1997 (DLA, 1997:04-12), land reform in South Africa - should redress the injustices of apartheid; foster national reconciliation and stability; underpin economic growth and improve household welfare and alleviate poverty; contribute to economic development by giving households the opportunity to engage in productive land use; increase employment opportunities through investment in the rural economy and provide the poor with land for residential and productive purposes to improve their livelihoods.

Lahiff (2001: 06) identifies major challenges in restitution as a programme of land reform, maintaining that it is - inadequate for infrastructure development, offers poor service provision

and results in unrealistic business planning. He further argues that lack of clear linkage or collaboration amongst national, provincial and local governments on matters concerning land reform creates challenges for all the land reform stakeholders. The success of land reform in poverty eradication and sustainable land reform projects depends, therefore, on both individuals and collective effort from a variety of role players.

Manenzhe (2007: 04) argues that “land reform should allow for a range of settlements and not only confine new land owners to adopt a status quo of newly-acquired farms which are mostly commercially run by individuals. Such commercial farms do not in most cases address the needs of the rural poor who need land for small-scale farming”. For a successful claim and land-restitution programmes, beneficiaries need to be given the opportunity to choose their preferred options ranging from getting original land, alternative land, financial compensation or involvement in development projects (Walker, 2005: 647). Most claimants who were disposed of their land, however, choose to have their land, together with any development projects, restored to them, so that they become beneficiaries. According to Lahiff (2001: 04) the purpose of restitution is to restore land in such a way as to support reconciliation, reconstruction and development, ensuring historical justice and ‘healing the wounds’ of apartheid through rights-based programme and addressing poverty through the developmental aspects of restitution. Unfortunately, there are post-settlement challenges that affect these projects and they have an impact on sustainable economic development. The implementation of the land reform policy has created enormous obstacles for the beneficiaries who seem to be struggling to maintain their projects after the land has been restored to them; these challenges prevent beneficiaries from making effective use of the land.

The poorest rural people who are regarded as the ‘rural proletariat’ live and work on commercial farms; they are engaged in struggles to retain and secure their access to land for independent production (Hall, 2004: 218). The black rural communities who were in the past marginalized and excluded from the main stream economy and who have already acquired their land, are struggling to maintain the land; this is evident by the collapse of farms that were previously productive. According to Manenzhe (2007: 02) access to land as an asset and source of livelihood, should be complemented by skills, capacity and other resources, for the beneficiaries to reap any rewards.

The observation is that, South Africans, including the government and civil society are worried about the pace of land redistribution, and are calling for acceleration of land delivery and the

support the beneficiaries should receive in taking forward the projects they have inherited through the process of land restitution. A mammoth task, however, remains in providing the necessary support to the large number of people who have taken over as owners of farms acquired through land restitution or other land reform programmes. In cases where land redistribution has been implemented, equitability and agrarian transformation remain a challenge, thus, the achievements of land reform in meeting human needs, of the beneficiary communities, are yet to be realised. This study argues that the landless people view inadequate post-settlement support to the beneficiaries of land reform as a critical challenge facing them; this is making the whole notion of rural land redistribution unsuccessful. According to Buys (2012: 18) rural land redistribution should be linked to appropriate support strategies so that land redistribution meets the intentions and objectives it is meant for. Given South Africa's high rural poverty and unemployment, rural land redistribution certainly needs to be prioritized to become part of a broader agrarian land-reform program (Walker, 2005: 658).

Land reform remains a serious debate in the history of South Africa, and land ownership in the country is a source of conflict and contention, however, Moabelo (2007: 17) asserts that it is difficult to remove the scars caused by apartheid policies and their consequences and it is certainly not going to happen overnight. Both the white land-owners and black communities whose lands were dispossessed are criticising the implementation of the land reform programmes as being too complicated and the government of being too slow to implement them (Links, 2011: 15). For instance, failure to finalize restitution claims has led to proposals for expropriation of land without compensation by the African National Congress Youth League (ANCYL) (Makhado, 2012: 03). The ANCYL believes that land expropriation without compensation is the necessary and the right way to speed-up land reform in South Africa, but this has raised a lot of questions and emotions and created tension between the land claimants and current land-owners. After 25 years into a democratic South Africa, land reform is still a problem for the ANC government, on the one hand and for the beneficiaries on the other hand.

Matukane (2011: 07) argues that despite many successful claims and returning of land to the claimants, fulfilling the objectives of land restitution is still a challenge, therefore, the injustices of the past persist and poverty prevails. Manenzhe (2011) confirms this when he concluded that "the period after land transfer (settlement) is the most critical because the success of land reform is not measured by the number of hectares redistributed but also by the use that is made of the land required". It is, therefore, imperative to assess the impact of land reform programme on the livelihoods of the rural communities of Vhembe District in the Limpopo Province.

According to Makhado (2012: 01), the apartheid Native Land Act of 1913 resulted in the eviction of many black people from their productive land to less productive land, the promulgation of the 1913 Land Act served the interests of white farmers and black people were removed from their own land and became squatters and beggars on white-owned land and took no part in the economy. It is only since 1994 that different organizations, communities and departments have been trying to address the restoration of land through land redistribution, land restitution and land tenure, through land claims, by the people who were forcefully removed from their land. Section 25(7) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, provides that a person or community dispossessed of property after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided by the Act of Parliament, either to restitution of that property or to equitable redress. No provision of this section may impede the state from taking legislative and other measures to achieve land, water and related reform, in order to redress the results of past racial discrimination, provided that any departure from the provisions of this section is in accordance with the provisions of section 36(1). The section states that the rights mentioned in the Bill of Rights may be limited only in terms of law of general application to the extent that the limitation is reasonable and justifiable in an open and democratic society based on human dignity, equality and freedom, taking into account all relevant factors, including - the nature of the right, the importance of the purpose of the limitation, the nature and extent of the limitation, the relation between the limitation and its purpose, and less restrictive means to achieve its purpose.

To address the consequences of the apartheid legacy on land reform, the following three clauses were included:

- A person or community dispossessed of property after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided by an Act of Parliament, either to reconstitute of that property or to equitable redress;
- The state must take reasonably legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to foster conditions which enable citizens to gain access to land on an equitable basis and
- A person or community whose tenure is legally insecure as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided by an Act of Parliament, either to tenure which is legally secure or to comparable redress.

At the onset of South Africa's multiracial democratic elections in 1994, the plan of the ANC government was clear: they boldly wanted to pursue agrarian reform that would reconstitute the agricultural sector, replacing the then dominant large-scale commercial farming sector with smallholders (Aliber, Maluleke, Manenzhe, Paradza & Cousins, 1994: 22). Lahiff (2001: 01) indicates that with the transition to democracy, people hoped that an African National Congress-led government would deal with the history of dispossession and foster foundations for the social and economic upliftment of the rural and urban poor, through policies that are just and non-discriminatory. Such a hope was fuelled by the 1994 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), which included commitment to redistribute 30 percent of agriculture land within five years and make land reform 'the central and driving force of a programme of rural development'. Bester (2011: 03) argues that the transfer of 30% of the country's productive land before the year 2014 seems too improbable at that time and the date was later postponed to the year 2025. The ANC government believed that the RDP on land reform would be a policy framework to promote a fundamental transformation of the social, economic and moral foundation of South African Society, since it has a key component of meeting the people's basic needs and building the economy (Hall, 2004: 214).

The land reform policy as a cornerstone for the RDP in South Africa, needs to deal with: a more equitable distribution of land ownership, security of tenure for all, as well as land reform to reduce poverty and land dispossession. The centre of the land policy is the land reform programme, which has three main parts to it, namely, land restitution, land redistribution and land Tenure reform (DLA, 1997: 07).

- Land restitution aims to restore land or provide comparable redress for rights to land which were dispossessed after 19 June 1913.
- Land redistribution responds to various needs and aspirations of people for land, in both rural and urban areas, in an equitable and affordable manner, while at the same time, contributing to poverty alleviation and national economic growth.
- Land Tenure Reform aims to upgrade the different land tenure arrangements currently restricting tenure security for the previously-disadvantaged, in both urban and rural areas (Manenzhe, 2011: 02).

Ntsebeza & Hall (2007: 08) state that in 1994, South Africa, through the governing party, the African National Congress, embarked on an ambitious land-reform programme and began

implementing land-redistribution programmes. The objectives of the ANC-led government were to promote economic development, tackle poverty and inequality and promote rural livelihoods (Karriem & Hoskins, 2016:01). From 1995 to 1999, a government-redistribution policy on land was implemented through the Settlement Land Acquisition Grant which gave grants to people who wished to buy land on the open market (Matukane, 2011: 02). After realizing that there was a slow pace in the buying and selling, the land claim court was established to hear disputes arising from the laws underpinning the land reform initiatives. Lahiff (2001: 01) argues that since 1994, whatever standards one applies, the land reform programme has clearly not succeeded in achieving its objective and critical areas remain unaddressed.

In 1999 Ms. Thoko Didiza in her capacity as the Minister of Agriculture and Land Affairs (now Department of Rural Development and Land Reform), during her Budget Vote Speech of the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development (2019), called for a review of the reform and policy programmes to address major problems which had delayed land claims from being addressed. The latest policy document, in this regard, the Communal Land Rights Bill, has been criticized for increasing the power of traditional authorities over land administration in the former Bantustans (Weideman, 2004: 220).

Fay and James (2008:01) report that through land restitution, former landholders are able to reclaim spaces and territories which formed the basis of their past identities and livelihoods. Through the process, land is restored to its former owners, but Schoeman & Fourie (2008: 799) argue that even if the former owners can reclaim their land, lack of adequately-designed post-settlement structures have created major problems, since claimants are unable to use the land as a basis for their livelihood. Dekker (2003: 80) suggests that post-settlement support can be provided in the form of financial support, education, training and capacity-building, establishment and maintenance of physical infrastructure, as well as expertise in agricultural services. Manenzhe (2011: 01) stated that the land reform programmes have managed to return some land to previously landless and marginalized individuals and communities, but there is emerging evidence that the period after land transfer (settlement) is most critical because the success of the land reform is not only measured by the number of hectares redistributed but also by the use that is made of the land acquired.

Lahiff (2008: 01) maintains that there is consensus across the political and social spectra that the state's programme of land reform is in severe difficulty due to the slow pace of

redistribution, hence, people at the grassroots level are becoming worried and frustrated. This slow pace and delays in resolving the land issue and returning it to the rightful owners could be a ‘ticking time bomb’ in South Africa, which may finally explode, if nothing is done immediately (Dunkley, 1992: 66). Lipton (1996) in Manenzhe (2011:02) argues that the success of land reform is in its contribution to rural development; it needs to address the ‘four reforms’ in rural development which are: the distribution of land, agricultural research, rural infrastructure (including education) and markets.

1.3 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The rationale of the study arose from contacts and informal conversations with some land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe district. During these conversations, the beneficiaries indicated their uncertainty, fears and disappointment based on the challenges they have come across and the minimum support they have received with maintaining, just the land or existing projects, after they got the land back. Records indicate the handing over to beneficiaries of areas of land with productive projects which have now collapsed and are unproductive. It has, hence, become evident that there is a lack of an appropriate model for land restitution and a definite need for providing guidance to the state, policy makers and beneficiaries, through an empirical study. The need was further motivated by the fact that there are some, even though a few, projects manned by the land-reform beneficiaries which are performing well in South Africa.

Bernstein (1996: 63) stated that the agrarian situation in South Africa can be classified as both ‘extreme and exceptional’. His explanation is that in the world there is an extreme and exceptional unequal distribution of income and resultant poverty. South Africa has one of the most extreme unequal distribution of land with 60 000 white farms owning most of the land; this is an exceptional picture of land ownership. It is, however, generally acknowledged that there has been acceleration in the settlement of restitution claims in the second term of the democratic government (1999-2004). Restitution redresses the injustice of the past and it brings about changes in rural societies, through integration of economic and social objectives in seeking to create better and diverse livelihoods for poor people (Matukane, 2011: 03). The main aim of the land restitution process was to transfer land to the historically-disadvantaged black citizens, to improve people’s livelihoods and stimulate the local economy by compensating people for/or returning land unjustly taken during the apartheid era (Lubambo, 2011: 01). Werner (2001) posits that access to land provides opportunities for sustainable

means of livelihoods, enhances dignity and well-being, as well as resulting in economic empowerment of previously-disadvantaged groups and communities.

Land reform formed an important part of the political negotiations during the transition to democracy and the adoption of a new constitution. The policies adopted by the democratic government since 1994 are based on using land reform as a means of fostering national reconciliation and stability, economic growth and development. Rungasamy (2011: 05), however, argues that most land reform beneficiaries, who received and/or were resettled on land, continue to remain in abject poverty, are unemployed and many are even in a worse off position than before. Academics, like Makhado, (2011), Walker, (2005) and Hall, (2004) maintain that beneficiaries face challenges with regard to post-settlement in South African land reform programmes, since these are limited to the mere transfer of land with limited equity and absence of clear and coherent strategy on post-transfer support (Mandiwana, 2014:18). Major investments in complementary investment, training, technical assistance, and provision of resources beyond the land transfer, however, are fundamental to the attainment of greater equity and efficiency benefits (Deininger, 2003; Hall, 2003; Lahiff, 2001). The post-settlement stage under the land reform processes is a critical one because the success is not only measured by the number of farms and hectares redistributed, but also by what happens when people are on the land, in terms of the White Paper on South African Land Policy (DLA, 1997). Since the commencement of the implementation of the land reform programme, debates have centred on the slow pace of land reform, particularly, on settling land claims and securing tenure rights for farm dwellers, as well as what happens once the land has been given back to the beneficiaries.

Land reform is generally understood as the redistribution of rights to land for the benefit of the landless, tenants and farm labourers (Adams, 1995: 01). Ghimire (2001: 03) takes the definition further by stating that it involves a significant change in the agrarian structure resulting in increased access to land by the rural poor and security of land rights and titles. He further includes improvement in production structures, for example, access to agricultural inputs, markets and services, such as availability of extension offices, training for small farmers, rural workers and other beneficiaries during the post-land reform period, as forming a critical part of the land reform procedures. Among the reasons for advocating land reform and tenure security is the fact that access to land by the rural population should be an essential human right and a way of showing respect for human dignity, therefore, it also provides the

rural poor with the possibility of access to shelter, food, employment and improved livelihood. Land reform was propelled on to the development agenda to destroy the undemocratic concentrations of power which was based on skewed land-ownership patterns attributed to racially-based policies and the former colonial and apartheid government (Lubambo, 2011: 01).

According to Rungasamy (2011: 01) the anticipation was that through the land reform programme, there would be equitable land redistribution which would help in eradicating poverty and improve the quality of life for the beneficiaries in a sustainable way. This is due to the fact that land reform aims to contribute to sustainable economic development, give households the opportunity to engage in productive land use and to increase employment opportunities through encouraging greater investment in the rural economy.

“The land reform programmes enable local economies to adjust more successfully to macro-economic reforms and to promote individual self-reliance, entrepreneurship, expansion of the market, competitiveness, reduction of unemployment, and sustainable growth. The latter supposedly, promotes endogenous development, local self-reliance, empowerment, participation, local co-operation and redefines work and sustainability” (James, 2000: 22). Crothers, (2002:57), however, notes that the concerns from the beneficiaries, surrounding the return of dispossessed land, needs to be based and controlled by the context within which the land was returned; this, thus, can be seen as an important determinant of the land reform success.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The newly-elected democratic government in 1994 inherited the worst racially-skewed land distribution in the world, with the dispossessor and dispossessed having extreme different views on the matter of land ownership and reform (Makhado, 2012: 03). The dispossessor, who constitutes the minority white people believe that they are entitled to the ownership of the land they occupy, while most dispossessed people, former black owners of the land, are battling to get their land back (Makhado, 2012: 03). Racially-based land policies have been a cause of insecurity, landlessness and poverty amongst black people and a cause of inefficient economic development. Yet since 1994, whatever standards one applies, the land reform programme has clearly not succeeded in achieving its objective and critical concern areas remain unaddressed (Lahiff, 2001: 01). In the cities, the sprawling shack settlement continue to expand, beset by poverty, crime and a lack of basic services; most rural people who are poverty-stricken, remain

crowded into the homelands, where rights to land are often unclear or contested and the system of land administration is in disarray (Lahiff, 2001: 01).

Land reform in South Africa is slow and the whole notion of land redistribution has not made any considerable impact in reshaping the racially-skewed pattern of land ownership or any improvements in the economic conditions of the land-restitution beneficiaries; this is because poverty levels among them still remain high (Makhado, 2012: 01). Land redistribution, ideally, should allow disadvantaged people to buy and have access to urban and rural land for residential and productive purposes to increase their livelihood (Matukane, 2011: 15).

In terms of the Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994, Section 2, a person shall be entitled “to enforce restitution of a right to land if: he or she is a person or community contemplated in section 121(2) of the Constitution or a direct descendant of such a person, and the claim for such restitution is lodged within three years after a date fixed by the Minister by notice in the Gazette”. Land restitution can take the following forms: restoration of the land from which the claimants were dispossessed; provision of alternative land; payments of compensation in a just and equitable way or combination of the above; such claimants have priority access to government housing and land development programmes.

In terms of the White Paper on South African Land Policy (DLA, 1997: 05), land should be distributed more equitably, poverty eradicated and the overall quality of life of the beneficiaries improved in a sustainable way. The White Paper on South African Land Policy (1997) sets out the vision and implementation strategy for South Africa’s land policy; a policy that should build reconstruction and stability, contribute to economic growth and bolster household welfare. The relevant question at this point is - Does the common land-use objective of beneficiaries of land restitution match their share of historical rights to the returned land? Mandiwana (2014: 19) states that, although, the community of Vhembe has successfully reclaimed its land, very little seem to have been done in as far as the improvement of the livelihood of the poor masses is concerned. Dispossession and the forced removal resulted not only in the physical dichotomy of people along racial lines, but also extreme land shortage and insecurity of tenure for much of the indigenous population (Mudau, Mukonza & Ntshangase, 2018: 580).

The main problem to be investigated is the post-settlement challenges faced by land restitution beneficiaries and how access to land, can and has contributed, to poverty alleviation and rural

development in previously-disadvantaged dispossessed black communities in South Africa. The study would also determine if the present policies and programmes on land reform can deal with - the injustices of racially-based land dispossession, the inequitable distribution of land ownership and the need for sustainable use of land for the eradication of poverty - while, also assisting with rural development and agrarian reform.

The study intends, therefore, to ascertain why, despite all the provisions made, there are still land restitution projects that are collapsing and how this situation is impacting on sustainable economic development of the beneficiaries. In other words, the investigation will identify causes why most of the land restitution projects that beneficiaries inherited are not as productive as they used to be, and recommend solutions for the current challenges and the way forward. According to Van der Westhuizen (2005: 09) these challenges have impacted negatively on economic development and livelihood of the beneficiaries; the rural poor at whom the land reform was directed, remain poor, and although progress has been made in land restitution claims, the process is full of complex issues that hamper progress. Makombe (2018: 1402) states that on restitution projects, the maintaining of production has been highly problematic; this means that there is very little or no impact on livelihoods from these restitution measures, as there are still extremely high levels of rural poverty and unemployment (Walker, 2005: 658). According to Hoaes (2011:06) despite people being initially empowered through land redistribution, most people are still poor or are even worse off than before, although, the general view is that access to land will empower people, hence, address poverty issues.

Manenzhe (2007: 04) observes that there is lack of co-ordination of government support to new land owners and where there is, little provision has been made for post-restoration support by the government; lack of such relevant intervention, thereby, remains the most urgent challenge. Hull, Babalola and Whittal (2019: 20) acknowledge that success and sustainability are dependent on beneficiaries' ability to access reform programs, and on the support they receive from government. Poor governance, leadership and management of inherited or new projects can lead to a collapse of the whole concept of redistribution.

1.5 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to investigate the post-settlement challenges faced by land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District Municipality which would inform the development of mechanisms that can be used to support beneficiaries for sustainability, after settlement. A sociological perspective is used to draw from empirical realities of communities that have successfully repossessed the land and are thriving from the initiative. To realize this aim, specific objectives are stated in the ensuing paragraph.

1.6 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives will help realize the main aim of the study:

- To determine the post-settlement challenges facing land restitution beneficiaries in Vhembe District Municipality area.
- To assess the effects of post-settlement challenges on sustainable economic development in the area.
- To design strategies to curb the challenges facing land restitution beneficiaries

1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were used to guide this investigation:

- What are the post-settlement challenges facing the land restitution beneficiaries in Vhembe District Municipality Area?
- What are the effects of the land restitution post-settlement challenges on the communities' sustainable economic development?
- Which strategies can be used to curb challenges facing land restitution beneficiaries?

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

A study of land reform/restitution is important for post-apartheid South Africa, because of the huge challenges that confront the government in its attempt to undo the imbalances of the past, especially, when it comes to land dispossession. The land question affects everyone in this country, although the majority of landless people are Black South Africans who were dispossessed of and removed from their land under colonialism and during the apartheid era (Lahiff, 2001: 01).

The study would add to the body of knowledge on restitution and its management in similar research domains and stimulate debate among academics, NGOs, politicians, and public officials in the local and district municipalities. Findings would - assist in defining the role of the state in post-settlement support and efficient use of repossessed land, contribute to better management of post-settlement challenges for land restitution beneficiaries, as well as inform the development of mitigating initiatives against any negative impact of repossession on sustainable economic development. In addition, this study may also help the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform in managing post-settlement challenges, including calling for strategic partnership and coming up with a good model for funding. Policymakers, civil society, land reform beneficiaries and government officials should engage on these issues, as in many cases, the success of land reform is judged by what happens after land is given to the poor people who previously did not have access to it. The findings could inform policy makers in their development of correct strategies for post-settlement issues, such as - how beneficiaries can maximally use little or poor infrastructure on farms, how to deal with tensions and conflicts amongst themselves and plan successfully.

Research on this topic is extremely relevant in the Vhembe District because the beneficiaries of most land claims are the poor black rural communities, such as those in the Vhembe District who need tangible support to manage their projects for sustainable economic development. This study, hence, would act as a flagship for further research into challenges for communities with similar encounters by suggesting strategies that they can use for the management and sustainability of their restitution projects to bring about sustainable economic development. These communities will be able to plan, set clear and coherent visions and manage their land and projects properly. When it comes to planning for local economic development, land becomes very critical resource as the Vhembe District's economic pillars are agriculture, mining and tourism (all of which are dependent on land). The findings will be useful to

development planning agencies and inform different development strategies designed for the beneficiaries, as the results would also demonstrate that, although, the desires of the different groups of the land restitution beneficiaries can be different, socio-economic rights and democracy cannot be separated.

Finally, the study will give insight into the sociological applicability of the livelihood theory in explaining social change. A well-planned and implemented land reform programme has the potential to contribute to local economic development and fight poverty through its multiplier effect (Manenzhe, 2007: 09), therefore, the necessity for this research.

1.9 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

Baron (2012) in Mufamadi (2017) explains that delimitation describes the scope of the study or establishes parameters or limits for the study. Delimitation sets limits on aspects such as - the sample size, extent of the geographical region from which data will be collected, responses formats including data collecting instruments, or the time frame for the study - in order to make the study feasible, although, examples from other districts can be cited. The study is restricted to the Vhembe District, hence, covers only geographical areas which fall within the District; this means generalization concerning challenges facing land restitution beneficiaries in other parts of the Limpopo Province may not be possible. Only post-settlement challenges facing land restitution projects and their impact on sustainable economic development form part of the study. In addition, only officials who work in the Departments of Rural Development and Land reform, Agriculture and Local Economic Development, Environment and Tourism and the four LED managers in the four local municipalities in the Vhembe District were included as participants on the research study.

1.10 DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL CONCEPTS

According to Punch (2005:35) definition of operational concepts of a research assists in an understanding of the topic, explicitly. The definitions will clarify concepts, theories and perceptions of different scholars as used in the study. The key concepts are:

Community: Turner (2013: 519) defines a community as any group or portion of a group of persons whose rights to land are derived from shared rules determining access to land held in common by such group. According to McKay (1999), a community comprises of a group of people who have certain things in common. The community can be loose-knit or close-knit, depending on the environment in which they are found; a community is said to be close-knit

when there is a strong bond. In this study a community is any crowd of persons whose rights to land are derived from common procedures determining access to land held in shared trust by a group and includes part of any such group; it also refers to a group of people who lived together before they were dispossessed of their land and who share common values and vision.

Development: Stewart, Kellerman, Kotze & Mentz (1997: 01) defined development as positive social, economic and political change in a country or community. Development is defined by Todaro and Smith (2003: 792) as a process of improving the quality of life. Fox and Van Rooyen (2004: 102) extended the notion of development by defining it as a process of improving the quality of all human lives through raising people's living standards. Brookfield (1975: 36) explains development as progress toward a complex of welfare goals such as reduction of poverty and unemployment, and diminution of inequality. In this study, development, means reduction of poverty, unemployment and improvement of the quality of life of the land restitution beneficiaries from the land reform process.

Economic Development: Eloff, Nel, Pretorius and Van Zyl (2012: 175) define, economic development, as a process of transformation that leads to inhabitants of a country experiencing higher standard of living, more employment, government intervention and less poverty. Eloff *et al.*, (2013: 110) add that economic development is as an improvement in the living standard of most people in the country – improvement in the socio-economic circumstances through education, literacy, health and employment. Akongdit (2013: 01) explains economic development as the expansion of capacities that contribute to the advancement of society through the realization of individual and community potential and is measured by a sustained increase in prosperity and quality of life through innovation and mutual gain for the public and the private sector. For this study, economic development, means the improvement of the living standard of the land restitution beneficiaries, through using the acquired land productively to eradicate poverty and create employment.

Economic Growth: According to Rauch (2011: 08), economic growth is a term used to indicate the increase of per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) or other measure of aggregate income. It is often measured as the rate of changes in GDP. Eloff, Nel, Pretorius and Van Zyl (2012: 110) conceptualise economic growth as an increase in the production of goods or services in a country over a certain period, while Haller (2012: 66) sees it as a process of increasing the sizes of national economies, the macro-economic indicators, especially the gross domestic product per capita. In this study, economic growth refers to the quality of goods and

services produced and the output which is able to satisfy the needs of the land restitution beneficiaries.

Land: For Crozier, Preston and Glade (2005: 448), land is the solid part of the surface of the earth as distinct from seas and lakes; Wehmeier (nd: 179) states land as a piece of ground used for a particular purpose. For this study, the term, land, will refer to the solid part of the earth's territorial possessions which can be used for agricultural purposes, production, job creation and poverty alleviation.

Land reform: Land reform is seen by Cousin (2000: 67) as a process controlled by the statutory division of agricultural land and its allocation to landless people. Todaro and Smith (2015: 259) define land reform as a deliberate attempt to reorganize and transform existing agrarian systems with the intention of improving the distribution of agricultural incomes, thus, fostering rural development. Moyo (1995: 73) notes land reform as a change in the legal or customary institution of property rights and duties, which define the rights of those who own or use agricultural land. Themeli (2018: 12) indicates land reform as a distributive policy process which is carried out to meet certain goals depending on the history of the community. According to Hull *et al.*, (2019: 01) land reform is understood to include the related concepts of land redistribution, land restitution, land tenure and land administration reform. For this study, land reform, means giving back land to those who were dispossessed of it, so that they can benefit out of it.

Land redistribution: Land distribution is elucidated by Lahiff (2008: 03) as a system of discretionary grants that assist certain categories of people to purchase or otherwise acquire land and to Van der Westhuizen (2005: 01), land redistribution is the allocation of land to a group of people. For this study, land redistribution, is a measure designed to affect a more equitable distribution of land, especially, by government action.

Land restitution: Lyne and Darroch (2003: 01) define, 'land restitution' as a process, whereby people who can prove that they were dispossessed of their land after 1913 can regain their land or receive due finance compensation for it. Adams (2000: 07) states it as a process aimed at restoring land or providing other compensation, to people disadvantaged by conflict or by what is seen to be unjust expropriation. The Restitution of Land Rights (Act No. 22 of 1994) states that land restitution is the - restoration of the land from which the claimants were dispossessed, the provision of alternative land or the payment of compensation, as well as the offering of

alternative relief, such as packages containing a combination of the above or sharing of the land. For this study, land restitution, means addressing the loss of land rights through compensation for land of which the claimants were dispossessed, through the transfer of white-owned commercial farmland to landless locals.

Land tenure: Kariuki (2009: 155) defines, land tenure, as the terms and conditions on which land is held, used, transacted or transmitted. For Bassett and Crummy (1993: 22), land tenure refers to a re-organization of tenure arrangements of land holdings that often assume two basic forms: the breaking up of large landholdings and their redistribution, and the consolidation of fragmented holdings into a single field. Themeli (2018: 41) states, land tenure, as situations in which land is detained, used and managed based on regulation of terms of contract amongst land-owners and tenants. Land tenure is a planned change to the terms and conditions that recognize land rights and the transfer of power to the land-rights' holders (Hull, Babalola & Whittal, 2019: 05). For this study, land tenure is providing people with secure tenure where they live or farm, to prevent arbitrary evictions and fulfil the constitutional requirement that all South Africans have access to legally-secure tenure in land.

Livelihood: From Chamber and Conway (1992: 89), livelihood comprises of the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims, and access) and activities required for a means of living. De Satge, Holloway, Mullins, Nchabaleng & Ward (2002: 04) clarify livelihoods as people's capacity to generate and maintain their means of living and enhance their well-being and that of future generation. This study refers to, livelihood, as a means towards emancipation in the form of education, skills and productive inherited projects which will contribute in the reduction of poverty through the creation of sustainable jobs; it is a means that enables people to earn a living to ensure that their basic needs are covered.

Household: Masini (1991: 67) defines the term 'household', in all its different cultural connotations, as the primary social living unit that encapsulates a cluster of activities of people who live together most of the time and provide mutual physical, socio-psychological and development support and functions within the broader organisation and environment of the community. Beaman and Dillon (2011: 09) continue that a household is a group of persons related or not, living under the same roof, under the responsibility of a head whose authority is acknowledged by all the members. In this study, a household, is defined as a unit of people who participate in decisions and are affected by the results of these decisions.

Human Development: The notion of human development is acknowledged as the process of enlarging people's choices and these choices primarily reflect the desire to lead a long and healthy life, acquire basic education, and have access to resources essential for a decent standard of living in an enabling environment (Nayak, 2008: 02). In other words, human development refers to the development of human beings in their communities, socially, economically and environmentally (Friedman, Ranby & Varga, 2013:32). In this study, human development, means having more choices available for the disadvantaged individuals; choices which lead to better opportunities, therefore, make the land restitution beneficiaries better than they were before the dispossession of their land.

Management: According to Broodryk (2005: 41) management refers to a broad type of involvement in the various activities of an organization. Smit and Cronje (1992: 04) elucidate management as a process whereby people in leading positions utilize human or other resources as efficiently as possible in order to provide certain products or services with the aim of fulfilling particular needs and achieving the stated goal of the institution. In this study, the Vhembe democratically-elected CPAs' executive members guided by the Constitution and legislations, as management, should be able to lead and manage efficiently the resources provided and guide the beneficiaries towards a common goal.

Poverty: Lack of survival requirements, food, clothing, shelter, and income and health facilities is classified as 'poverty' (Themeli, 2018: 75). Poverty, thus, is a situation of being unable to meet the minimum levels of income, food, clothing, healthcare, shelter and other essentials (Todaro & Smith, 2015: 04). In this study, poverty, is the inability to attain a minimum standard of living measured in terms of levels of alienation from community, food insecurity, crowded homes, use of basic forms of energy and lack of adequately-paid and secure jobs.

Productivity: In Etekpe (2012: 111) productivity refers to the production of goods and services in abundance or applying factors of production to ensure a favourable output. Gordon, Zhao & Grettem (2015:01), continue, adding that productivity depends on the efficiency with which firms, organizations, industries and the economy as a whole, convert inputs (labour, capital and raw materials) into output; it measures how efficiently we use other resources to produce output. In this study, production, will mean harvests and/or returns gained from beneficiaries' inherited projects.

Rural: Wiggins & Proctor (2001: 56) mention that there is no exact definition of the term ‘rural’ conceptually or empirically, although, rural areas are recognisable as spaces, where human settlement and infrastructures occupy only small patches of the landscape; fields and pastures, forests, water, mountains, and deserts mostly dominate the landscape; areas that have a relatively low population density compared to cities, areas where agriculture and related activities usually dominate the landscape and economy. Du Plessis, Beshin, Boilman & Clemenson (2002:08), maintain that the word ‘rural’ designates sparsely-populated lands lying outside urban areas. In this study, rural, means the undeveloped small spaces given to the black communities under the Permission to Occupy by the tribal authority.

Rural development: The development of rural non-farmers’ industries and the capacity of the rural sector to sustain and accelerate the pace of improvement overtime, is known as ‘rural development’ (Todaro & Smith, 2015:439). Rural development benefits rural population; it is a sustained improvement of the population’s standard of living or welfare (Anriquez & Stamoulis, 2007:02). Harris (1982:14) elaborates that rural areas - have a relatively low population density compared to cities, are places where agriculture and related activities usually dominate the landscape and economy, where transport and communications need to cover relatively large distances making travelling and services provision relatively difficult and costly. For Friedman, Ranby, and Varga (2013:32), rural development refers to a process of change and improvement in rural areas and this helps people to have a better quality of life. In this study, rural development is the process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of people living in rural areas which are relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas; the process focuses on changing of lives of the disadvantaged communities based in rural villages, for people who rely on land for their survival.

Sustainable development: Pilane, Strydom and Viljoen (2011: 123) note sustainable development as progress maintained at a certain rate or level. Treurnicht (2008: 390) defines the term as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Repetto (1986: 15) elaborates the concept as a development strategy that manages all assets, natural resources and human resources, as well as financial and physical assets for increasing communities’ long-term wealth and well-being. In this study, sustainable development will mean the capacity of the present generation of the land restitution beneficiaries being able to use the resources in an accountable and responsible way without any destruction, so that the future generation is able to continue from the legacy left by their predecessors.

1.11 ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

The thesis is organized in the following manner:

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

This chapter provides a general overview of the study including the introduction and background of the study, followed by research problem statement, research question, and purpose of the research, specific objectives and significance of the study.

CHAPTER 2: CONCEPTUALIZING LAND REFORM WITHIN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION CONTEXT

The chapter unpacks the evolution of Public Administration as a field of study focusing on its origin, function and development in South Africa. Literature regarding land restitution post-settlement challenges facing beneficiaries is presented with emphasis on their impact on sustainable economic development within the practice of public administration.

CHAPTER 3: THE STATE OF DISCOURSE ON LAND RESTITUTION

This chapter presents the state of discourse in land reform and restitution. It establishes the salient aspects that have dominated the discourse in relation to the sociological perspective that has grounded the study. In presenting the theoretical framework adopted, there are discussions of the gaps in the literature.

CHAPTER 4: LAND REFORM IN NEIGHBOURING COUNTRIES

The history of South Africa, Zimbabwe and Namibia is narrated in relation to land reform and ownership; the discourse further explores the post-settlement challenges for land restitution beneficiaries, in the Vhembe district.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The chapter presents the research design and methodology (sampling, designing the questions for interview, interviews and designing and administering the questionnaire) and investigates the management of post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries. The justification for the instruments used and the reliability and validity of the instruments are also discussed. Ethical consideration, recording and transcribing of the data are also detailed.

CHAPTER 6: DATA PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS

The findings on the post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries and their impact on sustainable economic development are presented in this chapter. The results are analysed and given further meaning by integrating them with the literature.

CHAPTER 7: FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The chapter present the main findings, recommendations and conclusion on the suggested intervention strategies to enforce sustainable economic development; further research is identified which would focus on the impact of land restitution post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries. This chapter summarizes the main findings as reflected from the integrated and analysed data in chapter 6 of the study; based on this empirical evidence presented, recommendations are made.

1.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter is an introduction of the study. It explains the whole research project, background details were also given. The next chapter elaborates on the conceptualization of land reform within the Public Administration context. These discussions will focus on - the origins of public administration, the importance of public administration, various views and approaches to public administration as well as its generic functions, such as public policy.

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUALIZING LAND REFORM WITHIN THE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION CONTEXT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the conceptualization of land reform within the public administration context. To do that, Public Administration as both field and practice will, firstly, be presented as a premise and framework that embrace the whole study. Public Administration underpins all development processes that seek to address the three imperatives of - poverty, unemployment and inequality as contained in the National Development Plan (NDP) in South Africa (Planning Commission, 2012: 109). Public Administration is about the activities of government since it is about public policy, which is a tool for resource allocation channeled through meeting governmental goals and objectives (Oni, 2016: 325). Du Toit and Van der Walt (1993: 93) state that for any government to govern, the majority of society's needs must be met wherever possible and by so doing public administration takes place. Public administration is essential in addressing many issues of governance and for the purpose of this study, it looks at post-settlement challenges facing beneficiaries in an attempt to achieve the objectives of land reform. This chapter discusses the origin and definition of Public Administration by outlining its objectives. Policy-making processes, as a function of public administration in relation to Land Reform is discussed as well as the structure of government and role of the government in policy implementation in the land reform process.

2.2 ORIGIN OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration is associated with Woodrow Wilson who was a Political Science lecturer at Pinetown University and later became the President of USA; he was considered as the author of the separation of politics and administration in government (Uwizeyimana, 2013: 165). The beginning of the conscientious study of Public Administration, hence, is credited to Woodrow Wilson (Henry, 2004: 29; Shafritz & Hyde, 1992: 01). In Wilson's (1941: 486) own admission as well as in recognising the essential role played by the Cameralists, he notes that the science of administration has its origins in Europe, in countries with a different political and cultural background from that of America. In 1887, Woodrow Wilson in his article, The study of Administration, debated on the following issues: separation between politics and public administration, consideration and reaching effective management by training civil servants and assessing their quality of the government from a commercial perspective, as well as a

comparative analysis between political and private organisations and political schemes (Woodrow, 1887:01). Henry (1986: 28), states that Woodrow Wilson was concerned with what the government does properly and successfully and how it can do these with efficiency. Woodrow Wilson (1887) presented several dilemmas involving political and administrative functions that try to address the traditional concerns about the separation of powers, among the various branches of government. He believed that public administration had universal aspects that were applicable to all levels of government.

Frank Goodnow (1900) and Leonard White (1900) identified public administration's principles dealing with two distinct functions of government namely: policy development and policy execution (John, 1996: 344). The founding of public administration led to the formation of public service and the training of committees between 1912 and 1914. In 1926 public administration was given the academic legitimacy through Leonard White's publication "Introduction to the study of Public Administration" (John, 1996: 344-345). This indicated that policy development and execution are important in public administration and public administrators should understand policies and procedures in executing public administration programmes. If the public officials understand the necessity of government programmes, the policies of areas they operate in and obtain relevant training, they could become experts and work effectively and efficiently. Mutuvhi (2011: 35) suggests that for public administration to function properly, it needs scholars who are concerned with developing a pure science of administration and with advocating public policy absorbing economics and sociology as well.

2.3 CONCEPTUALIZATION OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AS A DISCIPLINE

The term 'Public Administration' with capital *P* and a capital *A* refers to the academic discipline in universities, restructured technicon's and technical colleges (Van Wyk, Van der Molen & Van Rooyen, 2002: 60). Public Administration is thus concerned with scholarly research about implementation of government policy by practitioners, alternatively known as "public officials" (Botes & Roux in Botes *et al.*, 1992: 257). Pauw (1999: 28) defines Public Administration as an organized non-political executive state function, while Gildenhuis (1988:14) describes it as the detailed and systematic execution of public law. Gildenhuis (1988: 12) continues by noting Public Administration as a field of business and the objective of administrative studies is to rescue executive methods from the confusion and costliness of empirical experiment and set them upon foundations laid deep in stable principle. Any attempt at discussing Public Administration as an academic discipline should begin by first defining

the parameters and boundaries of the subject, which delimits and differentiates it from other scientific and humanistic disciplines (Stillman, 1984:01). The foregoing, therefore, implicitly states that the boundaries of the discipline can be delineated. In his introductory statement, Wilson (1941: 481) says that a practical science such as administration cannot be studied unless “there is a need to know it”. By the “need to know it”, Wilson (1941: 481) refers to the need to define its boundaries, which will differentiate it from other disciplines.

Public Administration may also be defined as “...all processes, organizations, and individuals (the latter acting in official positions and roles) associated with carrying out laws and other rules adopted or issued by legislatures, executives and courts” (Gordon in Stillman, 1984: 2-3). Gordon further explains that this definition should be understood “...to include considerable administrative involvement in formulation as well as implementation of legislative and administrative orders...” Wilson (1941: 496) defines Public Administration as “detailed and systematic execution of public law”. According to White (1955: 01) “public administration consists of all those operations having for their purpose the fulfilment or enforcement of public policy”. Starling(2002) in Stillman (1984:02-03) defines public administration as a “phenomenon that concerns the accomplishing side of government, that comprises all those activities involved in carrying out the policies of elected officials and some activities associated with the development of those policies and that comes after the last campaign promise and election-night cheer”.

Fry (1989: 13) maintains that Public Administration has borrowed much of its body of knowledge from other disciplines, such as economics, business administration, sociology, psychology and political science and “draws what cohesiveness it possesses more from its object of analysis than its intellectual parentage”. He argues that the field of Public Administration has tended to grow more in a cumulative manner, rather than by substituting new ideas for old ones.

2.4 CONCEPTUALIZATION OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AS PRACTICE

The term “public administration” with a lower case *p* and lower case *a*, refers to the activities performed by officials in supervisory posts, both strategic and operational within the public sector (Van Wyk, Van der Molen & Van Rooyen, 2002: 60, Coetzee,2012:30). Selepe (2009: 46) postulates that public administration is aimed at policy formulation and execution. According to Swain (1987: 01) “public administration involves getting done what governments do”. Public administration is a special field of activities characterized by historical foundations,

which serve as guidelines and norms according to which the activities of public employees have to be guided (Hanekom & Thornhill, 1995: 18).

Public administration is responsible for policy formulation and an implementation of government policies and as an academic discipline that studies this implementation and prepares civil servants for working in the public service. Nigro and Nigro (1970) in Marume (2016:17) explains public administration as a co-operative effort in a public setting which covers the executive, legislative and judicial branches of government and it has an important role in the formulation of public policy. Public administration is the system of structures and processes, operating within a particular society and environment, with the objective of facilitating the formulation of appropriate governmental policy, and the efficient execution of any formulated policy (Fox, Schwella & Wissink, 1991:01). The state and society must support each other to manage, for example, poverty in order to achieve welfare for the people (Djoharwinarlin, 2012:325). Civil servants, through the study of public administration assist managers to improve personnel, organization and methods of government offices. According to Stillman (1991: 02-03) public administration is all about the management of scarce resources to accommodate the goals of public policy. He considers public administration as a phenomenon that involves coordination of all organized activity having as its purpose the implementation of public policy. The co-ordination function as described above is what brings about a similarity between public and private institutions, since both require co-ordination of effort in order to achieve organisational objectives (Cloete, 1994: 61).

Cloete's (1994: 58-59) generic framework, puts the locus of public administration within politics, as it clearly demonstrates the interface between politics and administration. Public administration is a cooperative group effort in a public setting that covers all three branches - executive, legislative, and judicial - and their inter-relationships. Public administration has an important role in the formulation of public policy, thus, as part of the political process, it is closely associated with numerous private groups and individuals in providing services to the community (Matshego, 2011: 56). McCurdy (1986: 31) postulates that public administration involves the activities of government institutions, and administration is concerned with the executive and operative aspects of government activities (Wilson, 1941: 482), and is part and parcel of every activity of government (Lynn, 2001: 153). White (1955: 01) stated that public administration consists of all those operations, having for their purpose, the fulfilment or enforcement of public policy. Public policies emanate from the will and desires of the

electorates as a mandate to be carried out by the elected executives or political party. This opinion on the locus of public administration is supported by White (1955: 01), however he assumes that issues, as well as the administrative processes that public administration has to be concerned with, are the same, irrespective of the sphere of government. Public Administration studies the different processes and functions, including managerial functions, carried out in government institutions to achieve objectives.

Mutuvhi (2011: 34) argues that since public administration exists to support the political will, it is imperative that decisions taken should support the needs, demands and expectations of the public and this will put political parties in a position to lead, that is, to govern. Politicians, therefore, should be trained to understand public administration as a strategic function towards delivering services to the public. According to Starling (2002: 01-02) public administration concerns the accomplishing side of government; this comprises all those activities involved in carrying out the policies of elected officials and some activities associated with the development of those policies and that comes after the last campaign promise and election-night cheer. Public administration in general could be regarded as an extension of governance (Mutuvhi, 2011: 23).

Public administration consists of all operations, for the purpose of fulfilment or enforcement of public policy (Marume, 2016: 16); it is the government in action, thus, the most visible side of the government. Public administration is an extension of the process of governing, which is defined as the act of exercising the authority of the state on behalf of persons within the political community (Mc Curdy, 1986: 31). Hanekom (1997) in Hanekom & Thornhill, (1995: 20) is of the opinion that the study of public administration should focus on - the purpose of public institutions, administrative means for achieving the purposes and the role-defined power of bureaucrats in achieving positive results as envisaged by government. These definitions locate public administration within the political school of thought, emphasising the policy formulation role of public officials, and bringing into focus the managerial functions of ensuring co-operative group effort (Matshego, 2011: 56).

2.5 THE IMPORTANCE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Cloete (1994: 47) states that the goals of the field of public administration are related to the democratic values of improving equality, justice, efficiency and effectiveness of public service. According to Kalimullah, Alam, Kabir and Nour (2012: 04) public administration is the organization and management of men and materials to achieve the purpose of government; it is concerned with the conduct of management of the public's business and the implementation of public policy. Public administration enables different government institutions at national, provincial and local levels to achieve their objectives. Stillman (1980) relates public administration to the activities of the executive branch of government that deals with the formulation and implementation of public policies as well as involvement of human behaviour and cooperative human effort.

Selepe (2009: 46) posits that the primary objective of public administration is the achieving the most efficient utilization of resources by government officials and employees, informed by policies and procedures in carrying out their administrative duties and responsibilities. Public administration has to do with the implementation of government policy, to improve the general welfare of the population and its fundamental goal is to advance management and policies so that government can function. Mutuvhi (2011: 46-47) identifies objectives of public administration as: effective implementation of policies, provision of basic services, effective and efficient utilization of public funds, poverty alleviation, cubing unemployment and creating employment. The reason for public administration as highlighted by Du Toit and van der Walt (1992: 52) can be attributed mainly to a need for trained people employed in government institutions, people who can conduct research in the field to apply in practice and improving public administration in general.

Public administration is a special field of activities characterized by historical foundations, which serve as guidelines and norms according to which the activities of public employees have to be guided (Hanekom & Thornhill: 1995: 18). Jacobsen (2001: 09) states that public administration provides neutral competence to the policy process and Demir (2009: 09) adds that public administrators need to take a broader and more active role in policy making while the elected officials continue to retain their political prerogative in formal policymaking and mission formulation. Demir (2009: 06) argues that the increasing complexity and dynamism of policymaking in political, social and economic environments requires cooperation between the policy-makers and policy implementers. Public administration helps members of the political

community to search for effective solution to any policy problems and is the machinery for implementing government policy, as well as the integral processes through which the government performs its functions. It is a system of roles and role relationships that are defined in as clear and practicable terms as possible and in as much details as possible the intentions and programmes of government (Oyedele, 2015: 07). According to Stillman (1980: 03) the effectiveness of the policies formulated or generated for society depends on how effectively these policies are put into practice and Mutuvhi (2011: 39) adds that policies which are not effectively implemented have no meaning.

Cloete and Wissink, (2000: 78) contend that the primary task of government is to create optimal conditions for sustainable development. A government's policy objectives should, therefore, keep track of needs and demands in its society, and adapt to changing levels of development in that society. It is, therefore, imperative that the policies of government on the issue of land reform should be such that they can address the needs of the people and the imbalances that were created by the policies of the apartheid government on land dispossession. Thornhill (2008: 02) emphasizes the demand for efficient and effective public administration and management. The success of public administration is based on how the public administrators implement any policy that was formulated by the politicians, but in the process of analysis, the administrators are able to give inputs to the politicians for certain things to be corrected. The politicians take an active role in the formulation of policy, but the administrators have got the art of drawing that policy because they studied Public Administration. Ayedele (2015: 28) states that public administration can never be separated from policy formulation since civil servants give shape to stated policies through exercise of choice and judgement through their suggestive, analytical and interpretative roles. Public administration is a broad-spectrum combination of practice and theory which aim - to promote public-decision making which is sensitive to the needs and aspirations of society, cultivating a greater understanding of the relationship between government and governed society by establishing managerial practices directed at efficiency, effectiveness and a sensitivity to people's innermost needs. According to Selepe (2009:46) the primary objective of public administration assists in the efficient utilisation of resources at the disposal of officials and employees guided by policies and procedures in carrying out their administrative responsibilities. Public administration assists the government, thus, to attain its goals and become a crucial part of service delivery based on governance, public policies, management, leadership, human resources and public resources.

2.6 VARIOUS VIEWS AND APPROACHES TO PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

A number of definitions have been provided by various scholars in an attempt to elaborate on the concept of administration. Coetzee (1988:04-05) and Botes *et al.*, (1992:294-302) provide the following classification of definitions for the concept of administration:

2.6.1 APPROACHES TO PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration plays multiple roles in the modern society and its significance has increased manifold in contemporary society (Mutuvhi, 2011:46). The main question is concerned with the relevance of public administration in the age of governance with all the reforms and transformation made to the governing of public affairs. Whether public administration has become less dominant with the advent governance, and whether the field of public administration can continue to play its noble role in governing society (Chakrabarty & Bhattacharya, 2005). Approaches to public administration have evolved over time.

2.6.1.1 Classical Approach

The classical approach is based upon the ideas generated in the late 1800s and early 1900s, and are primarily based upon the economic rationality of all employees (Tshiyoyo, 2018:81). According to the classical approach, people are motivated by economic incentives and they rationally consider opportunities that provide for them the greatest economic gains (Nnoli, 2003:10). According to Smith (2007) as cited in Oyedele (2015:10-11) the workload is evenly shared between workers and management with the latter performing the science and instructions and the workers performing labour; each group, therefore, doing the work it is best suited for.

2.6.1.2 Modern Approach

The Modern approach considers the activities of an organization as being divided into planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting (Cronje, Hugo, Neuland, & van Reenem, 1991). The Modern approach in public administration is oriented to results, focussing on clients, outputs and outcomes and it is divided into Structural-functional approach, System theory and Contingency approach (Tshiyoyo, 2018:81). Structural-functional approach focusses on the relation among government sub-systems, such as intergovernmental relations, for achieving desired goals through

institutional arrangements that perform certain functions in order to survive and operate efficiently (Oyedele, 2015:15-16). The System theory explains how public administration activities are coordinated within a system and sub-systems that interact; this can be done through analysing the dynamic interrelation between an administration system and its external environment (Oyedele, 2015:14).

The Contingency approach is a class of behavioural theory that claims that there is no best way to organize a corporation, to lead a company or to make decisions; optional courses of action are dependent upon the internal and external situations (Oyedele, 2015:16-17).

2.6.1.3 Post Modernism

Post-modernism questions some foundations such as the system that tend to privilege some groups and downgrade the importance of others, thereby, giving some group power and rendering some groups powerless; the society is seen as a place for everyone, irrespective of race, creed, and religion. Post-modernism is concerned with issues that divide the societies and answers how we determine moral conduct and policies that can conform to ethical principles (Ritzer, 2012:630, Oyedele, 2015:20-21). According to Tshiyoyo (2018:83) Post Modernism is a reflection on whether it is possible to find rational solutions for society's problems. According to Nnoli, (2003:30) post-modernism evaluates organizations as closed system, and sees the organization as interacting with its environment; the approach claims that each organization has a situation endemic to that organization, that is, there may be difference in organizational structure.

2.6.1.4 The Comprehensive Approach

Exponents of the comprehensive approach view administration as all organised activities undertaken in an institution aimed at achieving an objective (Botes *et al.*, 1992:295). No distinction is drawn, for example, between clerical, professional and technical duties (Botes *et al.*, 1992:295). It is also the view of Simon, Thompson and Smithburg (1991:04) that administration is “the activities of groups co-operating to accomplish common goals”.

2.6.1.5 The Limited or Functional Approach

The limited approach to administration refers to the routine administrative activities assumed to be commonly carried out in both public and private institutions, and which are sometimes referred to as “clerical work” (Coetzee, 1988:5-6). These clerical functions are essential in

terms of assisting the ‘professionals’ and ‘specialists’ in the implementation of government programmes, and are considered the domain of white-collar workers (Botes *et al.*, 1992:296).

2.6.1.6 The Public Management Approach

Those who advocate for the public management approach embrace the basic principles of Public Administration, but argue that large government institutions function like businesses and should be managed as such (Botes *et al.*, 1992:297). The Public Management approach was regarded as the knight in the shining armour that had to train a new generation of public servants (Cameron, 2008:48). According to Fox (1991:02), the Public Management approach stresses the importance of environment (political, cultural, technological, social and economic environment) as the foundation of for the theory and practices of public management including policy analysis, strategic management and organizational development.

2.6.1.7 The Generic Approach

The generic view considers administration as common actions undertaken by a group of organisations, within a particular institutional environment (for example, government institutions) with the purpose of accomplishing the goals and objectives of public policies (Botes *et al.*, 1992:298). The generic and integrated functions (classified into conceptual and managerial) performed by all public service organisations can be divided as follows:

- systems and processes for policy-making;
- development of organisational structures;
- development of systems for appointment and utilisation of human resources;
- development of systems for the acquisition and utilisation of financial resources;
- development of efficient and effective work methods and procedures; and
- development of systems for the maintenance of effective control and accountability (Thornhill, 2005:180).

Having defined the different approaches to administration, the next section will provide some understanding of what effective administration is within the context of public institutions. Administration entails putting into effect the policy decisions taken during the decision stage (Thornhill, 2005:180), and involves change from both organisational and policy perspectives (Slack, 2005:03).

Cloete's (1994:58-59) generic framework puts the locus of public administration within politics, as it clearly demonstrates the interface between politics and administration and explained the functions of Public Administration in terms of generic functions consisting of:

- Policy-making through a plan of action to achieve certain objectives;
- Organizing where structures responsible for a particular functional area are established;
- Financing where public finances are obtained, spent and controlled;
- Personnel provision and utilization where other several functions are performed;
- Work procedures where specific instructions to be followed to carry out certain activities are defined and
- Control ensures that all the administrative and functional functions are carried out effectively and efficiently to achieve objectives.

According to Hanekom and Thornhill (1990: 10) generic functions are usually performed by public officials who are accountable for arranging, directing and leading activities performed in institutions or organizations. Cloete (2012: 88) propounds that generic functions are interdependent and they occur in all public institutions.

Only the Public Policy pertaining to administrative functions of government in relation to democratic values of improving equality, justice, efficiency and effectiveness of public service will be discussed in this study (Cloete, 1994: 47). Cloete (1994: 64-69) argues that in spite of the involvement of public officials in policy development, the legislature has the supreme authority in terms of articulating the needs and demands of citizens, legislating and providing policy direction for government, as well as oversight of the activities of government. The next section discusses the administrative functions performed by government institutions over which the legislature has authority. Public administration is a mechanism about policy formulation and execution (Stillman, 1980:03).

2.7 Public Policy

Cloete (2012: 66) defines policy as a statement of intent to perform a particular action, indicating in clear certain terms what the government does or is prepared to do in order to

achieve a particular objective. Policy as defined by Schermerhorn (2005:196) refers to a standing plan that communicates broad guidelines for decisions and actions to be followed by individuals in an organization in order to provide consistency of decision and to deal with a particular phenomenon. Hanekom and Thornhill (1995: 54) add that policy is a desired course of action and interaction which is to serve as a guideline in the allocation of resources, necessary to realise societal goals and objectives; policies are decided upon by the legislator and made known either in writing or verbally. Tollenaar *et al.*, (2011: 36) define policy as the formulation of objectives, the identification of means and the actual making of decisions on these objectives; it is the purposeful course of actions aimed at realising formulated goals, however, a public policy is a programme of action specific to one or more public or governmental authorities within a sector of society or a given area (Thoenig, 1985:06, Meny & Thoenig, 1989:130). Dye (2002: 01) explains public policy as anything that a government prepares to do or not to do, while Hanekom and Thornhill (1993: 63) state public policy as a formal statement of the objectives that need to be achieved. Anderson (2003: 02-03) notes a policy as a relatively stable, purposive course of action followed by an actor, or set of actors, in dealing with a problem. He further views a public policy as a carefully-designed course of action, which governments take to solve an identified problem. The government therefore has the prerogative to decide what it should do or not do, in terms of what should be implemented to resolve any problem the society faces. Abas (2019: 01) postulates that public policy is a long-standing decision made by governments or public authorities to address the public concerns or initiate ideas or solutions to public problems.

Howlett and Ramesh (2003: 06) continues the explanation by conceiving public policy as a set of interrelated decisions taken by a political actor or group of actors concerning the selection of goals and the means of achieving them. A public policy should aim at resolving a social problem that is politically acknowledged as public and necessities the re-establishment of the communication between several social actors that has broken down or is under threat (Knoepfel, Larrue, Varone & Hill, 2007:26).

2.7.1 Policy-making

Hanekom and Thornhill (1990: 18) define policy-making as a process which occurs before intended decisions are announced and who is to take the lead to achieve them. Policy-making is carried out to decide on a plan of action to achieve certain objective by identifying problems, then investing, gathering information and making decisions about them. Policy-making is an extended process, which involves imaging an idealised state of being a society, which can be

seen as different from the current state of affairs or similar; the process involves possible solutions to problems or needs that have been identified (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003:143).

Policy-making is aimed at determining objectives which should be stated in unambiguous way in terms of what should be achieved. According to Cloete (1984:57) policy making is a purposeful activity aimed at achieving a clear goal that should be known to all the participants to ensure that all activities are coordinated. Other authors like, Tollenaar, et al (2011: 37) talk of Policy Formulation which they refer to as the initiation and the development of policy options or proposals; in addition, Hanekom and Thornhill (1990:24) emphasise the sound relationship that should exist between the political office-bearers and the top public officials to ensure that administrative policy is not in conflict with political policy, so that service delivery may not be compromised.

During the policy-making process, public officials engage with other individuals and organisations that have a stake in the policy being proposed (Sharkansky, 1975:05). According to Fesler (1980:04), Feldman and Khademian (2002:542); and Nzwei and Kuye, (2007:196) public officials play a role in the entire policy process, however, their involvement is confined within and guided by the values and goals of political principals. In carrying out their functions, public officials must remain vigilant and committed to detect any shortcomings (dysfunctional situation) that impact negatively on the achievement of policy objectives of government, and raise them with the relevant legislature by way of policy proposals (Cloete, 1998:80). Top officials also play an important role in policy-making as they are required to exercise their own discretion and value judgement with regard to policy-making (Hanekom & Thornhill, 1990:23). Cloete (1994:64-69) confirms that in spite of the involvement of public officials in policy development, the legislature has the supreme authority in terms of articulating the needs and demands of citizens, legislating and providing policy direction for government, as well as providing oversight over the activities of government.

Cloete (1988:140) argues that because policy-making is a complicated process it should always be forward looking, and based on thorough investigation of what is needed to be addressed, then relevant information is gathered so that the loopholes are tightened. Demir (2009: 370) states that policy-making includes analysis of conditions and changes in society that may lead to political activity in certain circumstance. Policy-making involves solutions to problems or needs that have been identified (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003: 143). The needs or challenges of a particular community or organization with the involvement of stakeholders in that

community are identified during this process and political decisions are taken to redress issues that are not in order.

2.7.2 Policy analysis

Policy analysis is explained as an attempt to measure the cost and benefits of policy alternatives and to evaluate the efficacy of existing policies (Hanekom, 1992: 65). Hanekom (1987) in Roux (2002: 427) adds that policy analysis is “an attempt to measure the costs and benefits of various policy alternatives or to evaluate the efficacy of existing policies; in other words, to produce and transform information relevant to particular policies into a form that could be used to resolve problems pertaining to those policies”. Roux, (2002: 427) notes policy analysis as an applied social science discipline, which uses multiple methods of inquiry and argument to produce and transform policy-relevant information that may be utilized in political settings to resolve policy problems.

Policy analysis provides an understanding of, or response to basic questions concerning the legitimacy, efficacy and durability of public action (Knoepfel, *et al*, 2007: ix). An analysis of a policy explores the rational assumptions required for the formulation and implementation of a well-researched policy which, for example, may fully address the plight of the black majority of people of South Africa on land ownership; the policy may attempt to meet the expectations of the dispossessed and the objectives of the land reform programme. There is, therefore, a need to investigate the post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries because “policy options differ in the extent to which they offer solutions to problems, with some calling for new and substantial policy change while others involve minor tinkering with existing policies and programmes” (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003: 146). Some policy instruments produce different effects depending on whether policy is implemented where government is the main or sole actor, or through a network (Peters, 2000: 37). A policy on land ownership and reform has to be analysed so that we are able to see if it is addressing the needs of the majority of the black South Africans whose land was taken. For the above to happen, there is a need for stakeholders’ involvement in the policy process, including the relationship of stakeholders to one another and the inclusion of individuals and the private sector.

2.7.3 Policy implementation

Brynard (2007: 357) explains policy implementation as the expected outcomes, versus, the results actually achieved. Policy implementation entails putting into effect the policy decisions

taken during the decision stage and involves change from both organisational and policy perspectives (Slack, 2005: 03). Policy implementation is a complex process that is determined by various variables including - people's personal interests, resources, the government structure, as well as, local people's awareness, attitudes and values (Tollenaar *et al.*, 2011: 39). Demir (2009: 370) states that policy implementation consists of those measures which are taken in order to attain a given goal.

Policy implementation stages are - policy description era, the period of identifying factors responsible for effective implementation of policy, and the period of identifying factors responsible for effective implementation of policy as well as developing frameworks for implementation. The stages may also involve the current discourse on reconciling the divergent views regarding any policy implementation frameworks (Ryan, 1999: 44-45).

During policy implementation, old policy objectives are continuously being transformed in line with given resources to implement them, or additional resources are being mobilised to implement old objectives (Brynard (2001) in Fox & Van Rooyen, 2004: 41). The decisions and guidelines for policy implementation are prepared at the top and given to the people at the grassroots level for action (Tollenaar *et al.*, 2011:39). Hanekom (1991:61) asserts that policy implementation entails the enforcement of legislation; however, communication and the intention of such policies are equally important. Hanekom (1987) and Thornhill (1995: 56-57), explain that implementation of public policy involves:

- The translation of the ideas and intentions of the ruling party into an implementation or executive policy, which sets out the national priorities to be pursued by the government of the day, as reflected in the national budget.
- Putting into effect the executive policy by translating it into an administrative policy, which spells out specific arrangements in terms of the organizational structure, income and expenditures, personnel, work procedures and methods, and finally, the controls necessary to implement the executive policy. Organs of state are empowered in terms of an act of parliament to develop regulations necessary to implement a publicpolicy.

The process of policy implementation needs to strike a balance between democratic principles and the managers who are the implementers of the policy (Matshego,2011:71). There should be a thorough investigation of the needs of the people who the policy is intended for, to avoid

a top-down approach which in most cases does not yield the intended results. In order for public officials to implement a policy, they have to first understand what it means in general (Hill, 2003: 267). Public officials must remain vigilant and committed to detect any shortcomings (dysfunctional situation) that impact negatively on the achievement of the policy objectives of government, as well as raise them with the relevant legislature by way of policy proposals (Cloete, 1998:80). Feldman and Khademian (2002:542) argue that due to the expertise of public administrators, they should play such an important role, and by doing so contribute towards attainment of democratic ideals for which political principals aspire to achieve. Nzwei and Kuye (2007: 200) emphasise the role that public officials do and can play in the policy domains, within developmental states.

A number of scholars, Fesler (1980:04), Feldman and Khademian (2002:542) as well as Nzwei and Kuye (2007:196) have argued that public officials should play a role in the entire policy process, but that their involvement should be confined within and guided by the values and goals of political principals. Mayaya (1981) as cited in Tollenaar *et al* (2011: 39) advise that implementers have to be involved in the decision-making and they have to carry out a cost-benefit analysis; any public policy has to be explained to the people and should provide the implementation programme with information on procedure, plans, timetables, regulations, and strategies for a successful implementation. The implementation of public policy is undertaken by public administrators operating within public institutions and the process is influenced by the knowledge and understanding of the policy while being dependent on proper resources management (Matshego, 2011:01).

Implementation involves a set of processes after the programming phases that are aimed at the concrete realisation of the objectives of a public policy (Knoepfel *et al.*, 2007:188). Research on the effects of the policy and the failures or successes of the implementation of the policy; therefore, are evident on the output and intended objectives of that particular policy. The implementation process is only completed with the production of decisions and activities that directly address those affected (Knoepnel *et al.*, 2007:189).

The front-line public officials and those people who are entrusted with policy implementation at various levels should be fully involved for the realisation of policy goals. Cloete (1994: 56) postulates that challenges that are faced by implementers of policy assist in making them understand why policies are modified during the implementation phase or why they end up not seeing the light of day. Policy implementation must result in the

provision of services or products.

2.7.4 Policy evaluation

According to Cloete (2009:295) Policy evaluation is a systematic judgement of assessment of policy programme including assessment of resources, organisational processes to convert such resources into policy outputs or products, and the extent to which the policy processes have the intended results in the form of outputs, outcomes or impacts, measured against envisaged goals and objectives. Policy evaluation is a process of measuring the worthiness, performance and efficacy of any policy or program, of checking the extent of its success so that if there is remedial action necessary, it can be made based on the evidence; the process is concerned with the ability of the policy to improve some societal conditions (Khan & Rahman, 2017:174). Similarly, Tollenaar *et al.*, (1992: 349) define policy evaluation as the production of information on the value of the policy output or outcomes and involves the determination of the impact of policies on targets for the direct and timely use of those responsible for a policy intervention.

Policy evaluation checks the effectiveness of the policy in terms of anticipated results and the identification of gaps so that there should be an improvement of an existing programme, based on whether it is achieving what it set out to achieve, as well as measuring the costs against the output produced (Matshego, 2011:127). If a policy is perceived as not working, the whole or part of a programme, with its intended objectives within a political agenda regime, may be viewed as a failure. Both the policy and a programme can fail in substantive terms by not delivering the expected results or in procedural terms - whether legitimate or illegitimate, fair or unfair, just or unjust (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003: 208). Sanderson (2002: 05) notes that there is also a danger that information generated during policy evaluation may not result in programme improvement, as a result of the information being used selectively by political office-bearers, especially, if it is not in line with certain political priorities or ideologies. To ensure that an administrative policy is not in conflict with political policy, a sound relationship should exist between the political office bearers and the public officials who are the policy implementers (Hanekom & Thornhill, 1990: 24). Policy evaluation targets effects to specific goals and objectives set to change situations especially the existing unsatisfactory situations.

2.8 POLICY AND THE STATE

An effective, just, fruitful and rational land resettlement policy is a prerequisite for a state to function properly; it becomes a policy that supports the objectives of the state. According to Dlamini (2008: 15) a policy framework on land reform programme should effectively address the injustices of forced removals and the historical denial of access to land. Hoaes (2010: 29) contends that the policy should facilitate the resettlement of destitute and landless people of the country and provide them with all the necessary support to start a living and meet their basic needs. Hoaes (2010: 28) further states that the government needs to ensure, through appropriate legislative provisions, that all aspects of land administration by government and other agencies are open and transparent, and that financial transactions involving land and public funds are audited on a regular basis. A programme should provide detailed guidelines for implementation of government policy by managers (Botes *et al.*, 1992: 311). Tollenaar *et al.*, (2011: 36) state that the government determines its policy in relation to other issues on the political agenda. Mahole (2017: 52) states that since the policies of the government are determined by the ideology of the political party in power, when the government makes policies, it should always be guided by the needs of the community; hence, such policies would be meant to address community problems. It is, therefore, important for rural communities to participate in policy-making in order to improve service delivery and to help alleviate rural poverty. According to Kepe and Cousins (2002: 18) programs to enhance the land-based livelihoods of rural people are one of the key viable policy options available to government in search of pro-poor sustainable development. The SA government has various kinds of written policies and programmes in place, in order to redress the injustice of the past, including land dispossession (May, 2000: 211). Land is viewed as one of the most basic needs for the people who are marginalized and underdeveloped; land is a vital factor of production (Rungasamy, 2011: 06).

The national land policy helps to realize dual objectives of the state which aims at creating conditions for the development and growth of local communities and promoting investment in rural areas through the involvement of the private sector (Tilly, 2007: 34). To speedily address the inequalities in land ownership, the government needs to formulate a policy that assists the land restitution beneficiaries to get their land back and deal with the land post-settlement challenges that impact negatively on the beneficiaries.

The bureaucrats who are the policy implementers should also be efficient and effective when implementing the policy. Government uses policy instruments as institutions to regulate,

prescribe and structure interactions and power relations between members of society as they attempt to gain mastery of their external environment (Lascoumes & Le Gales, 2007: 08). In any democratic system, policies that do not turn out to solve the initial problem, are evaluated and decided upon, by those who elect the politicians. According to Matshego (2011:xiv) the success of the land reform programme does not depend only on access to land, but also on the achievement of other instrumental objectives, namely, the provision of integrated government policy with respect to support services, infrastructural and other development programmes. These also include the development of an effective and accessible institutional framework for service delivery, characterised by a strong partnership between national, provincial and local spheres of government. If any initial problems are not resolved or the needs of the voters are still not addressed through the correct implementation of the policy in an effective and efficient way, it will reach the political agenda once again, as the starting point of a new policy cycle (Tollenaar, 2011: 40).

Zinyama (1999: 08) advocates that different stakeholders who need to work together for the success of the implementation of land reform programme are:

- the government, as the implementer of the reform, should define targets, and allocate resources accordingly;
- the large landholders, who stand to lose some or all of their land under the reforms and
- the beneficiaries (small farmers or the landless) who should realize that they carry a large responsibility to maintain and improve productivity on their newly-acquired land.

The following section considers governance as a process through which the administration of public policy can be organised.

2.9 GOVERNANCE

Governance is the process of decision-making through which decisions are either implemented or not implemented (Abas, 2019: 01). The concept of governance denotes the use of political authority and exercise of control in a society in relation to the management of its resources for social and economic development. This broad definition encompasses the role of public authorities in establishing the environment in which economic operators function and in determining the distribution of benefits as well as the nature of the relationship between the ruler and the ruled (Mfaume, 2011: 26). Governance is an output

or outcome-based activity measured in substantive terms of end results, such as the indicators of governance (Olowu & Sako, 2002:05). Heinrich and Lynn (2000: 04) defined governance as the regime of laws, administrative rules, judicial rulings, and practices that constrain, prescribe, and enable government activity. The concept of governance although not universally defined, introduces a new approach, whereby state institutions co-operate with one another, as well as with the private sector and non-government organisations to provide services to the public (Thornhill, 2006: 804). McLennan (2000: 29) stated that: “governance is concerned with institutional relationships between people, in the form of individuals”. Hyden and Michael (1992) elucidate governance as the task of running a government or any other appropriate entity, for example, an organization; it is a dynamic process involving the interrelationship between a number of factors which affect the achievement of an output or outcome.

According to Jordan *et al.* (2005: 478), the term “governance” has a much wider appeal than the narrow term of “government”, since it covers a whole range of institutions and relationships that are involved in the process of governing. The central question at the core of governance is how government agencies, programmes and activities can be organised and managed, such that public purposes are achieved (Heinrich & Lynn, 2000: 01). Mfaume (2011: 26) outlines the three distinct aspects of governance as - the form of political regime; the process by which authority is exercised in the management of a country’s economic and social resources for development, as well as the capacity of governments to design, formulate, and implement policies and discharge functions. In terms of policy-making, what is important, is governance structures which involve the multiplicity of actors who can claim ownership of policy formulation (Runhaar, 2006:35). McLennan (2000: 29) stated that policies are the context and framework for governance and they are concerned with institutional relationships between people, in the form of individuals. The central question at the core of governance is how government agencies, programmes and activities can be organised and managed such that public purposes are achieved (Heinrich & Lynn, 2000: 01). Governance represents a culmination of processes, which translates competing societal values into operational guidelines for setting and implementing government policy priorities (Matshego, 2011: 93). Governance encompasses the role of public authorities in establishing the environment in which economic operators function and in determining the distribution of benefits as well as the nature of the relationship between the ruler and the ruled (Mfaume, 2011: 26). Governance is a comprehensive concept referring to the combined efforts of political and

public institutions in conjunction with private sector in providing services to the society (Thornhill, 2011: 12); it is an output or outcome-based activity measured in substantive terms of end results, such as the indicators of governance (Olowu & Sako, 2002: 15). Heinrich and Lynn (2000: 04) defined governance as the regime of laws, administrative rules, judicial rulings, and practices that constrain, prescribe, and enable government activity. The concept of governance although not universally defined, introduces a new approach whereby state institutions co-operate with one another as well as with the private sector and non-government organisations to provide services to the public (Thornhill, 2006: 804).

According to Matshego, (2011: 93-94), the constitutive aspect of governance deals more with substantive issues of rule-making at a political level, in terms of the following:

- determining the rules of engagement between various structures of society;
- determining the form of the political system and by extension, that of public administration;
- defining the role of the legislature as both the legislative and oversight body of government;
- determining the functions of the political executive as well as parameters within which it should go about exercising the power of the state;
- determining the role of the judiciary as the independent body responsible for interpreting and enforcing government legislation, as well as developing and maintaining standards for administrative justice; and
- establishing mechanisms for articulation and reconciliation of divergent societal values

McLennan (2000: 01) explains that the system of democratic governance incorporates management process which facilitates partnerships and mobilises resources for developing society and improving the quality of life. This involves the whole process by which policies are formulated, adopted, implemented and monitored. Adams (2000:08) asserts that without a good governance structure and a coherent and consistent policy framework, complemented by institutional environment to implement such a policy, intervention in the area of land policy will not achieve its objectives and can actually do more harm than good. Governance is a comprehensive concept referring to the combined efforts of political and public institutions in conjunction with private sector in providing services to the society (Thornhill, 2011: 12). People with knowledge, ability and commitment, who understand their purpose, objectives and strategies of government, are required to fulfil accountability obligations to the government they represent.

Government uses policy instruments as institutions to regulate, prescribe and structure interactions and power relations between members of society as they attempt to gain mastery of their external environment (Lascoumes & Le Gales, 2007: 08). To McLennan (2000:28) governance involves “relationships of power, authority, reciprocity and exchange”. Since governance involves relationships controlled by policies, it means there is need for good leadership and management. Management and leadership are part and parcel of governance; hence, these issues should be strategic because both of them are critical to the establishment of good governance and effective relationship amongst the stakeholders. Governance, therefore, should operate in such a way that it results in a shift from a formal hierarchical system of control to a democratic participation, which Prinsloo (2013:08-13) refers to as “good governance”. This raises issues, such as transparency which promotes openness of the democratic process through practices such as - reporting and feedback, free flow of information, ethical and honest behaviour, as well as accountability, which is the pillar of democracy and good governance. Governance has got three dimensions - financial, political administration and protection of public rights.

To Prinsloo (2013), good governance is characterized by the following:

- an efficient public service to the community the government serves;
- the accountable administration of public funds;
- respect of law and human rights in all the spheres of government and
- implementation of the policies in an efficient and effective way.

Mfaume (2011: 27- 29) outlines good governance as the processes and institutions which produce results that meet the needs of society while making the best use of resources at their disposal. The principles of good governance refer to the situation in which the government adopts a way of understanding with all the actors involved, weighing conflicting interests and providing access to all interested parties. According to Mutuvhi (2011: 35-36) good governance raises issues such as stakeholder engagement, transparency, ethical and honest behaviour, accountability, and sustainability. He further argued that for public administration to be valued, good governance should be observed, public officials being committed to their respective roles and accounting for their actions.

The value of public administration, therefore, depends on good governance and the commitment of public administrators to their roles and responsibilities since the process translates competing societal values into operational guidelines for setting and implementing government-policy priorities (Matshego, 2011:93).

Public administrators should be empowered by the management in carrying out their roles and responsibilities without any fear, especially, in the new democratic South Africa where the issue of land has been a problem (Matshego, 2011). Principles of good governance are therefore relevant when it comes to implementation and enforcement of public policy (Mfaume, 2011: 25).

2.10 LAND REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA

Adams (2003:03) defines “land reform” in terms of conditions on which land is held, used and transacted. According to Lipton (1985) and Ghimire (2001:03) as cited by Manenzhe (2007:12), land reform involves an important planned change in the agrarian structure resulting in access to land and security of land rights and titles for the rural poor, individually. Land reform as an anchor of rural development and agrarian reform should be treated with urgency; otherwise the rural community will remain poor with no development. Masoka (2014: ii) argues that the contribution of land reform to - sustainable livelihoods for land reform beneficiaries, diversified programmes of pre-and post-settlement support for agrarian reform in a non-diversified and non-bureaucratic manner - need to be made available. Land reform, as an act of development, focuses on meeting the basic needs of the marginalized and underdeveloped people, who is the main objective of any development. Marginalized and underdeveloped people, as well as communities, need land in order to ensure that their living conditions improve. According to Saunders (2003:01) the racially-based land policies resulted in inefficient urban and rural land use patterns and a fragmented system of land administration that has impacted negatively on effective resource utilisation and development. It was anticipated that the land reform programme will ensure access to productive land to enable the country to build its economy by ensuring improved food security, creating employment opportunities, and an increased income per capita (Masoka, 2014:23). Land reform, however, has to be more than securing land rights and transferring a certain number of hectares to black people. In essence, it has to improve livelihoods of the beneficiaries and solve other challenges afflicting rural areas, such as high unemployment, poverty, HIV/AIDS,

dilapidated infrastructure, as well as concerns around, class, gender and equity (Jacobs, 2003:01).

According to Hall (2004: 214) land reform has a vital symbolic function in the ‘new’ South Africa as it addresses the historical injustice of the nation as part of a wider process of nation-building. It also has the potential to form the centrepiece of a programme of rural restructuring and transformation of social and economic relations which can provide a structural basis for broad-based pro-poor development. The primary purpose of land reform in South Africa is to redistribute agricultural and other pieces of land in order to address the racially-skewed pattern of land holding, thereby, promote development (Hall & Lahiff, 2004: 102). Lubambo (2011: 01) argues that the aim objective of the land reform programme was to transfer land to the historically-disadvantaged black citizens, to improve livelihoods and stimulate the economy by compensating people for, or returning land unjustly taken during the apartheid era. Hirtz (1998: 249) also considers land reform as the effort to re-arrange, re-configure, or re-define existing tenure relationships to allow land to become a marketable means of production.

Sachikonye (2005: 31) posits that the land question centered on the forms and consequences of unjust expropriation of land by the colonial state. The best endowed areas of land were owned and occupied by white farmers, while some of the indigenous people who had previously lived on them were evicted and assigned inferior land. Pisani (2011: 178) states that the land has become a topical issue in South Africa as the allocation of land was based on gross inequalities of race. The black people lost productive land for the small-scale farming and financial support that helped rural households to survive disappeared while in contrast, white commercial farmers were given financial support and subsidies. De Villiers (2003: 45) asserts that the possession of land had always been a key for empowering and disempowering people. Land reform was, therefore, necessary to address the question of land dispossession of black people which took place at the hands of white colonizers (DLA, 1997: 09).

Thwala (2003:59) contends that the historical land dispossessions and segregation in South Africa has contributed to neglect of human rights, dignity and acute inequalities in the country and it has further led to differentiated social strata within the society. For centuries, land inequality and issues of land ownership in South Africa has been a cause of conflict (Masoka, 2014:24). The first free- and- fair democratic elections which took place in 1994 became a “new dawn” for South Africans and marked the end of apartheid laws. Black South Africans developed a powerful desire to have the land restored to its rightful owners (Cousins,

2000:56), however, according to Makhado (2012:02) the signs of impatience with issues surrounding land reform, are escalating.

Land reform is one way in which the ‘new’ South Africa has set out to redress the injustices of apartheid and, by redistributing land to black South Africans, to redress the structural basis of racial inequality (Hall, 2004:213). The land reform programme has given hope to the dispossessed black South Africans. Land reform is a national programme for sustainable economic development in South Africa, especially in a country where the majority of black people are living with high levels of poverty, unemployment and inequality. In the process of nation building, the establishment of independent political systems and the design of policies and development of strategies including land reform and land policies are crucial (O’Sullivan, 2011: 01). Land reform is key to the realisation of complete and successful democracy in South Africa, as the programme has the power to eradicate poverty, stimulate economic growth and create a more equal society that can lead to some equality in land access and use. According to Lahiff (2003: 12) anyone who owns a piece of land has a means of livelihood, hence - can have influence in local politics, is able to participate freely in social networks, and his influences in intra-household dynamics is obvious and significant. In the White Paper on South African Land Policy of 1997, it was anticipated that through the land reform initiative, land would be distributed more equitably, poverty would be eradicated and the overall quality of the life of beneficiaries would improve in a sustainable way (DLA, 1997: 05). Binswanger-Mkhize (2014: 253) argued that land reform has only achieved some successes, especially, in the agricultural sector where the majority of the claimants are found, but these exist in a sea of partial or complete failure, and the number of beneficiaries and the land area transferred is disapprovingly low. Jacobs (2003: 04) contends that land reform in South Africa, since 1994, has assisted some of the black marginalized people of South Africa to get their land back, however, this has been done without any livelihood strategies and support offered by the state after they had acquired their land; this makes it extremely difficult for beneficiaries to succeed in making the land productive. Terreblanche (2008a: 62) states that the mere transfer of land to dispossessed people, from 1994, has not necessarily reduced poverty or contributed to sustainable development.

Prosterman (1990: 03) acknowledged land reform as a rapid process of transfer of land rights to landless individuals and communities. It involves three components - land redistribution (transfer of land from large to small-scale farmers), land restitution, (which enables the forcibly displaced to return home or be compensated) and land tenure reform, (the establishment of

secure and formalized property rights (Van de Brink, 2006: 01). Land reform, therefore, was conceived as a means by which the South African state would provide redress for past injustices and promote development by restoring land rights to those dispossessed by segregation and apartheid, through programmes like - land redistribution, land tenure reform and land restitution (Hall, 2004: 215).

2.10.1 Land Redistribution Programme

Apartheid policies pushed millions of black people into overcrowded and impoverished reserves, homelands and townships, and the introduction of capital-intensive agricultural projects led to the large-scale eviction of farm dwellers from their land and homes (Adams, 2000:09). Intrinsic to the bigger policy framework Africans were allowed into the white areas only as servants and never as owners or independent producers (Weideman, 2004:08). According to the White Paper on Land Policy (DLA, 1995), land redistribution provides the previously-disadvantaged rural and urban dwellers with access to land for residential and productive purposes. Land redistribution is focused on making substantial contribution to redressing the growth imbalances in land-holding in the country by transferring areas of land from the privilege minority to the historically oppressed majority (Lahiff, 2001:46). The process is guided by the Provision of Certain Land for Settlement Act No.126 of 1993 which provides for the designation of certain land; this was intended to - regulate the subdivision of such land and the settlement of persons thereon; to provide for the rendering of financial assistance for the acquisition of land and to secure tenure rights and to provide for matters connected thereof. Land redistribution entails redistribution of productive assets that would, in turn, result in a distribution of income and an improvement in the living standards of the poor, particularly, in terms of their food security, while not reducing aggregate output over the long term (Liamzon, 1996:18). Cousins (2013:12) states that land redistribution addresses not only gross racial inequalities in land ownership inherited from the past, but also has the potential to address an underlying main cause of rural poverty - lack of access to productive land, or land suitable for settlement, together with secure rights to such land.

2.10.2 Land Tenure Reform Programme

Land tenure reform refers to a planned change in the terms and conditions under which land is held, used and transacted; the fundamental goal of tenure reform is to enhance people's land rights, thus, provide tenure security (Adams, Cousins & Manona, 1999:09). Adams, Sibanda & Turner, 1999:02). Moyo (2003: 03) explains that land tenure is a derivative of the concept of resource tenure, which in essence refers to the terms and conditions under which natural resources are held and used. It is a name given, particularly, in common law systems, to the legal regime in which land is "owned" by an individual who is said to "hold" the land. Land tenure reform seeks to improve tenure security of all South Africans. The Land Tenure Reform Programme includes a review of the current land's policy, administration and legislation, with a view to accommodating more diverse forms of land tenure (May, 2000:242). The beneficiaries for this programme include, amongst others, the farm workers, former farm workers, share-croppers, as well as labour tenants (Masoka, 2014:41).

The Land Tenure Reform aims - to provide people with secure tenure where they live or farm, to prevent arbitrary evictions and fulfil the constitutional requirement that all South Africans should have access to legally-secure tenure in land (Manenzhe, 2007:21). The introduction and change of laws after 1994, therefore, gave people (especially farm workers and labour tenants) security of tenure, over houses and land where they work and stay (Lahiff, 2001).

The legal basis of this program is the Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act No 31 of 1996. This program attempts to clarify and strengthen the tenure rights of farm workers living on privately-owned white farms and people living in former homelands (Bourdeaux, 2009). According to the White Paper on South African Land Affairs, DLA (1997:64), tenure reform provides security of tenure in various ways. This includes the awarding of independent land rights, securing lease agreements, protection against eviction, by membership in a group-based system of land rights, or through private ownership.

2.10.3 Land Restitution Programme

Restitution is a rights-based programme implemented in terms of Section 25 (7) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (RSA, 1996) and the Restitution of Land Rights Act, 1994 (as amended in 1997). This Act established a Commission on the Restitution of Land Rights (CRLR) under a Chief Land Claim Commissioner and four (later five) Regional Commissioners (RSA, 1997).

The purpose of the land restitution programme is to restore land and provide other remedies to people dispossessed by racially-discriminatory legislation and practices; this had to be done in such a way as to provide support to the process of reconciliation and development, and with regard to the overarching consideration of fairness and justice for individuals, communities and the country as a whole (Adams, 2000:02-03). The Land Restitution Programme's aimed at restoring land rights or providing other equitable redress to those unfairly dispossessed of their rights after 19 June 1913 (Native Land Act 27 1913). According to the White Paper on South African Land (DLA, 1997: 58) the Land Restitution Programme aims to re-integrate and reconstruct places bearing the scars of racial zoning; the Programme provides land for residential and productive use for the poor so as to improve their livelihoods (DLA, 1997: 12).

The restitution policy, as laid down in the Restitution of Land Rights Act No. 22 of 1994, only allows claims dating back to 19 June, 1913 (DLA, 1997). This means that previous claims arising from colonization and settlement in the country before 1913 were not allowed; such claim include those from other groups who live in the country, such as the San community and others (Fourie, 2000: 67).

According to the Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 Chapter 1 Section 2, a person shall be entitled to restitution of a land right, if:

- he or she is a person dispossessed of a right in land after 19 June 1913, as a result of past racially-discriminatory laws or practices, or
- it is a deceased estate dispossessed of a right in land after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially-discriminatory laws or practices, or
- he or she is the direct descendant of a person who has died without lodging a claim, or
- it is a community or part of a community dispossessed of a right to land after 19 June 1913.

Restitution addresses the legacy of forced removals, and the significance of land, not only as an economic asset but also as a consultative element of identity, culture, history and tradition (DLA, 1998:06). Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 (Restitution Act) is one of the first pieces of legislations passed by the Government of National Unity which came into power after the first democratic elections. The purpose of Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 is to

advance reconciliation and historical justice by undoing some of the legacies of dispossession and the social upheaval it inflicted.

The CRLR was originally envisaged as an independent body, but it now falls under the control of the Department of Land Affairs (DLA), on which it depends for funds, administrative support, research expertise and policy direction (Lahiff,2001:03). A special court, the land claims court, with powers equivalent to those of the High Court was also established to deal with land claims and other land-related matters (Lahiff, 2001: 45).

In 1995, the Commission on Restitution of Land Rights (CRLR) was established to - provide equitable redress and restoration to victims of dispossessions, particularly, for the landless and rural poor; contribute towards equitable redistribution of land in South Africa, promote reconciliation through the restitution process and facilitate development initiatives - by bringing together all relevant stakeholders, especially the provincial governments and municipalities (Lahiff, 2001; RSA, 1997). According to May (2000: 242), the Land Restitution Programme aims to restore land back to those who had been dispossessed of their rights to land since 1913, under racially-discriminatory laws and practice, in order to promote reconciliation and justice. The restitution cases are dealt with through the Land Claims Court and Commission, which was established under the Restitution of Land Right Act, Act of 1994 (May, 2000: 242).

The White Paper on South African Land Policy (DLA, 1997: 53), the Land Restitution Programme also has activities which fall under the following four main headings:

- Processing of Land Claims: This involves publicizing the land restitution process, assisting claimants, investigating, as well as mediating claims of groups and individuals;
- Implementation of Court: This involves implementing court orders from the Department;
- Claims outside the Restitution of Land Rights Act: This involves a procedure for claims which are not part of the Act.
- Communication: On-going communication will occur from the Department's side and the restitution process will be publicized.

A restitution claim qualifies for an investigation by the commission on Restitution of Land Rights provided that the claimant was dispossessed of a right to land - after 19 June 1993, as a result of racially-discriminatory laws or practices, or was not paid a just and equitable compensation (DLA,1997). Claims arising from dispossession prior to 1913 may be accommodated by the Minister of Land Affairs in terms of preferential status in the Land Redistribution Programme provided that claimants are disadvantaged and will benefit in a sustainable manner from the ministerial support (RSA, 1998).

Land-owners whose land was expropriated for the purposes of restoring land to successful claimants will be compensated in a just and equitable manner. According to the White Paper on South African Land Policy (1997:15) land can be restituted in the following forms:

- Restoration of the land from which claimants were dispossessed;
- Provision of alternative land;
- Payment of compensation;
- Alternative relief, comprising a combination of the above, or
- Priority access to government housing and land development programmes.

Land restitution and land redistribution are prioritised because they compromise a transfer of large areas of land to targeted groups; this impacts land use and result in social, economic and ecological effects (Netshipale, 2017: 57). Hanekom and Thornhill (1995) in Mckenzie and Cock (1998:75) maintains that restitution is more than getting the land back; it also involves resettling people, providing infrastructure, sustainable economic development and community institution building. Schoeman *et al.*, (2008: 798) note that at the centre of the restitution process, we need communication, entrepreneurship and business development; each plays a critical role in finding sustainable pathway to meet the needs of communities and improve the quality of their lives. The land restitution process, however, has been labelled as inefficient and bureaucratic, as for example, nine of the ten working farms transferred to new owners, in the Vhembe District, have, completely stopped producing (Rungasamy, 2011: 86). Economically, it is not just enough that people get the land back, but it is also very important that land with economic value is put to optimum use by those who get the land back (beneficiaries), through the support they get from the government (Links, 2011:101).

2.11 THE ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT IN THE LAND REFORM PROGRAMME

Chapter 3 of the Constitution of Republic of South Africa, 1996, (Section 40) outlines the structure of government into three distinctive, interdependent and interrelated spheres - the national, provincial and local levels of government. The national government is responsible for policy formulation and making, developing national standards and norms, and rules and regulations (DPSA, 2003:16). In South Africa we have a total of nine provincial governments. The government provides legislative authority which is vested in the provincial legislature and it has the authority to, *inter alia*, pass its provincial constitution with regard to matters concerning its people, like agriculture, consumer protection and cultural matters (DPSA, 2003: 17). The executive authority at the provincial level is vested in the Premier (Botes *et al.*, 1996: 189-190). The local government consists of municipalities which are headed by municipal councils with legislative and executive authority over matters related to their respective communities. It has a developmental role to provide local basic services like, water provision, local markets, provision and maintenance of infrastructure, and local economic development (DPSA, 2003: 18-19).

Cloete (1991: 57) refers to government as individual or individuals who have been appointed or elected to see to it that laws passed by a legislature are implemented. Within government are two categories of executive institutions - the political executive institutions (which perform the governmental functions and are staffed by political executive office bearers) and administrative executive institutions (which are staffed by officials and perform administrative, managerial, auxiliary and instrumental functions). The latter also implement the legislatures and the directives issued by the political executive institution and office bearers. The government should therefore exercise control to ensure that its directives, as well as, the provisions of relevant legislations, are implemented economically, effectively and efficiently and that any compliments and complaints of the voters and other members of the public are dealt with. Henry (1980: 28) talked of what government can properly and successfully do, with the most possible efficiency and at the least possible cost (either of money or energy).

The government uses policy instruments as institutions to regulate, prescribe and structure interactions and power relations between members of society as they attempt to gain mastery of their external environment (Lascoumes & Le Gales, 2007:08). The national sphere of government is therefore mandated to ensure that public policies and legislation, as formulated by the legislative authority, are implemented through the provincial and local

spheres of government (Van der Elst, 2008:22). The national government sets policy priorities, provides implementation guidelines of the policy, gives advice, monitors the implementation and reviews, where necessary (Masoka,2014:57). The provincial government is the key institution in the implementation of the policies; it gives support to the people who the policies are made for, ensuring that they are implemented correctly at the local sphere of government. The provincial government is the main instrument through which support is planned and steered (Van der Elst, 2007: 296). The last sphere of government is the local municipality which is closest to the people and it is responsible for service delivery to the people; the actual implementation of policy happens here.

The legislative institutions are placed above political executive institutions. The common need for guidance and services across the country was a decisive factor in the division of government authority and services into three levels in South Africa: central government, regional government and local government, with the political executive above the administrative executives (that is, the heads of department) (Cloete, 1998: 59). Chapter 3 Sections 40 and 41 of the Constitution of the South Africa government is constituted as national, provincial and local spheres of government, which are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated. All spheres of government and all organs of state within each sphere must secure the well-being of the people of the Republic, provide effective, transparent, accountable and coherent government for the Republic as a whole, irrespective of their constitutional status, institutions, powers and functions (RSA,1996:21). The legislature is responsible for approval of policy, which gives effect to the actions of the political and administrative executives (Cloete, 1998: 85). Cloete (1998: 59-60) stated that governmental institutions must also perform the following functions on behalf of the legislature:

- make policy proposals (Bills) to enact new legislation or amend existing ones;
- make estimates of income and expenditure for the state departments or state institutions for approval by the legislature, in order for the administrative executives to carry out their assigned mandates.

Some government activities of many countries after colonialism are perceived to be ill-informed about the needs of people, as a result of being far removed from where services are supposed to be delivered (Faguet, 2003: 02). By bringing government closer to the people, this will improve people's participation in the processes of government, thereby, improving the governance of policies and programmes. It is argued that by bringing functions and resources closer to the people, as well as the decision-making power, government would be

able to do a better job of targeting poverty alleviation, by distributing and redistributing public resources in an equitable manner (Smoke, 2003: 09).

According to Boadway (2001: 94-96) the interdependency between national government and other spheres of government pertaining to redistribution and allocation of resources needs to be managed in such a way that the disadvantages of decentralisation are managed well. Some adverse effects can materialise if this interdependency relationship is not managed well, these include - negative fiscal inefficiencies, (caused by the differential capacity to provide public services at comparable tax rates causing households and businesses to relocate to areas where they believe they will receive better net fiscal benefits) and fiscal inequity, (whereby, due to the above-mentioned problem of differential capacity, there will be inequitable treatment of citizens, so that some would receive better quality and quantity of public services when compared with others). Selepe (2009: 22) states that public administrators work at all levels of government both at home and abroad. Denhardt and Denhardt (2006: 01) state that public servants who work in public organizations share certain commitments and none is more important than commitment to public service and the people they serve. These public service workers are at the centre stage of policy implementation; they make the objectives of the state to be realized through proper implementation of policies.

The South African Government has various land reform policies and programmes in place, in order to redress the injustices of the past (May, 2000:241). Implementation of these policies and programmes if done in an efficient and effective manner by the public servants, the government is able to make provision for post-settlement or post-transfer support in order to ensure that the ideals of food security, poverty reduction, income redistribution and sustainable production are realised (Liamzon, 1996:318). Government can achieve better outcome by improving coordination of integrated development approaches, particularly, by pivotal development points, to ensure full benefits for the country (Vhembe IDP, 2018: 39). Barrowclough (2001: 27) argued that agrarian reform without the state's participation would be a contradiction in terms. Buthelezi (2008: 09) stated that the provision of support services, infrastructural and other development programmes is essential to improve the quality of life and employment opportunities resulting from land reform. De Villiers (1994: 430) further talked of the three spheres of government maintaining that there is no sphere of government that can function effectively without co-operation with others because of the inter-dependency and inter-relatedness of some governmental functions, spill-overs in service, scarce resources, poor economic conditions, poor accountability, as well as grassroots' pressure.

It is through the co-operation and collaboration of the Department of Rural development and Land Reform and the Department of Agriculture and Water Affairs that the process of land redistribution and restitution can be completed and become beneficial to those who have claimed their land back. The challenge is that government organs lack the capacity, in many instances, to cope effectively with the range and intensity of demands confronting them (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2000: 91). Hope (1984: 91) believed that it is the political leadership that determines goals, selects methods and gives direction; society develops or fails depending on the extent to which its political leadership is intelligent, skilful and committed. Without these requisite features of political leadership, there will be no increase in administrative capacity, no progress, no direction and no development.

Without the formulation and implementation of effective socially-just land laws, policies and strategies by the state, land reform remains irrelevant to the landless. McKenzie and Cock (1998: 98) posit that people should unite for the success of land redistribution and restitution. Collaboration and partnership between the public and private sector can seal the success of land redistribution and restitution, therefore, the development of government structures must be taken into consideration during the planning and designing of redistribution and restitution programmes. If the government wants to speed up the restitution of land to the black majority, it should also review the current laws that govern how land should be distributed because other policies on land redistribution, like the willing-seller/willing-buyer approach, have failed. The White Paper on South African Land Policy of 1997, (DLA 1997: 08) emphasises co-operation with NGOs and the private sector, co-ordination of various government levels, as well as monitoring and evaluation processes. All the stakeholders should work together to find ways of making land reform a success. The government should make enough allocations in its budget for the realization of sustainable rural economic development. The district municipalities should also include the issue of land reform in their IDPs and show how they intend helping the beneficiaries with their projects. Manenzhe (2007: 02) asserts that supporting communities engaged in land reform projects cannot be achieved by an individual entity, but a more collective effort is required from a variety of role players.

Through the RDP, the ANC had come up a land reform programme which they regarded as a central driving force for rural development (Manenzhe, 2007: 02; Adams, 2000:02). Van Zyl *et al.*, (2000: 05) believe that achieving greater equality in land ownership and improving the livelihoods of the rural poor are the main challenges facing land restitution in South Africa.

The strategy for meeting basic needs rests on boosting production and household income through job creation, productivity and efficiency, improving conditions of employment, and creating opportunities for all to sustain themselves through productive activity (ANC, 1994:19). Rather than relying on the biological limits and cultural wisdom of a place to determine what should be cultivated there, a free-market dictates the means of food production. The approval and implementation of projects have been decentralized to provincial and district levels and closer cooperation is expected between various government departments and spheres of government (Jacobs, Lahiff & Hall, and 2003:49). Land reform is not only measurable in terms of equity in respect of access to land but also on alleviation of poverty and improvement of the overall quality of life of the beneficiaries in a sustainable manner; this depends on the level of ownership, participation, capacity buildings for the beneficiaries and the support services in connection with the challenges to projects and the policies.

Shepherd (2000: 211) has identified four key trends within contemporary rural development in South Africa which include - the importance of redistribution in a context of extreme inequality; the perceived importance of participation and the difficulties of participation where institutions are weak; the requirement for action across several key sectors, as well as the key roles to be played by local government in planning and coordination. It is, therefore, important that the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform should strengthen the role of local government and other institutions in as far as land reform as a means of rural development, is concerned. When there is a strong synergy and collaboration between institutions and spheres of government, the needs of rural communities for development will be realised. According to De Wet (2018:12), addressing the basic needs as perceived by community itself, assists greatly in improving the quality of life for the community is able to bring the current problems they are confronted with, within their locus of control.

Lahiff and Li (2012: 12) report that there is little or no evidence to suggest that land reform has led to improved efficiency, improvement of livelihoods, job creation or economic growth. The most relevant question is why over more than 25 years South Africa is still struggling to address the issue of land restitution, and coming up with a policy that will address the issues of sustainable development of the beneficiaries. Cloete and Wissink, (2000:78) maintain that the primary task of government is to create optimal conditions for sustainable development. The present ANC government, therefore, should strive to address the issue of land restitution through a policy that will bring about sustainable economic development to the majority of

black South Africans whose land was taken. Policy objectives should, therefore, keep track of needs and demands in the society, and adapt to changing levels of development in that society.

2.12 CONCLUSION

The chapter discussed the history of public administration as an activity and Public Administration as a discipline characterized by different stages of development. Public Administration has evolved with multidisciplinary stages but it continues to remain relevant in dealing with the complexity of societal problems, such as the management of government programmes. This chapter presented the details on the post-settlement challenges facing land restitution beneficiaries within the discipline of Public Administration. Public administration is instrumental in the achievement of the goals and objectives of the land reform programmes. In the discussion of the generic approach to the study of Public Administration, it has been highlighted that a number of factors have an impact on the effectiveness on how the Land Reform programme is administered. The next chapter discusses the discourse on land restitution, focussing on the challenges experienced by the beneficiaries and the support they had anticipated from the government. Land restitution, in the discussions is presented as an act of development.

CHAPTER 3

THE STATE OF DISCOURSE ON LAND RESTITUTION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the discourse on land restitution is interrogated by presenting the legislation governing the Land Reform Programme in South Africa and the impact of the Land Restitution challenges on the beneficiaries. The role of government, as the main stakeholder in the process of land restitution, is discussed, followed by the policy implementation on land restitution in the democratic era under the presidencies of Mandela, Mbeki, Zuma and Ramaphosa. The concept of development and its objectives are outlined as this creates the base to explain land reform as an act of development.

3.2 THE STATE OF DISCOURSE ON LAND RESTITUTION

According to May (2000:242), the Land Restitution Policy aims at restoring land to people who have been stripped of their land rights since 1913, under laws which were motivated by racism and discrimination and is intended to promote reconciliation and justice.

Murray (1996: 22) states that land restitution provides support for the process of reconciliation and development and calls also for an over-arching consideration of fairness and justice for the individual, the community and the country as a whole. The Department of Land Affairs was given responsibility for administering the Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994, which provides for the - restitution of land rights to persons or communities dispossessed of such rights after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially-discriminatory laws or practices; establishment of a Commission on Restitution of Land Rights and a Land Claims Court; and provision for matters connected therewith (DLA,1995:01). Chapter 2 Section 4 of the Act provides for the establishment of - a Commission on Restitution of Land Rights (that would receive and investigate claims, mediate and settle disputes arising from claims, and report to the courts on any unsettled claims); a dedicated land claims' court (to hear cases, to consider and ratify recommendation made by the Commission and other functions). Roodt (cited in Hendricks 2013: 39-40) defines, restitution, in relation to, "the restoration of land rights lost through the direct application of apartheid laws"

De Klerk (1991: 27), clarifies that land restitution has three basic components:

- It is used in the context of demand for political rights as land is a foundation for political power (Hanstad, Nielsen & Brown, 2004: ii). Wickeri and Kalhan(n:02) assert that the condition of landlessness threatens the enjoyment of fundamental human rights as access to land is not important for development and poverty reduction, but is also often necessary for access to numerous economic, social and cultural rights, and a gateway for many civil and political rights. According to Djeddah (2010:08) land also has social, cultural and political functions related to each country's history in addressing inequality, poverty, vulnerability to food insecurity and sustainable development in general.
- This gives land a political dimension which is essential within the context of political transformation of society, as a whole. The degree of human development, the extent of government effectiveness and the quality of the political system are the main variables which describe the level of overall development in a country (Rakos, Salvati & Vavouras, 2013:01). Political efforts should be made to create effective governance and a fair society, as well as improving the effectiveness of the processes of policy formulation and implementation, and the credibility of government's commitment to such policies (Rakos *et al.*, 2013:06).
- It is an attempt to acquire land on which to live and work and by implication to secure a livelihood. Shackleton, Shackleton and Cousins (2001:01-02) indicate that communal land supports the majority of rural population, many of whom live below the poverty line. Communal land and land reform farms involve rights to land resources, used for the production of supplementary food, livestock and the gathering of wild resources for consumption and sale. Access by the marginalized to natural resources (land, forests, water, fisheries, pastures among others) is important for reducing poverty; land is central to rural lives and it gives a household physical, financial, and nutritional security, while providing workers with sources of wages (Hanstad *et al.*, 2004:01). Land is also a natural asset which has the capacity to address other livelihood objectives, since aspects like, gender equality and sustainable use of resources, may also be addressed (Hanstad *et al.*, 2004:02).

Du Plessis (2004: 07-08) complains that records which are often inaccurate, incomplete or non-existent and multiple land claims by individuals or groups, make restitution implementation a difficult task. Mahlali (2019: 13) notes that as 25 years of democracy is being celebrated in South Africa, it is regrettable that the legacy of land dispossession, including social exclusion

and economic inequality is yet to be redressed, hence, the promises made and the expectations of people have not been fulfilled.

In rural cases, individuals and groups are often more determined to have their original land returned to them for different reasons, like - for fulltime settlement, or part-time use or in the hope of using it in the future - but the challenge lies in the level of settlement and development support provided by the state to restitution claimants, which has been, particularly, weak (du Plessis, 2004: 09). According to Hall (2007:16) the majority of beneficiaries across all the restitution projects have received no material benefits whatsoever from restitution, whether in the form of cash income or access to land. Failure to get their land back has impacted negatively on the beneficiaries for the redistribution of land is widely seen as having the potential to significantly improve the livelihoods of the rural poor and contribute towards economic development (Van Zyl *et al.*, 2000:01).

Different scholars give different perspectives on the failure and successes of the implementation of land restitution programme. Kariuku (2004: 11) postulates that the success of restitution has been constrained by poor integration within the national, provincial and local government programmes. Du Plessis (2004: 10) however, posits that a combination of widespread poverty, contradictory land reform policy, delayed implementation, as well as obstructive resistance to land reform by a small but powerful economic interest groups, as the causes of conflicts between and within communities, NGOs and government. Mahlati (2019: 19) points the finger at - the poor capability of the state, which is characterised by deficient coordination, limited and misaligned allocated resources and further complicated by corruption and post-settlement poor support system - as the main challenges to land restitution. On the other hand, Van der Westhuizen (2005: 02) believes that inadequate natural resources are the main limitation on success, as well as other problems such as a lack of proper management, lack of institutional support, and lack of gender participation. Aliber, *et al.*, (2013: 22) identify lack of money and equipment, lack of skills (both technical and managerial), lack of 'post-settlement support; lack of appropriate legal structures and infighting as challenges to land restitution. Evidence shows that poverty, lack of modern technical and managerial skills, as well as lack of follow-up support by the state, therefore, some of the communities that have received land back have not been able to utilize it all or efficiently. This detracts from one of the major policy objectives: tying land restitution to development, hence, the improvement of the lives of the beneficiaries of restitution (2004: 07).

Binswanger-Mkhize (2014: 260) states that the paucity and late arrival of post-settlement support has been a major problem in the land restitution programmes, thus, they have generally been perceived as slow and ineffective. This is partly the result of problems, ranging from policy to the practical consequences of implementation and post-restitution development; problems arising from the implementation process include - lack of community participation in the process, non-accountability from community leadership structures, lack of community cohesion, management and administrative concerns in the Land Claims Commission, capacity constraints, the resuscitation of chieftaincy and the complex nature of claims. Furthermore, the programme has been criticised for a lack of post-restitution development planning and a perceived urban bias (Rugege, 2004:186).

Masoka (2014: 02) explains that the policies that have been adopted by the state have been problematic from a number of perspectives and have fallen short of their delivery targets. Racially-based land policies were a cause of insecurity, landlessness and poverty amongst black people, and the cause of inefficient land restitution administration and land use. Matshego (2011: xiv) states that the current government of South Africa faces many challenges emanating from the legacy of the policies of the pre-1994 apartheid era and post-1994 elections. One of the challenges remains the skewed distribution of agricultural land, in favour of white commercial farmers. Previously-disadvantaged people had expected the government to implement the policies speedily, in terms of restoring to previous owners, land that was taken from them and redressing restitution injustices as manifested by imbalances in land ownership (Matshego, 2011: 21). The main policy objectives should be to tie land restitution programme to development and the improvement of the lives of the beneficiaries of land restitution (Rugege, 2004: 07). Mahlati (2019: 107) complains that the policy framework and implementation has not adequately addressed the distinct spatial contrast and differentiation as well as the alignment between historical, social, economic and environmental aspects.

According to Hall (2007: 01) policies that facilitate access to land can reduce poverty and income inequality while Cloete (2002: 211) recommends that the policies need to be evaluated. From this process we can learn about the consequences of public policy because according to the White Paper on South Africa Land Policy of 1997 (DLA, 1997: 30) past land policies were major causes of insecurity, landlessness, homelessness and poverty in South Africa; they had also resulted in inefficient urban and rural land use patterns and a fragmented system of land administration. Aliber *et al.*, (2013: 02) suggest that the deficiencies of the policies on land reform should be dealt with by the policy-makers because in the late 1990s the land restitution programme was plagued with problems of project collapse and idle land because the restitution

beneficiaries worked outside the restrictions imposed by the policy. Masoka (2014: 02) confirms that the policies that have been adopted by the state on land reform have been problematic from a number of perspectives and have fallen far short of their delivery targets. Cousins (2013: 11) indicates that policy-making on land has become a somewhat an *ad hoc* process in recent years as new directions have often failed to take into account the lessons from implementation of previous policies; many new pieces of legislation enacted by the ANC over 25 years into democracy, in a bid to transform South Africa into a non-racist, non-sexist, peaceful and prosperous society, have failed to address challenges of the majority of the people of South Africa, especially, those who have been waiting for the return of their land (Kruger,2014:81). According to Mbata and Muchara (2015:01-02) the poor performance and the slow redistribution of land, in the reform processes in South Africa, are primarily blamed on the fluctuating and sometimes conflicting policy messages since 1994; the policy message in 1994 was driven by a need to redress past inequalities based on racial lines, with respect to access to and ownership of land resources. The government that entered into power following the 1994 elections was left with a momentous task of a comprehensive reversal of policies that had denied land rights to black people and the consequences thereof (Deinenger, 1999). It is important that a land reform programme is informed by clear policy, and it seems that the post-1994 land reform processes in South Africa were influenced by a multiple of policy options and objectives (Gumede, 2014:64-65). The discussions below follow the policies' implementation under different South Africa presidents' era - Mandela, Mbeki and Zuma.

3.2.1 The Mandela era (1994-1999)

In 1994 the government set an extremely ambitious target for delivering land reform, with the target of redistributing thirty percent of land to African owners by 1999 (Driver,2007:69-70). Up to 1999 land reform was basically designed to get groups of former dispossessed people onto the land, using the Settlement and Land Acquisition Grant (Greenberg, 2013: 09; Rugege, 2004:11). The Abolishing of Racially-Based Land Measures Act was promulgated with the aim of at doing-away with racially-based laws and practices, related to land reform programmes (Kloppers & Pienaar, 2014: 01). Kouroutakis and Ranchordás (2016:22) clarify “sunset clauses” (or provisions) as dispositions that determine the expiry of a law or regulation within a pre-determined period. These provisions are conceived to automatically ‘erase’ legislation which is no longer necessary, either because it has fulfilled its function or because it is no longer effective. The period 1994-1999 was characterized by delivery of land reform which was slow, although, it was also a period of ‘tooling up’ through policymaking,

consultation and the building of institutions for delivery (Hall, 2004:04). From the Diagnostic Report on land reform in South Africa (2016:09), the early years of democracy were strongly focused on inclusive policy-making processes, however, progress was slow in the first five years of the land reform programme, and many initial targets were not met. Cousins (2017: 02) believes that the Mandela era was poised to lay the foundation for land restitution, in terms of the RDP 1994, during which period the state had to take reasonable measures within its available resources, to foster conditions enabling equitable access to land; government adopted a willing-buyer, willing-seller approach to land acquisition for redistribution purposes (Rugege, 2004:10). Land for redistribution was to be acquired on a willing-seller/willing-buyer basis, which compromised the quantity, quality and location of land to be redistributed as well as the form and pace at which land redistribution progressed (Nyawo-Shava and Bernard, 2010: 62). Transformational policies in South Africa, such as black economic empowerment (BEE), have increasingly and inextricably become part of the everyday political, economic and social life of all South Africans since the founding of the new democracy in April 1994 (Kruger, 2014:80); BEE has empowered women, workers, [the] youth, people with disabilities and people living in rural areas through diverse but integrated socio-economic strategies. The objectives of Article 2 of the Act are to facilitate B-BBEE by:

- promoting economic transformation, in order to enable participation of black people in the economy;
- achieving a substantial change in the racial composition of ownership, management structures and in the skilled occupations of existing and new enterprises;
- increasing the extent to which communities, workers, cooperatives and other collective enterprises own and manage existing and new enterprises and increasing their access to economic activities, infrastructure and skills training;
- increasing the extent to which black women own and manage existing and new enterprises and increasing their access to economic activities, infrastructure and skills training;
- promoting investment programmes that lead to broad-based and meaningful participation in the economy by black people, in order to achieve sustainable development and general prosperity;

- empowering rural and local communities by enabling access to economic activities, land, infrastructure, ownership and skills; and
- promoting access to finance for black economic empowerment (Kruger, 2014:83).

The objectives of the government, therefore, were set as - creating a more equitable distribution, reducing poverty, providing security tenure, addressing unjust practices and dispossession, establishing sound land administration, as well as contributing to national reconciliation, however, the progress was slow in the first five years of land reform, and most targets were not met (Cousins, 2017: 01-03). The Land Claims Commission found it challenging to provide effective post-settlement support for small-scale black farmers and land reform beneficiaries (Cousins, 2017: 03). Kloppers and Pienaar (2014: 13) indicate that the beneficiaries who moved into the land had limited resources for production or even to establish settlement with acceptable standards like access to water, electricity, housing, health care facilities and schools; these underpinned intractable problems in relation to productive use of the land. The first phase saw a policy blockage as the building blocks of a new coalition of social forces of the ANC and the Congress of Traditional Leaders in South Africa were put in place (Greenberg,2013: 10).

3.2.2 The Mbeki era (1999-2009)

According to Moyo (2013) in Gumede (2014:59) the process of land redistribution in South Africa has been very slow by (2007) of commercial agricultural land had been distributed through all government programme, only 4.2 million hectares (4.7%). During President Mbeki's era, policy priority shifted from meeting the needs of the poor to serving a group of aspirant black commercial farmers (Cousins (2017: 02-03). Official processes remained cumbersome and slow, plagued by poor co-ordination between departments and spheres of government. The large- scale commercial farming model continued to dominate planning and thinking about post-settlement support, with a huge gap between business plans and the needs, desires and capacities of beneficiaries. Black Economic Empowerment (BEE), or its extended version known as "broad-based black economic empowerment" (B-BBEE), was implemented by the South African government under the ruling party, the African National Congress (ANC) during the second term of the second president, Thabo Mbeki, in 2003.

Due to project failures, the ANC's National Conference, in Polokwane in 2007, emphasized the need for an integrated programme of rural development, land reform and agrarian change but

despite these recommendations, the land restitution continued to grind slowly hampered by a small budget, capacity problems and inadequate funds for post-settlement support (Cousins, 2017: 03-04). Chapter 6 Section 6.2 of the Gear Macroeconomic Strategy (DoF, 1996:16) states that the land reform programme, and the combining of asset redistribution with enhancement of tenure have crucial roles in improving the long-term prospect for employment and income-generation in the rural economy. Gear was supposed to lead to the reduction of poverty, inequality while promoting job creation; these goals were to rest on - economic growth, institutional reform in the labour market and government programmes (Streak, 2004:273). Gear, unfortunately, failed to produce the promised employment creation and poverty reduction (Streak, 2004:271). For COSATU and a range of other commentators, the Gear strategy was a clear failure; this is because the strategy had promised, in the tradition of the RDP, to reduce the legacies of inequalities and poverty left by apartheid but had failed to do so, as it had even failed to meet its growth, employment and private investment targets (Streak, 2004:279). The ANC resolved to implement large scale programmes in 2007 aimed at establishing new small-holders and improving the productivity of existing small-scale and subsistence farmers who have had to break into established markets, controlled by entrenched interests (Greenberg, 2013: 23).

3.2.3 The Zuma era (2009-2016)

After 2009, the Zuma government identified the creation of the Department of Rural Development and Land reform and attention to rural development, food security and land reform, as their national priorities (Cousins, 2017:05). The focus was to create a ‘vibrant and sustainable rural economy’ through a Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP). The CRDP, however, failed to address structural realities. The Restitution of Land Rights Amendment Act of 2014 was passed, and it opened land claims for another five years, until 2019 (Cousins, 2017: 5-6). In 2010 the Minister of Land Reform and Development, Mr Nkwinika introduced the New Growth Path framework aimed at enhancing growth, employment creation and equity. The NGP was the government’s strategy to build an inclusive economy, and, thus, create decent employment, sustainable livelihoods and eradicate poverty and income inequality (Nkwinika, 2012:06). According to Natrass (2011:01) South Africa’s ‘new growth path’ had aimed at creating 5 million jobs by 2020 which would bring about a new, more inclusive labour-absorbing and efficient economy. Unfortunately, most people, like Hendrick (2012:08) see the NGP as a frustrating document which, although, it sets a vision which is possible, is so conditional on a range of structural, organizational and ideological

changes that it veers towards the utopia; it fails to confront the trade-offs between wages, employment, productivity and profitability.

These problems, together with the slow pace of redistribution, have led to widespread dissatisfaction and some political formations have called for the property clause in the constitution to be scrapped, so that land can be expropriated more easily (Cousins, 2017: 13). Alternatively, Golete, Matjajana and Makombe (2018: 430) proposed a land reform process that incorporates mentorship, averts expropriation without compensation, but achieves both political and economic imperatives of land reform. The issue of land reform was based on a legally-negotiated sound framework which abolished the apartheid policies and replaced them with democratic policies that gave hope to the land claimants; the majority of them, however, are still waiting for the land they were forcefully removed from and those who got their land back seem to be struggling as most of the projects they inherited from the process of land reform have collapse. Lahiff (2000: 02) concludes that the transfer of land would appear to have minimal impact on the livelihoods of the beneficiaries, largely due to inappropriate project design, a lack of necessary support services and shortages of working capital, leading to widespread under-utilization of land. To ensure that all South Africans attain a decent standard of living through the elimination of poverty and reduction of inequality, the government came up with the National Development Plan which sprung from the cabinet's recognition that South Africa cannot achieve social cohesion and sustained economic development unless all players work together to address poverty and inequality (Hendrick ,2012:06). The National Development Plan advises that various models of land acquisition and redistribution should be considered to resolve the slow pace of land reform and the lack of successful implementation of policy (Sasol, 2006). It is recommended that land reform should be based on the following principles: making space for more rapid transfer of agricultural land to black land reform beneficiaries; providing essential opportunities for education and skills transfer to land reform beneficiaries to promote sustainable and productive land use; ensuring that cases of opportunism, speculation and corruption in land markets are prevented through effective monitoring institutions; changing land transfer targets to better match economic realities so that land is transferred rapidly and efficiently, provide opportunities for white commercial farmers and the private sector to participate in land-reform initiatives so that they can contribute to emergent black farmers; enabling landowners to play an active role in land reform, agricultural growth and rural economic transformation; enhance the capacity across the spheres and sectors of government in coordinating in the planning and implementing of land reform, as well as

improving the performance of agriculture for job creation, growth, land and income distribution.

3.3 LAND REFORM CHALLENGES IN SOUTH AFRICA AS HIGHLIGHTED BY POLITICAL PARTIES

During the last years ‘land reform’ became a vital issue and hotspot in political discourse in the Republic of South Africa (Zukowski,2017:76). The unequal distribution of land in South Africa was cemented by a series of policies and laws enacted before and during apartheid (Muller & Kotzur, 2019: 03). The Native Land Act of 1913 deprived the majority of South Africans of the right to own land. The Group Areas Act of 1950 and 1957, the Native Resettlement Act of 1954, the Native Trust and Land Amendment Act of 1954 were used as a basis for the forced removal of the majority of black people from their ancestral land; lack of access and ownership of land became the major cause of poverty, conflict, inequality and unemployment in rural areas, causing extreme suffering and hardship in South Africa. Cerio (2019: 40) narrates that the landless rural poor served as tenants, agri-worker or labourers who received very low wages in all working environments. The 1994 general election brought about the new democratic government in South Africa and a land reform programme was developed. Through this land reform programme, the ANC-led government aimed at redressing the past injustices of forced removals of the majority of black people by the previous government of South Africa, by securing land tenure for rural dwellers, eliminating overcrowding and supply residential and productive land to the poorest sector of the rural population. According to Masoka (2011: 102), the new government identified land reform as a key priority programme to act as a driving force for rural development and building the economy of the country. The main aim of land reform programme was not only to transfer land to the dispossessed black majority of South Africa, but also to ensure that the transferred land becomes productive through the reform of the agricultural policy framework which made participation by the black population in agriculture so difficult, prior 1994. The land reform programme is in three tiers - land redistribution (which aims at providing previously disadvantaged and the poor with land for residential and productive purposes); land tenure reform (which seeks to address a range of problems that arose from settlers’ colonization and dispossession and aims at provide legal certainty for those who continue to live or work on communal land as tenants on land owned by whites) (Muller & Kotzur, 2019: 04); the last tier, the Restitution Policy, with the goal of restoring land and providing other restitution remedies to people dispossessed by racially-discriminatory legislation and practices in line with the spirit of reconciliation, reconstruction

and development, was then put in place. Land restitution according to the Restitution of Land Rights Act No 22 of 1994 stipulates that qualifying claimants who were dispossessed of their land after 19 June 1913, should claim their land back. Matukane (2011: 22) states that restitution needed to address the legacy of forced removals, and the importance of land, not only as an economic asset but also as a consultative element of identity, culture, history and tradition. Through the Assistance Act No 126 of 1993, eligible persons were able to obtain a settlement/Land Acquisition Grant. Some of the beneficiaries chose to continue with different restitution projects or start new projects on the land they acquired but these were accompanied by a lot of challenges.

It is generally accepted that the land question is highly controversial and is fraught with political obstacles while raising profound questions, which do not allow for quick-fix (Matukane, 2011: 15). South Africa's history of conquest and dispossession, of forced removal and a racially- skewed distribution of land resources have left a complex and difficult legacy, namely, insecurity, landlessness and poverty among black people and a case of inefficient land administration and land use system (Mbao, 2002).

The government needs to develop a restitution policy which restores land and provides support to land restitution beneficiaries to remedy their challenges, thereby, giving hope to the dispossessed people who were racially discriminated against by past legislations and practices; a policy which embraces reconciliation, reconstruction and development, needs to be initiated. The politicians, bureaucrats and development planners need to take the aspirations, culture, social and economic status of the beneficiaries into consideration when they formulate and implement the policy. The new policy should create a new South Africa which would be a land of equality, agrarian reform and sustainable economic development. The slow pace of formulating and implementing such a land reform policy that can speed up land redistribution in South Africa, has led to calls for land redistribution without compensation (Makhado, 2012; Mubecua, Mbatha & Mpanza, 2020).

According to Dlamini and Ogunnubi (2018: 339) the Land Expropriation Without Compensation debates have certainly sparked more issues and concerns regarding land ownership, use and management. Expropriation of land means the compulsory acquisition of land from a private person (individuals or juristic persons) by the state for constitutionally-circumscribed purposes. Many people in and outside the South African parliament have started to talk about expropriation of land without compensation (Mubecua & Nojiyeza, 2019; Sihlobo

& Kapuya,2018). There is a strong debate among political parties, like ANC, EFF, DA, BLF, and PAC on the issue of expropriation of land without compensation. The debate by these political parties is around the severe inequality between black and white South Africans, in terms of land ownership and how the South African economy can reach its full potential and significantly narrow gaps in income, skills and opportunities through equal access to land ownership (which is one of the areas where disparity is most devastating).

The ANC at its 54th National Conference in December 2017 agreed on Land Expropriation without Compensation. On 27 February 2018 the South African Parliament adopted a motion that a process had to be started to amend Section 25 (the property rights' clause) in the South African Constitution to allow for expropriation of land without compensation (Roets, 2017; Muller & Kotzur, 2019). President Cyril Ramaphosa rightly highlighted the need for speedy redistribution of land from his cabinet, given the high expectations of the public to see concrete results; agriculture should, therefore, be repositioned as a center piece for rural development, economic growth and job creation (Qobo, 2019). The president of the ANC, Mr Cyril Ramaphosa further explained that the ANC's position on changing the Constitution to enable expropriation without compensation, saying that while the constitution does not currently prohibit it, the ANC's view is that, an Amendment would provide certainty and clarity. He emphasized that the amendment would need to reinforce the fundamental principles of the property clause; he also outlined some instances where expropriation without compensation might be justified - unused land, derelict buildings, purely speculative land holdings or circumstances where occupiers have strong historical rights and title holders do not occupy or use their land, such as in the cases of labour tenacity, informal settlements and abandoned inner-city buildings.

The Economic Freedom Fighters (EFF), has been at the forefront of advocating and camping for the Land Expropriation without compensation approach; the land should be nationalised (which gives the state power and control over land) to ensure equality, job opportunities, and poverty reduction(Mbata,2020,et al., 2020:62). In May 2019, the Economic Freedom Fighters (EFF) leader Julius Malema reiterated his party's call to expropriate land without compensation and give it to the poor. This was said after he had assured South Africans that no one will lose his/her home as a result of land expropriation without compensation (Sowetan, 27 February 2018). According to the EFF, land should be nationalized so that the state should be the sole owner of all land in the country.

The Democratic Alliance in their DA Policy on L and Reform (2013) has plans to prevent a non-compensatory model of land expropriation being rolled out across South Africa, they propose Joint ventures, Contract Farming and Farm Equity Schemes. The DA is dead against the amendment of the Constitution, which currently states that compensation must be given in exchange for any land surrendered. According to the DA if, however, the purpose of the amendment is to implement expropriation without compensation wholesale and without conditions, then such a motion would offend Section 1 of the Constitution and would in effect, collapse the core underlying values of our Constitution. Breytenbach cautions that land expropriation without compensation has the power to collapse the South African economy even further as this would enable more corruption, slamming the billion-rand *Mala Mala* restitution deal as being ‘overly excessive’.

To the DA, the barriers to land reform have been and continue to be corruption, constrained budget and a lack of political will, therefore, amending the Constitution is nothing more than an attempt by the ANC to hide its failures in land redistribution and reform, as it is clear that the Constitution includes clear legitimate mechanisms for land redistribution, based on just and equitable compensation (Head, 2019).

Speaking at the Cape Chamber of Commerce and Industry’s Rumble, in the Urban Jungle at the Cape Sun, BLF leader, Mngxitama said that the movement was ‘organizing themselves’ to expropriate land without compensation. BLF has declared that its members are prepared to die for the land, arguing that white people also died while ‘stealing’ the land from black people. The current land reclamation programme, they say, serves the interests of colonialism and the party is not impressed with how the ANC or the EFF is handling the land question.

“land or death-without land, one is as good as dead, we will therefore redistribute the land whether the constitution is changed or not.”

According to the BLF president, the Constitution is unlikely to be changed, but they will redistribute the land nonetheless and they will simply lead a process of people-led land expropriation (Van der Merwe,2018). They state that they have already identified farms and houses as well. He ended by saying that they are extremely angry, and he had seen enough people ready to give the ultimate sacrifice. He said that expropriation of land without compensation and fair distribution of land would be good for economic development and historic redress (Mabuza, 2018).

According to the PAC, expropriation of land without compensation will run into serious legal problems, which may take more than ten years to resolve and may just worsen the land problems because when you expropriate, you take someone's property and that someone also has rights and constitutional protection. "Land expropriation without compensation cannot fly", Mr Moloto, the president of PAC reiterated (Makinana, 2019).

The FW Foundation stated that any dilution of property rights would inevitably have a negative impact on agricultural stability, food security, investment and economic growth. Expropriation of Land Without Compensation (EWC) would cause a financial crisis for banks, such as the Land Bank, which are owed R170 billions by the agricultural sector. This, the Foundation considers as unnecessary because Section 25 of the Constitution of South Africa already makes adequate provision for land reform (FW Foundation,2018, Geber,2018).

Muller and Kotzur (2019:01) maintain that the narrative on land reform in South Africa often creates the impression that the expropriation of land owned by white farmers without compensation could solve the country's problem of unequal income distribution, rather, it would take a whole set of political reform to create social justice in the country. Visible success might help appease those groups that are disappointed with South African democracy, but if the reforms fail, then this will likely exacerbate the already palpable sense of frustration felt by ordinary South Africans(Reddy,2015; Mattes,2002). Muller and Kotzur (2019: 03) concluded by indicating that South Africa needs to find solutions to a complex problem which extends beyond the issue of expropriation without compensation. Some arguments against expropriation, in South Africa, were that it would result in a complicated and lengthy court process and that it could generate extreme political opposition (Rugege, 2004: 195).

Inequality in land ownership and control and pre-and post-settlement support have always been a critical issue which have impacted negatively on job creation, poverty eradication and agrarian reform (Wegerif & Guereña,2020). During the transition from colonisation and apartheid to a democratic setting in most of the Southern African countries, land reform has been a priority which gave hope to the landless African black people whose land was taken from them. Different countries developed different approaches to the issue of land reform. Speaking specifically of the South African context, Kepe and Cousins (2002) in Manenzhe (2007: 03) contend that provision of complementary services and investment in both land reform and wider rural development are needed from state and non-state development agencies. Supporting communities engaged in land reform projects cannot be achieved by an individual entity but a more collective effort is required from a variety of role players. Lahiff (2001) in

Manenzhe (2007: 03) emphasises that a major challenge in restitution as a programme of land reform, is that it results in inadequate infrastructure development, poor service provision and unrealistic business planning. He adds that there is no clear linkage between land reform and national, provincial and local governments programmes for development.

3.4 LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK OF LAND REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA

The inequalities in land distribution and ownership caused by apartheid laws prior 1994 forced the South African government, after the first democratic election in 1994, to develop land and agrarian-related policies and programmes, and passed several pieces of legislations with the aim of redressing those injustices. All the policies and legislations were the results of the designing of the new Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. According to Masoka (2014:70), the South African Constitution of 1996 and the Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 marked the departure from the country's past history of land dispossession.

3.4.1 The Constitution of The Republic of South Africa, 1996

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa is the supreme law of the country. Section 25 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, establishes the framework for the implementation of land reform. According to Section 25(7) of Chapter 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, a person or community dispossessed of property after 19 June 1913 (when the Native Land Act 27 of 1913 was introduced) as a result of past discriminatory laws or practices, are entitled either to restitution of that property or equitable redress. Section 25 specifies the need for land reform to address the legacy of the past policy which was based on racial discrimination. Section 25 further guarantees the right of property and provides for the power of the state to expropriate private property for public purposes or in the public interest subject to a just and equitable compensation. Forced removals of black people in support of apartheid laws, like the Group Areas Act and the Natives Land Act, in processes of homeland consolidation and clearing 'black spots', were features of apartheid repression and formed a potent basis in the 1990s for the dispossessed to demand that their land be returned to them (Hall, 2003:217). The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, provided the legal foundation for the state's land reform programme (Jacobs, 2003: 01). The abolishment of the legislation that encouraged skewed pattern of landholdings by the introduction of the Provision Land for Settlement Act 126 of 1993, meant that the historically-disadvantaged people could claim the land back or receive some sort of compensation for the

loss of their land during the apartheid era (Saunders: 2011: 21). The entrenchment of land reform in the Constitution and in government policy, however, is a victory for a transformative agenda in South Africa (Hall, 2004: 225).

3.4.2 The Native Land Act 27 of 1913

Walker (2014: 655) contends that through the 1913 Land Act, the country was divided into “two irredeemably unequal zones: a fertile, productive heartland comprising 87 percent of the land reserved for whites, and a marginal, unproductive periphery, made up of the 13 percent of land reserved for blacks...”. The Act made provisions for the purchasing and leasing of land by Natives and other Persons in several parts of the Union and for other purposes in connection with the ownership and occupation of land by Natives and other Persons (RSA, 1913: 436). The Native Land Act 27 of 1913 was aimed at regulating the acquisition of land by natives - black people. It was aimed at restricting access and control over land resources by black people of South Africa, therefore, large portion of the agricultural land was put in the hands of the white minority of South Africa. The 1913 Natives Land Act sought to re-establish the power of the white farmer by prohibiting an African from owning or purchasing any land, except in the reserves (Thwala, 2003:02). The Act introduced a definitive division and legal sanctification of land in South Africa between areas of White and Black settlement and permanent residence, in the ratio of 92% and 8%, respectively (Okubor, 2010:12).

A native could not enter into any agreement or transaction for the purchase, hire or other acquisition from a person other than a native, of any such land or of any right thereto, interest therein, or servitude thereof (Hall, 2014:02). Letsoalo (1987: 57) states that the loss of land and the resultant death of peasant agriculture by blacks was a severe blow for the black peasantry. Africans were allowed in white areas only as servants and never as owners or independent producers (Weiderman, 2004: 08). As a result of these Native Land Acts, major food insecurity, landlessness, homelessness, and poverty became rife in South Africa (Letsoalo, 1987:67). Okubor (2010:17) explains that the argument on which the 1913 Land Act was founded is that, ‘as the natives are such poor agriculturists, it is a mistake to give them more than a minimum of land, and only that of the poorest quality’. The starkest legacy of the Act is the combination of poverty and inequality in South Africa (Hall, 2014: 05). This Act was abolished by the introduction of the Abolishment of Racial Based Measure Act 108 of 1991 and repealed in 1993 (Mamphodo, 2006:24).

3.4.3 The Native Trust and Land Act No 18 of 1936

The Native Trust and Land Trust Act No 18 of 1936 introduced a comprehensive system of registering and controlling the distribution of labour tenants and squatters (Okubor, 2010:12). Under the Native Trust and Land Act No 18 of 1936, the existing locations for African people and reserves were congested, denuded, overstocked, eroded and, for the most part, in a deplorable condition (Lahiff, 2007). The 1936 Native Land and Trust Act also worked as a mechanism to continue with the confinement and segregation of African people in “native reserves” (Dlamini, 2016:67). Those who were removed were resettled into the native reserves (de Wet, 1994: 362).

The purchase of land by African people, the statement of policy under the Native Trust and Land Act No 18 of 1936, notes that while additional trust land will from time-to-time be made available for the ‘settlement’ of African people, they should only, under exceptional cases, be allowed to purchase land. In March 1991, a white paper on Land Reform was published and this facilitated the repeal of both the 1913 and 1936 Land Acts, together with the Group Areas Act. From that period, the state enacted the Abolition of Racially Based Land Measures Act of 1991 (Dlamini, 2016:69).

3.4.4 The Group Areas Act 41 of 1950

The Group Areas Act, 1950 (Act No. 41 of 1950) on racially-segregated urban areas, consolidated artificial categories of groups with respect to residence, business and control of interracial property holdings (Okubor, 2010:13). According to RSA, (1950:407), the Group Areas Act 41 of 1950 provided for the establishment of group areas, for the control of the acquisition of immovable property and the occupation of land and premises, and for matters incidental thereto. The Group Areas Act 41 of 1950 was aimed at reducing the power of black people in urban areas by making it difficult for them to acquire a stake of land in town (Saunders, 2011: 20). These Group Areas were therefore created for the “exclusive ownership and occupation of a designated group” (Christopher, 1994: 105). The Act set a clear tone for separate development – which then entrenched rural poverty amongst those who lived in the countryside, specifically Africans. After the enactment of this Act, it then became a criminal offence for which one could be prosecuted, if found to be living or owning land in an area designated for another race (Dyzenhaus, 1991). Masoko (2014: 28) mentions that the segregation and unequal land distribution between blacks and whites continued for decades and generally resulted in black people becoming poorer; poverty was pervasive and largely

rural. The Group Areas Act No. 41 forced physical separation and segregation between races. The Act was part of the wider apartheid system based on racial segregation and ‘separate development’ and it regulated where people could live and own land (Cochrane & Chelan, 2017: 09, Dlamini, 2006:68). The Group Areas Act 41 of 1950 was repealed on 30 June 1991 by the Abolition of Racially Based Land Measures Act 108 of 1991.

3.4.5 The Abolishment of Racial Based Measure Act 108 of 1991

In terms of its aim and objective, the Abolishment of Racial Based Measure Act 108 of 1991 was to repeal or amend certain apartheid laws so as to abolish certain restrictions, based on race or membership of a specific population group, on the acquisition and utilization of rights to land. It provided for the rationalization or phasing out of certain racially-based institutions and statutory and regulatory systems, for the regulation of norms and standards in residential environments, and for the establishment of a commission (RSA, 1991:02). Chapter VI Sections 90 and 91 of Government gazette No. 13341 (RSA, 1991:22-23) talk of the establishment of an Advisory Commission on Land Allocation and the objects of the Commission shall be to make recommendations to the State President regarding: the identification of land belonging to the State; identification of rural land (with a view to the acquisition thereof by the State for the purpose of agricultural settlement); the planning and development (with regard to the manner in which the land can best be developed to offer the greatest number of people, in case of agricultural land, a decent living, or, in the case of residential land, adequate living space); and the allocation of land, (including proposals regarding the determination of procedures and closing dates in connection with applications for allocations and a determination of the basis on which allocations can be made with regard to claims by persons disadvantaged in respect of the land concerned or by the application of a law repealed by this Act).

3.4.6 The Provision of Land For Settlement Act 126 of 1993

In terms of its aim and objective, the Provision of Land for Settlement Act 126 of 1993, ensures the designation of certain areas of land, to regulate the subdivision of such land and the settlement of persons thereon, as well as for matters connected thereof (RSA, 1993:02). The Act provides a framework with which land for settlement can be demarcated or zoned and for the acquisition of land for settlement and production purposes. The Provision of Land and Assistance Amendment Act 58 of 2008 amended the Provision of Land and Assistance Act 126 of 1993, so as to state the objectives of the Act; clarify and extend the application of the provisions on the acquisition, planning, development, improvement and disposal of property;

financial assistance for land reform purposes so as to provide for the maintenance of property for land reform purposes, as well as to provide for matters connected therewith (RSA, 2008:02).

Insertion of Section 1A in Act 126 of 1993 states the objectives of the Act as to - give effect to the land and related reform obligations in terms of section 25 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996; effect, promote, facilitate or support the maintenance, planning sustainable use, development and improvement of property contemplated in this Act; contribute to poverty alleviation, as well as promote economic growth and empowerment of historically-disadvantaged persons (RSA, 2008:04).

3.4.7 The Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 (As amended 1997)

The Restitution of Land Rights Act no 22 of 1994 set the legal basis for restitution and provides restitution of land rights to persons or communities dispossessed of such rights after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially-discriminatory laws or practices; to establish a Commission on Restitution of Land Rights and a Land Claims Court and to provide for matters connected therewith. Chapter 1 Section 1 of The Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994, indicates that land restitution can take the following forms: restoration of the land from which the claimants were dispossessed; provision of alternative land; payments of compensation in a just and equitable way; combination of the above and priority access to government housing and land development programmes (DLA, 1997:15). The Act excludes those whose land was dispossessed before the 13 June 1913 or those who held land before that date, however, the setting of cut-off dates is a challenge looking at the dynamics of land dispossession and the claimants.

3.4.8 The Labour Tenants Act 03 of 1996

The aim or objective of the Act is to provide security of tenure of labour tenants and those persons occupying or using land as a result of their association with labour tenants; to provide for the acquisition of land and rights in land by labour tenants and to provide for matters connected therewith. Chapter 1 Section 2 of the Act gives the limitations on these rights: the rights conferred by this Act shall be subject to the provisions of any law providing for the expropriation of land or rights in land and in the event of expropriation of land which is occupied or used by a labour tenant or his or her association, such labour tenant or his or her successor in title, shall be entitled to just and equitable compensation as prescribed in the Constitution for the resulting loss of rights to the land. The Labour Tenants Act 03 of 1996

Chapter 2 Section 9 provides tenants with a protection against unfair eviction and gives them the rights to acquire ownership of either the land they currently occupy or a sustainable alternative land. A labour tenant who has attained the age of 65 years, or as a result of disability is unable personally to provide labour to the owner or lessee and has not nominated a person to provide labour in his or her stead in terms of section 4, shall not be evicted on the grounds referred to in section 7(2)a. It was the first time in 1993 in South African history that legislation reckoned all races as equal (Lewis, 1995:23).

3.5 POLICIES IN RESPECT OF LAND REFORM

The South African Land Reform Programme (LRP) was implemented after 1994 by government in an attempt to redress imbalances in land ownership which had emanated from the racially-biased policies of the apartheid Government prior to 1994 (Lubambo, 2011: 01). According to Lubambo (2011), the aim of the LRP was to transfer land to the historically-disadvantaged black citizens, improve livelihoods and stimulate the economy by compensating people for, and returning, land unjustly taken during the apartheid era. Apartheid policies pushed millions of black South Africans into overcrowded and impoverished reserve, homelands and township. In addition, capital-intensive agricultural practices led to the large-scale eviction of farm dwellers from their land and homes. The land reform policies were introduced to address the issues of landlessness, lack of ownership, rights to property, empowerment and poverty (Links, 2011: 21). The White Paper on South Africa Land reform Policy was introduced, which aimed at achieving a more equitable distribution of land ownership through its stated objectives and the land reform was seen as a driving force for rural development and building the economy (DLA, 1997:07). The South African government has various land reform policies and programmes in place, in order to redress the injustices of the past (May, 2000:241). These are discussed below.

3.5.1 The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)

In 1994, the Government of South Africa committed itself to the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), a policy framework designed to promote a fundamental transformation of the social, economic and moral foundations of South African society (African National Congress [ANC], 1994). The RDP identified land reform as a key component of meeting basic needs and building the economy (ANC, 1994). The RDP further regarded land

reform as a central driving force for rural development, and set a target of redistributing 30% of agricultural land within five years of achieving democratic governance (ANC, 1994: 21-23).

A Rural Development Programme (RDP) was introduced and one of its objectives was to implement a fundamental land reform programme. This programme must be demand-driven and must aim to supply residential and productive land to the poorest section of the rural population and aspirant farmers (ANC, 1994). Masoko (2014: 03) reiterates that the South Africa land reform programme aims at creating jobs, as well as reducing poverty and inequalities.

As part of RDP's comprehensive development policy, it had to raise rural incomes and productivity, and encourage the use of land for agricultural and, other productive or residential purposes. The land policy had to ensure security of tenure for all South African, regardless of their system of land-holding, for example, it had to remove all forms of discrimination against women's access to land (ANC, 1994).

According to Walker (2002), the RDP would integrate growth, development, reconstruction and redistribution into a unified programme, through an infrastructural programme aimed at meeting people's basic needs. This was the dominant discourse under which South Africa's land reform programme was launched in 1994/95.

- Subsection 5 notes that the state must take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to foster conditions which would enable citizen to gain access to land, on an equitable basis.
- Subsection 6 states that a person or community whose tenure of land is legally insecure as a result of past racially-discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided by an Act of Parliament, either to tenure which is legally secure or to comparable redress.
- Subsection 7 states that a person or community dispossessed of property after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially-discriminatory laws or practices is entitled to the extent provided by the Act of parliament, either to restitution of that property or to equitable redress.

This is an integral part of the broader land reform programme and closely linked to the need for the redistribution of land and tenure reform. A conservative estimate suggests that over 3.5

million of black people, in rural and urban areas, were forcibly dispossessed of their land and homes during the apartheid era (Lahiff, 2001; RSA, 2005). In a quest to reverse the effect of colonialism and apartheid the government introduced land reform programme to bring about equitable access to all of South African's natural resources.

3.5.2 The White Paper on Land Policy of 1997

The Land Affairs White Paper sets out the vision and implementation strategy for South Africa's land policy; a policy that is just, builds reconciliation and stability, contributes to economic growth, and bolsters household welfare (DLA, 1997:05). The main objectives of the White Paper Policy (1997:07) are to deal with the injustices of racially-based land dispossession of the past, by ensuring a more equitable distribution of land ownership, securing tenure for all by putting in place a land management system that supports sustainable land use patterns, through rapid land release for development.

Current land ownership and land development patterns strongly reflect the political and economic conditions of the apartheid era. Racially-based land policies were a cause of insecurity, landlessness and poverty amongst black people, and a cause of inefficient land administration and land use. Land ownership and a racially-skewed distribution of land resources in South Africa have long been a source of conflict and has left the country with a complex and difficult legacy (DLA, 1997:04). The case for South Africa government's land reform policy is thus four-fold: it fosters national reconciliation and stability, underpins economic growth, improves household welfare and alleviates poverty (DLA, 1997: 07). The prime purpose of government's land development policy is to establish procedures to facilitate the release of appropriate public land for affordable housing, public services and productive as well as recreational purposes (Shabane, 2019:18).

The government's land reform programme is made up of the following principal components:

- Land Restitution, which involves returning (or otherwise compensating victims) for land lost since 19 June 1913, because of racially-discriminatory laws.
- Land Redistribution makes it possible for poor and disadvantaged people to buy land with the help of a Settlement/Land Acquisition Grant in order to address the urgent and immediate cases of landlessness and homelessness.

- Land Tenure Reform is the most complex area of land reform. It aims to bring all people occupying land under a unitary, legally-validated system of landholding. It will devise secure forms of land tenure, help resolve tenure disputes and provide alternatives for people who are displaced in the process (DLA, 1997: 10-11).

Key issues facing land restitution are how to:

- ensure that the rural and urban claimants who were dispossessed of land after 1913, receive restitution in the form of land or other appropriate and acceptable remedies;
- ensure that appropriate administrative and financial arrangements are developed and implemented to respond to the thousands of claims within the time limits set;
- respond to claims in urban areas where land has been redeveloped and changed hands since removal of the claimants;
- ensure the constructive participation of all role players – the Commission, the Land Claims Court, current land-owners, national, provincial and local government, and the claimants themselves (DLA, 1997: 10).

Restitution can take the form of:

- restoration of the land from which claimants were dispossessed;
- provision of alternative land;
- payment of compensation;
- alternative relief comprising a combination of the above; or
- priority access to government housing and land development programmes (DLA,1997: 15).

3.6 COMMUNAL PROPERTY ASSOCIATIONS (CPAS)

Communal Property Association is a legal body through which members of disadvantaged and poor communities, can collectively acquire, hold and manage property in terms of a written constitution and it provides a relatively simple and accessible mechanism through which such group ownership systems may be recognized (DLA, 1997: 08). Mandiwana (2001: 26) describes the Communal Property Association as a structure through which claimants of the land who were previously-disadvantaged, can, collectively, acquire and manage property and to record and register communal rights. The CPA is a distinct landholding system based on a written constitution (Matshoga, 2011: 06). Malan (2001) cited in Mufamadi (2011: 49) explains that the Associations' processes and control must be in harmony with the people who are responsible for carrying them out, if not, they will be rejected by all concerned; elected representatives, therefore, should always provide guidelines for their subordinates and the way the former behave will have an impact on the behaviour of others (Hanekom *et al.*, 1995: 166). Kuye, Thornhill and Fourie (2002) in Mafunisa (2002: 195), identifies correct and consistent leadership, sufficient leadership, sufficient supervision, adequate policies and procedures and effective delegation as features within the organization which may create an environment which is conducive to good governance, production and sustainability. All the elected members should be directed by the Constitution as agreed upon by all the beneficiaries so that conflicts should be dealt with immediately and resolutions assist the associations to fulfil their mandates.

The aim or objective of the Communal Property Associations Act 28 of 1996 is to enable communities to form juristic persons, to be known as “communal property associations” on basis agreed upon by members of a community, in terms of written constitution; and to provide for matters connected therewith. It is desirable that communities should be able to establish appropriate legal institutions through which they acquire, hold and manage property in common, and ensure that such institutions are established and managed in a manner which is non-discriminatory, equitable and democratic and that such institutions be accountable to their members; in addition, members of such institutions are protected against abuse of power by other members.

The elected trustees are given extensive power as holders of land on behalf of the community in terms of written constitution and such associations are regulated by the Communal Property Act, Act no 28 of 1996 (DLA, 1996: 06). The Communal Property Association (CPA) Act 28

of 1996 Section 1 allows disadvantaged communities to acquire and manage property collectively and to record and register communal rights, immediately.

The CPAs were formed in order to acquire, hold and manage property on a basis agreed to by members of community and the Communal Property Act 28 of 1996. They enable communities to form juristic persons, to be known as “Communal Property Association” in order to acquire, hold and manage property on a basis agreed to by members of a community in terms of a written constitution, and to provide for matters connected thereof (DLA, 1996:01). Section 9 sub-section 1 lays down the principles to be accommodated in the constitutions - fair and inclusive decision-making by affording all members a fair opportunity to participate in the decision-making process of the Association; equality of membership in that there is no discrimination against any prospective or existing members of the community, directly or indirectly, and without derogating from the generality of this provision on one or more of the following grounds, namely, race, gender, sex, ethnic or social origin, age, sexual orientation, religion and fair access to property of the association and accountability and transparency (DLA,1996:06-08). Ramutsindela (2016:32), however, argues that many of the land-related CPAs Constitutions have been cut-and-paste from other CPAs, and as a result they are - often misunderstood by members, poorly aligned to local land tenure practices, irrelevant for members to comply with, and failing to address the needs and setup of the land restitution beneficiaries, as context are enormously different. Tolinner *et al.*, (2011: 136-137) maintain that the success of an organization can be measured on the base of the organization performance and the decisions of those in management positions are crucial for the performance of the organization. This can be confirmed because in most of the CPAs there are a lot of infights and misunderstanding which result in poor human relations and poor productivity.

Manenzhe *et al.*, (2007: 03) talks of the dysfunctional CPAs with the traditional leadership taking over the authority of the community and the CPAs, as attributing to the failure of development and to the inability of the government agencies to provide services, such as provision of water and housing as discussions on these result in conflicts. According to Ramutsindela (2016:31) the insufficient government support following the CPAs establishment has make them ineffective and dysfunctional; members complain that adequate start-up and operating costs and lack of equipment, fertilizers, and marketing tools was making the associations ineffective.

Andrew *et al.*, (2003) in Mandiwana (2014: 44) assert that weak institutional capacity and conflicts have direct, deliberate negative impact on the ability of beneficiary groups to develop and implement land-use management strategies as well as make productive use of their resources, such as the acquired land. In some land restitution projects, stakeholders fail to attend stakeholder meetings, hence, planning and implementation are negatively affected.

Cloete (2012: 246) summed it up by admitting that when one employs two or more individuals to do a job, there is bound to be a conflict; a variety of factors can cause conflict among members of a group, for example, disagreement about rules, duties and standards to be observed. Broadstock (2005) cited in Lubambo (2011: 18) added that conflict is likely to arise where there is no structured and equitable allocation and utilization of resources. The manifestation of internal factionalism between the Communal Property Associations' perceived lack of support from the state and Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) and the traditional leadership within the communities seems to compromise the pace of development, progress, and sustainability of the projects; unaccountable leadership structures have also hampered development in restitution projects (Rugege, 2014: 201).

The conflict is mainly caused by only a few beneficiaries having a passion for farming, while the rest wait for benefits. This brings conflicts among the land reform beneficiary groups and contributes to the failure of projects because the active members do not want to produce and share the income generated with the other members who did not participate. Literate beneficiaries often end up misusing their position to benefit themselves or their close family members to the exclusion of the broader community members or group members, resulting in infighting and conflict amongst beneficiaries (Rungasamy, 2011: 118). Cardo (2008: 16) states that the claimants are no longer an intact or cohesive entity - some members reside in communal areas, others are settled on farms, whilst a significant number reside in urban areas; this situation and the complexity of conflicting power relationships, threaten the long-term sustainability of communal development plans. According to Lahiff *et al* (2007: 13) members of the community express divergent views about how the land should be used. Some members, particularly, the members of the leadership who have livestock on the farms are keen to run the farm as a single entity on a commercial basis except for the residential development; on the other hand, there are people who prefer allocation of plots to individual households for small scale production. The common challenge to CPAs is intergroup dynamics that arose from the inception of CPAs and continues to the implementation of settlement plans in which

beneficiaries and leadership of the CPAs become embroiled in a conflict over conduct of the leadership of the CPAs (Ramutsindela, 2016:34).

3.7 LAND REFORM AND LAND RESTITUTION CHALLENGES

According to Reed and Kleynhans (2009: 323) land is valued for its productive capacity, implying that its value as a production factor generating income is its main dominant market value. Butterfly and Savory (1999: 50) state that the well-being of any family, business or community depends on the stability and productivity of land surrounding them. Cousins and Robins (1996: 77) envisage land reform as the driving force for rural development in general. According to Gaard, Derman and Sjaastad (2007: 141), land is central to all aspects of social reproduction, thus providing a base from which a family can meet essential food and other needs through farming. Land is the most basic need for rural dwellers, and it creates the opportunity for small-scale and emerging farmers to participate in the economy (Van der Westhuizen, 2005: 02). Deininger (1999: 89) had noted that land reform in the 20th century has been the most successful in fighting poverty and increasing productivity by breaking up large land holdings and distributing small pieces of land to peasants who have already worked on the land.

3.7.1 Land reform challenges

South Africa's land reform process after 1994 exhibited poor performance with respect to rates of land transfer to designated groups as well as low productivity rates in post-transfer periods (Mbata & Muchara, 2015:01; Aliber *et al.*, 2013: 01). Since 1994 the problems of landlessness, insecure land rights and poverty remain unresolved even when the objectives of the land reform policy were clear in that they were intended to address the need to eradicate poverty, promote sustainable economic development and improve the quality of life of those who were robbed of their land (DLA, 1997). Landlessness has given rise to overcrowding and land degradation as people tried to make a living out of meagre pieces of land on which they live; this is one of the main reasons land reform is advocated (Swanepoel and De Beer, 2000: 20). One of the ways in which the rural poor can improve their livelihood and alleviate poverty is getting access to land and its productive resources. Swanepoel and De Beer (2011: 06) believe that lack of assets, be it land, money or job-related skills, causes poverty.

The World Bank Development report (1998: 289) states that access to land is a pre-requisite for successful poverty alleviation and wealth distribution. Land is a critical asset for economic

growth, social development, and poverty alleviation (Bruce, Giovanelli, Rolfes, Bledsoe & Mitchell, 2006: ix). Llantón and Batesteros, (2003), Hossain, (2003) & Reyes *et al.*, (2012) acknowledge that lack of access to land or not owning it, is the major cause of poverty in the rural areas. It is regrettable that many rural claims have been settled with monetary compensation rather than with land as the rural poor are more in need of productive land to alleviate poverty (Rugege, 2004: 06-07). Access to land and the ability to make productive use of such land is critical to poor people (Deininger, 2003:01). Sikor and Muller (2009:1038) affirm that land reform was expected to alleviate rural poverty, increase agricultural productivity and strengthen the new South African state.

Marcus (1991: 88) states that whoever owns the land controls access to it; determines the use to which it should be put; decides the economic, social and political beneficiaries from production on it as well as how the wealth generated is to be exploited. According to Cousins and Robins (1994: 32), land reform opens opportunities for black producers of small-scale farming. The well-being of any family, business or community depends on the stability and productivity of the land surrounding that area. Fox and van Rooyen (2004: 83) confirmed that rural areas rely on agriculture as a primary form of industry and therefore, they need land. In terms of the White Paper on South African Land Policy (DLA, 1997: 60), land reform aims to contribute to economic development by giving households the opportunity to engage in productive land-use and by increasing employment opportunities through encouraging greater investment in the rural economy. Hall (2007: 06) argued that while beneficiaries had received a valuable land asset, the cost of obtaining and maintaining it was so high that they had few resources left over for production.

Cloete and Wissink, (2000:78) believe that: “the primary task of Government is to create optimal conditions for sustainable development. A Government’s policy objectives should therefore keep track of needs and demands in its society, and adapt to changing levels of development in that society.” For De Beer and Swanepoel, (2000:72-73) “Development addresses the poverty of people”. In South Africa, land reform is seen as an act of development, as it focuses on meeting the basic needs of the marginalised and underdeveloped people, which is an objective of development. Marginalised and underdeveloped people, as well as communities need land and capacity in order to ensure that their living conditions improve. Poor and underprivileged people lack financial resources to sustain their lives. Farming is important to the poor, as they are able to produce their own

fruit and vegetables, which contribute to their daily diet. The fruit and vegetables grown could also be sold and therefore contribute to the financial upliftment of the poor, enabling them to grow. Land reform helps reduce rural poverty through agricultural growth (Sedik & Leman, 2008:05). According to Buthelezi (2008: 09) land reform contributes to economic development as this give households the opportunity to engage in productive land use and increase employment opportunities. Swanepoel and de Beer (2011: 09) reiterate that lack of economic development at local level contributes to high levels of unemployment and consequently, poverty.

It is undeniable that the pace of land delivery in South Africa, has been painfully slow and this is disturbing given that one of the key challenges facing post-1994 South African is how to reverse the racial inequalities in land resulting from colonial conquest and the violent dispossession of indigenous people of their land (Hall & Ntsebenza, 2007:03). Land reform process has become a problem due to its slow pace. It is widely held view, among politicians, civil servants, and the general public in South Africa, that the process of land redistribution is 'slow' and since the inception of the land redistribution programme, an annual average of only 214,415ha have been redistributed (Kepe & Hall, 2016:30).

Gaard *et al.*, (2007: 140) described the land question as a sharp and continual source of conflict throughout South Africa and has also become a volatile issue. Cousins (2002: 04) argues that if the land question in South Africa remains unsolved, the possibility exists for populist politicians to force issues that would build a support base, thus, leading to unrealistic policies that would promise much but fail to deliver real benefits. The land question has reached a crisis proportion and finding a solution to promote rural development of communal land, is urgent. Critics have chided government for the slow pace of land reform and warned of the possibility of the land questions becoming politically explosive (n:03). Kariuki (2009: 138) has warned those who are ferociously opposing government concerted attempts to fast-track land reform within its constitution precepts that they should know that in land issues lies a powder-keg that could easily erupt in rural South Africa if left unchecked. It is due to the fact that the rural poor, at whom land reform was directed, still remain poor under unbearable socio-economic conditions because they do not have the freedom to practice farming activities or businesses as they wish.

3.7.2 Land restitution challenges

Government is not only responsible for the distribution of land but it also has an obligation to empower land reform beneficiaries, raise rural income and productivity, and encourage the use of land for agricultural, other productive or residential purposes (Kepe & Hall, 2016: 06). Darroch and Lyne (2003: 03) pointed out that the land restitution process aims to redress the racial imbalances in rural land ownership; therefore, land restitution is a vital concern to every citizen as it affects basic human rights. According to Buthelezi (2008: 03), small farmers, tenants, share-croppers and landless workers are among the social groups most vulnerable to hunger and poverty, as they usually have inadequate access to land and other productive resources. Despite numerous legislative attempts to redress past injustice, the redistribution of land and/or water remains a key challenge in post-apartheid South Africa (Donn, Joshi & Kamphuis, 2018: 83).

For years, the process of land restitution has been described as either being “in crisis, at cross-roads and an impasse”; and this seems true as political pressure is mounting to find new solutions to old problems (Hall, 2009: 01). Du Toit (2010: 75) states that it is no secret that this area of land restitution is one where no stakeholder is happy with at present; the land process has stalled due to a mixture of political ill-will, administrative incompetence and a shortage of funds. Swanepoel *et al.*, (2000: 21), however, indicate that there have been successes and failures with land reform world-wide, with the main weaknesses being a lack of political commitment and lack of effective legislative framework. Lahiff (2003:04) contends that the major challenge for land restitution remains the settlement of rural claims in a way which would contribute to the larger goal of land reform; in other words, redressing the racial inequalities in land holding, while reducing poverty and enhancing livelihood opportunity to the beneficiaries.

3.7.2.1 Support to Land restitution beneficiaries

Lahiff (2001: 04) identifies the following key challenges of restitution - inadequate infrastructure development, poor service provision, the cost of restitution, poor integration with other programmes at national, provincial and local governments levels, ineffective execution of policies and unclear and incoherent vision. Hall (2003: 18) argues that the absence of post-settlement support leads to serious problems for the new owners of land as they are unable to use land as a basis for their livelihood. Cousins (1999: 61) stated that the Department of Land

Affairs and Regional Land Claims Commissioners do not take sufficient account of post-settlement issues when negotiating settlements, especially, in rural areas. Jacobs (2003: 79) agrees that land reform in South Africa, since 1994, has helped some rural poor people to gain access to land for a range of purposes, but land-based livelihoods strategies and support after land transfer have been neglected. Vink and Kirstern (2003: 179) conclude that land reform beneficiaries and small-scale farmers have been left alone struggling with no access to services. Dekker (2003: 81) argues that despite land-reform beneficiaries having received and being resettled on land, the majority of them continue to remain in abject poverty, are unemployed and may even be in a worse off position than before. There are serious challenges that are affecting land restitution beneficiaries because even some of the projects they had inherited have collapsed and the others are not as productive as they used to be. These challenges, as highlighted by Van der Weisthuizen (2005: 09) impact negatively on the improvement of livelihood of the beneficiaries, and the rural poor at whom land reform was directed, remain poor.

3.7.2.2 Conflicts within the land restitution beneficiaries

Folger (1993) as cited in Omisore and Abiodun (2014:120) defines conflict as the interaction of interdependent people who perceive incompatible goals and interferences from each other in achieving the main goal. Conflict involves disagreement and disharmony, due to differences in ideology, living standard and other social factors (Doda, 2005:165). Conflict exists where two or more parties hold incompatible positions towards goals due to differences in values or beliefs, or competition for certain scarce resources, which can be influenced by tangible events or mutual perception; in such situation, the parties aim to neutralize, injure or eliminate rivals (Kruger,1998:13). Parties may move from positions aimed at eliminating the ‘enemy’; towards an acceptance of apolitical resolution based upon mutually-agreed parameters and rules (Kruger, 1998:19). In the process of competition for power (which could be economic, social, and political) and resources, conflict is bound to take place (Doda, 2005:165). Most organisations are characterised by conflict due to opposing or contradicting members’ beliefs and values; it occurs in organizations as a result of competition for supremacy, leadership style, and scarcity of common resources and if a conflict is not well and timely managed, it can lead to low productivity or service delivery (Omisore & Abiodun, 2014:118 and Kiitam, Mclay & Pilli, 2016:06). The conflict can be between organisations or between individuals. The extent to which this conflict renders members dysfunctional will influence the implementation of the policy (Tolinner *et al.*, 2011: 51). One source of conflict or disagreement could be the

different focus placed on scientific peer review process which is essential for the assessment of technical information provided to policy-makers (Leach, 2000:80). The notion of conflict resolution understands public involvement as a means to settle conflict between interested and affected parties, or garner support for the settlement of conflicts (Sewell & Phillips, 1979; Sinclair, 1995:125). McKenzie and Cock (1998: 61) point out that social divisions in the community along gender, ethnic, class and political lines are sources of conflict and they impact negatively on land reform processes. McKenzie *et al.*, (1998: 71) further argued that if the 'glue' that had held the community together began to dissolve, divisions will cause infighting, and the resultant conflicts will impede development processes. Swanepoel and de Beer (2011: 110) identify poor communication as the cause of conflicts; therefore, it seems the composition of the associations can cause problems during the land restitution processes. Rugege (2014: 19-20) states that the political urgency that is being created around land reform must be countered by inclusive and sound policy and legislative proposals, based on dialogue among all stakeholders.

Hall (2007: 16) believes that the expectations by the majority of the land restitution beneficiaries, across all restitution projects were to receive tangible benefits from the restitution in the form of cash income or direct access to land; they never anticipated challenges after the resettlement. Cousins (2017: 08) concludes that land reform has barely altered the agrarian structure of South Africa and has had only minor impact on rural livelihoods. Jacobs, *et al.*, (2003: 05) indicate that achieving greater equality in land ownership and improving the livelihoods of rural people are the main challenges facing land redistribution in South Africa, however, the post-transfer support needs of the beneficiaries and the processes contribution to improved rural livelihoods were not attended to (Jacobs, *et al.*, 2003: 26)

The focus, therefore, should also be on service delivery to previously-disadvantaged individuals and communities which lost land, or were denied access to land as a result of institutionalization of the precious government's policy of separate development. May *et al.*, (2002: 72) also maintain that more emphasis has been placed on equality and the redress on historical inequalities, and a lesser focus on post-settlement support to the beneficiaries of these transfers. Little or no attention is being given to ensure that there is proper post-settlement support after the restoration of land to ensure sustainable economic development.

3.8 CHALLENGES FACING THE LAND RESTITUTION PROJECTS

Lubambo (2011: 03) looked at what makes some projects successful and remain operational after five years while other projects are not successful and no longer in operation. He further researched into what needed to be done differently to improve the economic conditions of the land reform beneficiaries. According to the newly appointed Minister of Rural Development, Mr Gugile Nkwinito, in 2009 stated that 90% of land reform projects had failed (Boyle, 2010 as cited in Aliber *et al.*, 2013:29), although, Hall (2007:01) asserts that some projects are still at an early stage of development, and their ultimate impact on the livelihoods of beneficiaries will take time to become clear. Aliber *et al.*, (2013:25-26) calculated that of the 128 projects with agriculture-development aims, 83 percent have not achieved these aims, while approximately nine percentage (12) have partially achieved these aims but are not generating income. Much of the land, therefore, remains underutilized with neither grazing nor cultivation taking place, and only half of the communal projects are generating an income. Hall (2007) in Rungasamy (2011: 89) concluded by saying that projects had failed because of the lack of training, infrastructure and capital resulting in the non-implementation of the business plans. Many projects do not yet show any signs of economic potential because the majority of beneficiaries of the land reform projects had little knowledge of management of such projects and how funds are utilized.

Many land-reform projects have been implemented in South Africa since 1994, in an attempt to redress imbalances in land ownership which had resulted from the racially biased policies of the South African government prior to 1994. Factors, such as poor beneficiary selection, problematic land acquisition process and a lack of post-settlement support have been reported in a number of studies as contributing to the failure of these projects (Lubambo: 2016: iv). Lubambo (2016: v) continues that production in some of the projects that displayed success (in the past) has decreased, and the number of projects that are not in operation has increased; currently no production is taking place in four out of ten projects since the acquisition of the land. No project can survive without proper planning and subsequent support, hence, lack of support for the productive use of land has been widely recognised as key to the failing of the programme; this means that the returned areas of land have made limited contribution to beneficiaries' livelihoods (Turner1997; May & Roberts, 2000). Many projects have basically closed down, and many others appear to have shrunk in terms of the numbers of active beneficiaries (Aliber *et al.*, 2013:55). Restitution projects are confronted by many challenges to their efficiency, effectiveness and sustainability (Makhuvha, 2012:13). A vast number of

restitution projects are deemed to have failed or stagnated and there is a decline in farming; most projects are mired in conflicts over perceived mismanagement due to low levels of post-settlement support for the beneficiaries of land-based awards Chetty (2019:09). According to Turner, (2001) and Kepe & Cousin, (2001) in Makhuvha (2012:12-13), the following are some of the challenges confronting restitution projects:

- Lack of technical skills (in agriculture, land use planning commercial crop production, large-scale livestock farming, horticulture and game farming);
- Lack of business skills (finance, marketing, risk management, entrepreneurship, business process mapping and modelling);
- Lack of organizational skills (resource mobilization, co-operatives, roles and responsibilities, stakeholder commitments, joint venture, capacity building);
- Lack of development planning skills (social facilitation, rural livelihood, project management, group dynamics, conflict resolution and rural development planning);
- Lack of financial management (of loans from Land Bank and National Development Agency);

Beyond practical land reform concerns, challenges include:

- Finding technologies and socio-economic frameworks that can spread all the rural opportunities more equitably;
- Poor infrastructure and limited access to capital and the market;
- Conflict among project members contribute to the poor performance of the projects and have led to the discontinuation of some projects;
- Most of the beneficiaries are still not aware of government support programmes. Makhuvha (2012:13) summarises the challenges confronting restitution projects as - lack of technical skills; lack of business skills; lack of organizational skills; lack of development planning skills, as well as lack of finance and financial management skills. On the other hand, Lubambo (2011:10) identifies those challenges as excessive bureaucracy; over-centralization of decision-making processes; low level of complementary support services; lack of partnership and integration among the departments; lengthy project cycles; lack of support

from the municipalities; beneficiaries' lack of farming experience and limited financial management skills; poor decision-making; lack of aftercare for beneficiaries and limited farming advice and support. All these challenges have impacted negatively on the intentions of the beneficiaries because the issues of employment and poverty have not adequately addressed, although, some of the projects have collapsed or are dysfunctional.

3.8.1 The management of Public institutions

Mafunisa in Kuye *et al.*, (2002: 194) posit that public institutions are basically corrupt because of personal greed and dishonesty and, although, the levels may differ from one society to the other, it generally result in unethical behaviour which prevents the smooth running of any organization. These unethical conducts are classified into - social causes, economic causes and organizational features. Mufamadi (2011: 48) identified difficult and vague legislation, poor control and lack of accountability, insufficient supervision and weak organizational structures as factors which prevent the promotion of quality service delivery in an organization. According to Malan *et al.*, (2001) in Mafunisa (2011: 49) inadequate legislation promotes autocratic rule, where only a small elite pass laws for their own selfish benefit at the expense of the majority of people. Legislation which is clear is an important part of the democratic process and an essential element for good governance (Mufamadi, 2017: 49).

3.9 POST-SETTLEMENT SUPPORT FOR THE BENEFICIARIES

Any reform in landholding or tenure will have to be accompanied by a complete overhaul of support services if farmers are to overcome decades of poverty and neglect (Yingi and Sithole, 2018:511). Redistribution of land to new farmers, without financial support exposes the new farmers to hardships and poverty and the country's economic performance could be curtailed or threatened with demise (Wheelan, 2005:490). The land restitution beneficiaries are supposed to get support to make land reform successful, thus, any support service offered to the land restitution beneficiaries plays a dominant role in influencing food supply and productivity growth. The role of the government should, therefore, include the identifying of elements needed to ensure sustainable development after the transfer of land to the beneficiaries (Rugasamy, 2011: 60). Alber and Hall (2010: 11) note that there is very little institutional support for diverse operations with their objectives being to feed families and communities, hence, the land question was seen as the best option to address the under-development of rural areas and unequal and unjust access to land. It has become apparent that both the human and

financial resources at the disposal of the Department do not match the demand for services required by people (Dept of Land Affairs; 2006/2007: 15).

Support is crucial for the overall success of land restitution, yet it has been neglected by virtually all the key role players (Jacobs, Lahiff and Hall, 2003: 25). The purpose of post-settlement support is to provide beneficiaries of settled claims means for planning, implementation and capacity building to take place (Masoka, 2014: 48). According to Adeoye (2017: 01) there are compelling reasons to question the unproductive use of land that has been transferred as Van der Westhuizen (2005: 05) confirms that there are clear indications that production, socio-economic conditions and resource management of farms declined after the transfer of land to the beneficiaries. Rungasamy (2011: 04) argues that restoring land ownership without additional complementary support service is meaningless. Lahiff (2001) concurs that there is no provision of government support programme offered to new land-owners after resettling, therefore, provision of such post-restoration support by government remains a critical necessity in the South Africa land reform programme. Government's mandate should not be restricted to the distribution of land or making land more accessible, it is also responsible for empowering beneficiaries and for creating an effective support foundation to ensure sustainable development does takes place (Masoko, 2014: ii). Cousin (2013: 12) believes that lack of support is due to inadequate state capacity, lack of leadership and management, inadequate budgets, inappropriate policies, unsound institutional structure, inefficient procedures and system for monitoring and evaluation. For Manenzhe (2007: iv) the success of land reform is not only measured by the numbers of hectares redistributed but also by the use that is made of the land acquired, however, the land reform beneficiaries are confronted by numerous challenges such as poor infrastructure on farms, growing tensions, access to affordable inputs and lack of support from official agencies, causing underutilisation of returned farms. Muzeza (2013: 28) reports that historical evidence from successful land reform around the world suggests that positive results in terms of socio-economic development of beneficiaries are realized if the reforms are undertaken with pre- and post-settlement support, such as infrastructure development (roads, irrigation schemes), financial support, skills development and extension services. Manenzhe (2007) further identified the following challenges: lack of meaningful consultation with the beneficiaries which gives rise to negative community dynamics, a lack of institutional support and un-coordinated service delivery. Lahiff (2000) in Manenzhe (2007: 04) argues that there is no consistent co-ordination of government support to new landowners; therefore, provision of such post-restoration support

by government remains a critical need in South Africa. According to Hall (2003: 13) the absence of post-settlement support has led to serious problems for the new owners of land, as they are unable to use land as a basis for their livelihood. Jacobs *et al.*, (2003: 25) indicate that critical problems have been identified in the areas of policy design, and implementation, however, Binswanger-Mkhize (2014: 253) states that there are instances of success, except that implementation has been poor and beneficiaries have not been protected due to factors like - the use of group or co-operative farming, inadequate participation by the beneficiaries, the absence, late arrival or poor quality of post-settlement support as well as capacity problems. Mandiwana (2006: 28) advocates that the land restitution process should be accompanied by appropriate post-land restitution support programmes and strategies. Lubambo (2011: 17) identified the purpose of post-settlement support as, to promote and facilitate agricultural development targeting the beneficiaries, in order for them to improve their livelihoods. Rungasamy (2011: 88) believes that good post-settlement support could contribute towards the sustainability of projects. Matukane (2011: 4-5) concurs that the perceived lack of support from the state and NGOs for land restitution beneficiaries makes projects non-profitable resulting in hardship for the new landowners. Lubambo (2011: 15) identified the systematic failure of post-settlement support in South Africa land reform as a major contributing variable to the high failure rate of the new land reform projects. According to Rungasamy (2011: 59) many of the problems relating to land reform can be laid at the door of the lack of post-settlement support. Dekker (2003: 80-81) notes that post-settlement support can be provided in the form of - financial support, education, training and capacity-building, establishment and maintenance of physical infrastructure, as well as expertise in agricultural practices. Training and capacity building are needed for the beneficiaries to improve their farm management skills and training which should be accompanied by mentorship support. The government should pay attention to the issue of both post-settlement and pre-settlement support because the new owners have been marginalized for a long time and failure to offer them support is like throwing them in the deep-end, where they have to fight for themselves. For Makombe (2009:1413) one of the concerns with the South African land reform programme is that, it has failed to ensure that production continues, during and after, farm acquisition so that beneficiaries can earn a living from the land.

3.10 LACK OF PLANNING

Planning refers to a process which formulates strategies and goals in order to allow for a clear articulation of the method to be utilized to achieve such goals (Smit, Cronze, Brevi & Vrba, 2013:13) According to Kroon and Van Zyl (1990:111) planning is a basic management function which encompasses the purposeful consideration and visualization of the goals of the organization or components of organization, should achieve in order to succeed, within a particular timeframe despite the uncertainty of the future. Cousin (2013:11) identifies planning processes that see people as passive beneficiaries rather than active participants in co-planning as problematic, and may lead to inappropriate project design. Similarly, Hoes (2011:55) sees the need for post-settlement support in order for land beneficiaries to get training and develop skills to farm sustainably and productively. Du Plessis (2004: 09) states that in rural cases, individuals and groups are often more determined to have original land returned to them, either for fulltime settlement or for part-time use, or in the hope of using it in the future but problems arise in relation to support and development need; it has been determined that the level of settlement and development support from the state to restitution claimants has been particularly weak. Muzeza (2013: 30) insists that for land reform to have impact on the livelihoods of beneficiaries, providing adequate and thoroughly planned settlement support is absolutely necessary. The degree to which the people can make use of land is mostly dependent on the interaction of land and other forms of capital, such as physical, human, social and financial capital and the amount of planning owners engage in. Lack of planning or inadequate or inappropriate planning results in limited impact from most land reform projects in terms of productivity and household livelihoods. According to Hall (2007:20), planning must consider not only the agricultural potential and the production environment, but also what the land is good for. Land reform is a policy and economic developmental issue, thus, all the stakeholders, including the beneficiaries should be involved at all levels or stages of policy development.

3.11 LAND RESTITUTION AS AN ACT OF DEVELOPMENT

Stewart *et al.*, (1997: 07) elaborate the concept of development as positive social, economic and political change in a country or community which arises in response to any gross inequalities and absolute poverty which are generated by the world economy. Swanepoel (2007: 03), however, defines development as just another form of social change, thus, it is a study of local development issues and the uneven relationship between the developers as

outsiders (change agents) and the developpees as insiders (beneficiaries of development). According to Richard and Hartwick (2009: 01) development means making a better life for everyone by meeting their basic needs of - sufficient food to maintain good health; a safe, healthy place in which to live; affordable services available to everyone, and being treated with dignity and respect. Todaro (1997) cited in Matukane (2007: 16) defines the term, development, as both a subjective and objective sustainable increase in the quality of life of an individual or a community. This implies that development is not an end product, but a process of improvement in living conditions. It should be durable, which implies that it must empower people to improve their own conditions themselves, over time, in a relatively independent way, through a balanced or synchronized improvement in different policy sectors (social, cultural, economic, political, organizational and technological) and in the areas of basic life sustaining (Cloete and Wissink, 2000: 77-78). Stewart *et al.*, (1997: 01), state that “development may be defined as positive social, economic and political change in a country or community.”

Development in South Africa was outlined in 1994 through the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) by the African National Congress (ANC). The main development objectives of the RDP were meeting the basic needs of the citizens, redistributing resources and job creation through public works (ANC, 1994). According to the report of the National Land Summit (2005:08), not only is land and agrarian reform necessary to undo the injustices of history, it must also be a central component to economic transformation, and contribute towards realizing the goals of accelerated and shared growth. The Land restitution programme, as an act of development, was introduced to reverse the past historical injustices and build a new society in which all people have equitable access to agricultural land as a means of production.

Land restitution in South Africa, as an act of development, focusses on meeting the needs of the marginalized and underdeveloped people, which in turn is an objective of development (Links, 2011:03). According to Golele (2016:10) land restitution is in part redressing the injustice of the past and at the same time it is considered to be a process of change in rural societies in terms of sustainable economic development for the majority of the black people in South Africa. Land restitution programme is the central and driving force of a development programme, which aims to address, effectively, the injustice of forced removal and the historical denial of access to land (Aliber *et al.*, 2013:22).

The main objectives of development vary and can be categorized according to the ANC's Reconstruction and Development Programs as: meeting the basic needs of people; giving access to land, food, clean water, housing, education and electricity; eradicating poverty; improving social circumstances of people; improving economic circumstances of people; job creation, redistribution of resources and empowerment of people (ANC, 1994). Development can be seen as a process of expanding the real freedom that people enjoy and improving the quality of all human lives and capabilities by raising people's levels of living, self-esteem and freedom (Todaro & Smith, 2011: 02). The authors add that the rising *per capita* income, the elimination of absolute poverty, greater employment opportunities, and lessening income inequalities, constitute the necessary but not sufficient conditions for development. Oakeg and Marsden (1984: 10) explain that development had to entail the liberation of human beings and the primary task of government's policies should, therefore, be to create optimal conditions for sustainable development. De Beer and Swanepoel (2000: 72-73) add that development addresses poverty of people and should take place through projects as these improve social, economic and food security status of people through job creation, although, they must be holistic and "all-encompassing".

Todaro and Smith (2011: 22-23) identify the following three objectives of development:

- To increase availability and widen the distribution of basic life-sustaining goods, such as food, shelter, health and protection;
- To raise levels of living including, higher incomes, the provision of more jobs, better education, and greater attention to cultural and human values;
- To expand the range of economic and social choices available to individual and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence not only in relation to other people and nation-states but also to the forces of ignorance and misery.

Swanepoel (2000: 02) further states that the development journey should focus on the 'big picture' (different environments - social, cultural, political, economic and natural) which stand in dynamic relations to each other; development is about people, their needs and the meaning-giving context in which they make ends meet. For Cloete (1998: 242), development is necessary for the improvement of the subordinates' knowledge and skills; the beneficiaries are the subordinates because of having been denied access to farming skills due to the apartheid policy of segregation and unequal land ownership. They need to be trained so that they develop

different skills, like management, leadership, communication and financial management skills which will result in sustainable economic development.

Lee and George (2000: 17) elucidate the notion of economic development as the growth of the standard of living of a nation's people from low-income (poor) economy to a high-income (rich) economy; this is because when the locals' quality of life is improved, there is more economic development. Economic development addresses the improvement of economic well-being and quality of life of a nation, region or local community through growth as one aspect of the process of economic development. Haller (2012: 66) explains economic development as a process that generates economic and social, quantitative and, particularly, qualitative changes; this causes the national economy to cumulatively and durably increase its real national product.

According to Theron (2008:07-09) development acts as a vehicle for transformation towards a better life for people and development initiatives stress the principle that progress depends on continuous affirmation of the will to lead a meaningful life. It implies social reconstruction and participation in one's own development, together with access to education, abolition of poverty and inequality, allowing people to express their desire to improve their own situation in response to people's own experience of their reality. The desirable direction for development as a body of theory and practice includes beneficiary participation as one of the most important steps towards project planning, implementation and evaluation.

People must be both the target for development and the 'tools' to reach it. In becoming the 'tools' to shape their own development, the beneficiaries of development create a world of meaning which enables them to understand their social reality. Economic development is a sustained concerted action of policymakers and communities that should promote the standard of living and economic health of a specific area; it is a selective attack on the worst form of poverty; it encompasses major areas, like policies undertaken by government to meet broad economic objectives, including high employment and sustainable growth (Akongdt, 2013: 32-33).

According to Lee and George (2000:17) for development to be sustainable, it depends on four sets of factors:

- The rate and composition of economic growth;

- The resource and residual coefficients which, taken into consideration with the rate and composition of growth, determine the size of the resources and residual flows between the economic and environmental systems;
- The carrying capacity of the environmental system relative to the resource abstraction and residual discharge flows imposed upon it, and
- The responses to society to economic and environmental change.

Akongdt (2013: 32) identifies the main goal of economic development as the improvement of the economic well-being of a community through efforts that entail job creation, and better quality of life. These goals can only be realised if the government, as the main stakeholder in the development of economic development policies is effective and efficient, because, as highlighted by Cloete and Wissink, (2000: 78) the primary task of government is to create optimal conditions for sustainable development. Chameau and Carmichael, (2006) add that sustainable development is one that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Sustainability is a process that helps create a vibrant economy and a high quality of life, while respecting the need to sustain natural resources and protect the environment; it expresses the principle that future generations should live in the world that the present generation has enjoyed but not diminished ((Brundtland Commission, 1987). The Brundtland Commission (1997) as cited in Mandiwana (2011: 22) state that sustainable development is the kind of development that is people-centred, concentrates on improving the quality of life of poor people and is based on conserving the variety and productivity of nature. Mandiwana (2011: 22) in turn, described sustainable development as a means to sustain the economy as well as an ecological system. Sustainable development should, therefore, aim at improving the quality of life of the present and future generations.

Marginalized and underdevelopment people as well as communities need land and capacity in order to ensure that their living conditions improve. Owning land gives people a sense of empowerment and a feeling that their social-economic states is improving and for the poor a chance to get out of the poverty trap. As highlighted by the Minister of Land reform and Rural development, Mr Gugile, it is clear that land reform programmes implemented in South Africa, however, have not yielded such results nor been sustainable (DRDLR,20106:04).

People living in rural areas are encouraged to take control of their own destinies to ensure inherent sustainability within rural development. Unworkable public meetings are mainly due to conflicts on whether settlements should be paid in cash or that all funds must be used for development projects; unfavourable treatment of government officials which was life-threatening at times have prevented solutions towards a sustainable settlement agreement. The sustainability of a project requires closing the gap not only in “objects”, (human and physical capital), but also in knowledge. Knowledge complements the sustainability of projects and enhances returns on capital.

According to Jacobs (2011:15), land reform should lead to productive use of land that can contribute to long-term sustainability of development projects; to achieve this social equity, economic viability, and environmental integrity of a project should always be taken into consideration. A government’s policy objectives should, therefore, keep track of needs and demands in its society, and adapt to changing levels of development in that society. Land restitution as an act of development, should, therefore, focuses on meeting the basic needs of the marginalized and underdeveloped people. Marginalized and underdevelopment people, as well as communities need land in order to ensure that their living conditions improve (Links; 2011:16).

3.12 THE SUCCESS OF LAND REFORM

Success of the land reform programme in South Africa should be tested against its ability to address equity in land redistribution and livelihood upgrading, reduction of poverty, creation of rural employment and income-generating opportunities (Van Zyl, Kirsten and Binswanger (1996) as cited in Mamphodo (2006:23). These can be done by raising the number of successful black agricultural producers and enhancing productivity, whilst maintaining sustainable natural resource management and utilisation. The success of the Department’s delivery of the program of land reform should be measured by using the following outputs: sustainable land reform, food security for all, rural development and sustainable livelihoods and job creation linked to skill training (DRDLR: 2016: 3-4). According to Makhado (2012:03) the successes in land reform clearly do not depend only on principles or conditions, it ultimately depends on effective execution of policies. This suggests that government and sector partners need to be actively involved in all stages and processes of land reform. Makhado (2012) continues that the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform should partner with private sectors in

order to leverage private funding and technical skills that will be used to redress current land reform challenges. Land reform policies and programmes need to be reviewed constantly and enhanced by exploring past experience so as to meet the current needs in rural development.

Lopez and Valdez (2000) in Muzeza (2013: 28) opposed the generally-held view that land reform can make a significant contribution in reducing poverty of the beneficiaries, rather they argued that impact of such a programme on poverty is limited due to the fact that land reform beneficiaries often fail to transform the land asset into income which can play a significant role in improving their socio-economic status. Muzeza (2013: 29) cautions that access to land is just the first step, as it is not sufficient by itself in improving the livelihood of the poor. The success of a land reform programme as a poverty alleviating tool is conditioned upon the provisions of accompanying enablers, such as on- and off-farm support services, infrastructure, input support, access to credit, human and skills development, access to water and viable technology. Kirsten (1999) as cited in Dlamini (2016:72) argues that if land reform is implemented correctly, it can contribute to increased equity, efficiency, growth and cause poverty reduction.

Mandiwana (2014: 43) complains that land-based livelihoods strategies and support after land transfer have been neglected and this is a serious challenge that affects land reform beneficiaries. It is therefore imperative that there be post-settlement support in the land reform projects so they can focus on sustainable development. Lahiff and Manenzhe (2007: 15) indicate that the support members receive from state institutions in particular is not enough, there is lack of extension support and infrastructural development has not been carried out. The CPAs lack financial resources to acquire such infrastructure and capacity building for the Associations have been neglected, even by the Department that helped formed those CPAs.

Terblanche (2008) in Lubambo (2011: 22) argues that the success of mentorship programmes depends heavily on the successful development of a relationship between the mentor and the farmers. Turner (2001) identifies key functional areas of support for land reform beneficiaries, namely, extension services, skills development and capacity building; therefore, including training and mentoring programmes, financial assistance in the form of grants and credit will assist with farming operations and infrastructure support.

Muzeza (2013: 29) explains that in a rural environment, with multiple market imperfections, the provision of access to land without market for the products will be ineffective in improving their socio-economic status. Bruce (1993) cited in Muzeza (2013: 30) pointed out that the

weaknesses of many African and Latin American countries is that they put much emphasis on land reform and tenure, but fail to restructure the wider agrarian economy; these countries fail to create an enabling environment for the emerging farmers which results in little or no improvement in the livelihoods of the beneficiaries.

Steward *et al.*, (1997: 19-20) explains that in South Africa, land reform is an act of development, as it focuses on meeting the basic needs of the marginalized and underdeveloped people, and as development focuses on improving the lives of the people, so does land reform; they both must assist the poor to get out of poverty trap. Rungasamy (2011: 05) concludes that the government is responsible for empowering beneficiaries and for creating an effective support foundation to ensure that sustainable development takes place, however, Mamphodo (2006: v) stresses that the success of Land reform is enhanced when all the stakeholders are involved and when they work closely together.

3.13 POLICY OBJECTIVES

Bernstein (1997) as cited in Mudau, Mukonza and Ntshangase (2018:583) concludes that the policies of the segregation and apartheid era perpetuated the exclusion of natives from the main economy by legally reducing them to a source of cheap labour, thus, the majority of them were trapped and lived in poverty within the homelands. Gumede and Makuwira (2018:578) recommend that the South Africa government must pursue constitutional land reform which does not endanger food security, the economy and foreign direct investment inflows. The policy on land reform should contribute to economic development through households' productive land use and increase employment opportunities by encouraging greater investment (Okumbor, Sithole and Kirk,2018:466). For Thwala (2010:07-08) the main objective of Land reform policy must be to bring a just and equitable transformation of land rights in South Africa so as to realise sustainable development. In addressing the gross inequality in landholding, providing sustainable livelihoods in ways that contribute to the development of dynamic rural economy, particular attention must be paid to the needs of marginalized group, especially women, in order to overcome past and present discrimination. Rural people must, therefore, participate fully in the design and implementation of land reform and sustainable development policies. Tollenaar *et al.*, (2011: 51) believe that every member of the community or every citizen should benefit from any public policy and the objective of such policies should be related to the 'public interest. It is the policy of the government that should indicate how the

beneficiaries will be supported during the implementation of the policy so that they end up benefiting and be corrected if they are working contrary to the objectives of the policy.

It is, therefore, co-ordination and collaboration which happens between the government and all other land restitution stakeholders which will assist in achieving the objectives of land restitution and the sustainability of their projects. Ingrid (2011: 56) mentions that it is important to pay attention to wider agrarian reforms, such as infrastructural development, technical support, provision of credit and access to finance, and the regulation of input and commodity markets in ways that favour and support small-scale farmers, new landholders and also land reform beneficiaries. Matukane (2011: 37-53), however, puts more emphasis on the indicators of sustainability of the projects and the livelihood of the land reform beneficiaries - capacity building and skill transfer, participation, and ownership -which are discussed hereunder:

3.13.1 Capacity building and Skills transfer

Capacity building is a specific application of organizational development and it means providing frameworks for project identification, formulation and implementation, while making the maximum use of existing skills and resources (Whittle, Colgan & Rafferty, 2012:15). According to Enemark (2003:04), capacity building is the development of knowledge, skills and attitudes in individuals and groups of people relevant in design, development, management and maintenance of institutional and operational infrastructures as well as processes that are locally meaningful. Botha (2001) in Matukane (2011: 53) notes capacity building as a complex term which can be defined in many ways, but essentially, it is the building of human, institutional and infrastructural capacity to help communities develop safe, secure, stable and sustainable projects; it is conditional upon improving knowledge and changing people behaviour so that they can make more informed decisions, adapt better to changing conditions and be more effective. Makhado (2012:01) states that land reform in South Africa is slow, mainly due to financial, infrastructural and capacity challenges.

Skills and capacity building development are central in every developing nation. Necessary investment and penetration into the global markets can only be achieved through the required skills and capacity development (Mabunda, 2008). Matukane (2011: 36) insists that skills development is a key requirement for economic growth and for empowering previously-disadvantaged majority, economically. As a result, the Skills Development Act No 97 of 1998 provides a framework for developing skills in the work-place.

Capacity building means any facilitating scheme for the effective implementation of a project, in particular, the strengthening and/or development of trained human resources and institutional capacity with techniques and skills necessary to carry out assessment and management of risks. It involves the transfer of knowledge and the development of appropriate facilities. A state's capacity is crucial and comprises of strong leadership and management, adequate budgets, appropriate policies, sound institutional structure, efficient procedure and an effective system for monitoring and evaluation (Cousins, 2017: 12).

Matukane (2011: 53) believes that capacity can be developed and maintained through mentoring, training, education, working on physical projects, the infusion of financial and other resources and, even more importantly, the motivation and inspiration of people to improve. The author adds that capacity building in land restitution beneficiaries is required as they lack the required skills to manage huge agricultural projects, efficiently and effectively. Through training and workshops the management of the projects will be able to develop in strategic planning, project management, change management and human resource management development. According to Matukane (2011: 54) the main aim of training on land issues is to make sure that the beneficiaries are well equipped with relevant skills. Mentoring is another way of skills transfer which happens when a suitably-experienced and competent mentor acts as a resource, sponsor and transitional figure for another person, hence, it provides less experienced mentees with knowledge, advice, challenge and support in their pursuit of becoming full members of a particular segment of life. Mentoring helps people understand and work through change, so contributes to the achievement of their intended improvements and self-development.

Skills, knowledge and experience needed by the previously disadvantaged restitution beneficiaries in agricultural management should be natured through the passage of time for skills shortage in the farming sector is a major concern; farming is expected to contribute a big portion to the economy by making land productive but farmers are failing to achieve this due to a lack of skills and experience. Capacity-building enables people to better perform defined functions, either as individuals or as a group. Through improved technical skills and/or professional understanding, groups or individuals can align their activities to achieve their common purpose to ensure sustainability of projects.

3.13.2 Participation

The Oxford dictionary (2010:439), explains participation as generally doing something together with other people. Participation is a process by which the public is given the opportunity and/or responsibility to manage their own resources, define their needs, goals, and aspirations, and make decisions affecting their well-being (Feliar, 1994:02).

Participation reduces opposition to policy direction and helps to ensure compliance by communities and professionals who can advise and assist in their planning, therefore, organizations and individuals should ensure they have complied with any requirement for community consultations (Ife, 2013:152). Burns, Heywood, Taylor, Wilde and Wilson (2004:03), contend that participation enhances effectiveness as communities bring understanding, knowledge and experiences to the regeneration process and this highlights how communities have their own way of identifying their needs, problems and solutions in the work of organizations, thereby, contributing to evaluations and reviews. Participation at community level allows the choice of a project to reflect the needs and preferences within the community. The project's design then reflects local information, ensuring that local conditions, preferences, and circumstances are taken into consideration. Community participation implies the readiness of all the beneficiaries to accept responsibilities and activities and the value of the beneficiaries is seen and appreciated. According to Matukane (2011: 38) communities are no longer seen as the recipients of development programmes but as critical stakeholders who have an important role to play in the management of programmes and projects in their areas. Felizer (1994:02) concludes that participation at the planning, design, implementation, and management stages increases the likelihood of success.

Okubor (2010:33) reports that in South Africa, the poor were once excluded from access to power, assets and infrastructure. It is important how a journey of cooperation starts and ends, be it a political, social or economic one, because if there are no contributions from the members of the community, the project will collapse (Tollenaar *et al.*, (2011: 13). Participation and self-reliance in the development context imply the full participation of the beneficiaries of development at micro level (Hope, 1983:455). Participation dismantles the top-down, prescriptive and often inappropriate knowledge being given or the use of communication styles that tend to be imposed on communities by outsiders; beneficiaries of development must be main contributors to any processes. Participation by members of claimant communities in decision-making, hence, the creation of relevant sub-committees or institutional structures with

specific areas of authority and responsibility for 'day-to-day' management, increases participation in and benefits from development activities (CASE, 2006:99).

3.13.3 Ownership

Feinberg (1995) acknowledges that land ownership is a very sensitive issue for many South Africans. African landowners are prepared to defend their interests against pressures from outsiders or the government; therefore, the ANC government should be cautious when it deals with the issue of land ownership. In South Africa dispossession of the land has resulted in poverty and food insecurity. Hoes (2011: 68) states that most newly-resettled farmers or emerging commercial farmers do not have the financial means to carry out productive farming on their acquired farms and would, thus, need additional technical and financial support. A support system to the emerging farmers should be treated as an initiative to enable them to become economically self-reliant, participate in the wider economy, as well as create jobs.

Chukwuerokeh (2010: 37) states that the success of the land reform programme will depend a great deal on complementary measures. These measures include, among other things - extension support, improvement of marketing infrastructure, access to credit and other financial services and the creation of rural off-farm income opportunities. Most importantly is the need to understand specific livelihood problems facing a people (beneficiaries) and strengthening the whole reform process by ensuring that local stakeholders play a greater part in determining the content of interventions designed to fight poverty. This should be executed through the identification of relevant interventions, responsive, sustainable and people-centred implementation, as well as participatory and dynamic monitoring and evaluation. Clearly, for poverty alleviation to be successful, the intervention of the state is essential so that its economic policies should not be detrimental to the very poor it intends to support.

The South African land reform programme makes a contribution towards rural development through a clearly-defined set of interventions within the context of the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDR). In this regard, the programme provides support to the ISRDR through the implementation of tenure-reform measures within the nodes. The critical challenge in land restitution is its continued over-focus on rural claims and strengthening the support base for the beneficiaries to ensure sustainability of their projects, most of which are agricultural in nature (DLA, 2004).

The need to align land reform to the livelihood needs of the people stems from the same arguments that rural poverty flows from and is perpetuated by the lack of access to essential assets like land (Rahman and Westley, 2001). Poverty reduction involves changes in material factors, such as land institutions, water, infrastructure, technology and knowledge, social and economic relations, as well as others that give the poor greater control over their environment. Shepherd (2000: 15) defined poverty as the inability to produce enough food for one's household and the perpetual state of underdevelopment in rural areas was therefore seen as inefficiency in the ways African farmers cultivated the land. May (1998: 03) explain poverty as the inability of individuals, household or communities to afford a socially-acceptable standard of living. Through employment, poverty is alleviated, so restitution claims projects should be supported by increasing investment to improve trade and promote private sector investment (Matukane, 2011: 64).

What the government is trying to achieve in making a way for improvements in settlement conditions for the poor and enhancing household income security, employment and economic growth, throughout the country, is good on paper. In most cases a small sub-group of community members benefits through access to employments, although, it is the more highly educated members and men, who reap these benefits (Matukane, 2011:70). One of the danger of poverty as highlighted by Matukane (2011: 02) is that poverty eliminates social cohesion and community vibrancy. Van Zyl *et al.*, (1996:13) suggests that the success of land reform in South Africa should be tested against its ability to address equity in land distribution and livelihood upgrade, reduction of poverty, creation of rural employment and income-generating opportunities. The White Paper on South African Land Policy (DLA, 1997:11) stated that land reform aims to contribute to economic development by giving households the opportunity to engage in productive land use and increase opportunities through encouraging greater investment in the rural economy. Manenzhe (2007: 25) attests that the majority of land reform beneficiaries are poor people who were impoverished through land dispossession of the previous apartheid government, therefore, securing access to land and provision of complementary support services are critical aspect in securing improved standard of living for them. Makhuvha (2012: 03) agree that support services, after settlement are required to sustain the farming activities; these services must come from a range of stakeholders so that the farmers can multi-task, for example, they must be able to produce, create more jobs which in turn will reduce poverty. The lack of these support services are a real threat in the sustainability of restituted land projects. Makhuvha (2012: 18) concludes that the inappropriate settlement

models, lack of farming support programmes and the slow progress of land transfer are the main reasons for the failure of land reform to impact positively on poverty alleviation. Rungasamy (2011: 121) concludes by saying that in the end, land reform beneficiaries have not been able to improve their social and economic positions and alleviate poverty. Most of the restitution projects are not sustainable due to poor leadership, lack of agricultural production skills, beneficiaries not having any project management skills as well as lack of book and record-keeping skills, especially by the members of the CPAs. Hall (2007: 06) maintains that although, beneficiaries had received valuable land assets, the cost of obtaining and maintaining it was so high that they had few resources left over for production.

3.14 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided insights into the state of discourse on land restitution focusing on what needs to be done to improve the socio-economic development of the beneficiaries through pre- and post-settlement support from the dawn of democracy, from the era of President Mandela till President Zuma era in terms of policy implementation. The legislative framework of Land Reform in South Africa was outlined focusing on different Acts and policies on land reform. The role of Communal Property Association as a legal body that leads the land restitution beneficiaries was discussed. The land restitution challenges that impact negatively on the livelihoods of the beneficiaries in terms of meeting the objectives of land restitution were also highlighted. Development objectives were outlined and these details created a basis to explain land reform as an act of development. The next chapter focuses on empirical perspective of land reform in the Vhembe District in comparison with neighbouring countries, such as Zimbabwe and Namibia.

CHAPTER 4

LAND REFORM IN NEIGHBOURING COUNTRIES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents land reform in neighbouring countries. It will do so by firstly offering an overview of land reform in Southern African countries then the history of Limpopo Province focusing on the land ownership and the post-settlement challenges faced by beneficiaries. The empirical evidence on Vhembe District beneficiaries is explored with a view of establishing reasons for land reform in South Africa, the level of and the reasons for successes and failures of these land reform projects. An international perspective on land reform and post-settlement support is highlighted. Different countries even if they are on the same continent, may have different objectives and strategies for addressing challenges related to land reform, hence, bringing an international angle ensures a comprehensive account. While the objectives and strategies on development may be different or sometimes inter-related and complementary, in these different contexts, in order to achieve a certain objective, there could be differences in policy priority areas. The difference usually lies between achieving social equity, while striving for economic objectives and efficient utilization of land. Discussions on these points are undertaken in this chapter.

4.2 OVERVIEW OF LAND REFORM IN SOUTHERN AFRICAN COUNTRIES

Adams (1995:01) states that Africa has a history of subsistence farming, therefore, land reform in Africa as a whole should be seen as one example of land reform, where the primary concern is correcting the imbalance in ownership of agricultural land. Jacoby (1971:24), however, saw land reform or agrarian reform as frequently used general terms indicating integrated programmes whose purposes are to reorganise the institutional framework of agriculture in order to “facilitate social and economic progress in line with the philosophy, values and creed of the community concerned”. Lahiff (2003: 01-02) identifies three unifying features of countries implementing land reform in southern Africa. These include - a common history of settler colonialism which dispossessed native inhabitants of land, persistence of neoliberal economic policies, and continued impoverishment of the rural areas - although, despite these commonalities, the approaches to land redistribution vary in these countries. For example, negotiating the terms and implementation of land reform in South Africa is often

accompanied by the ‘spectre of Zimbabwe,’ where radical and violent land reclamation had occurred (Moyo, 2011; Hanlon *et al.*, 2013). The ruling ZANU-PF party constituencies, former freedom fighters and local peasant groups have actively supported the government’s sweeping land reform measures. In some instances the implementation of extensive land reform strategies is seen as the only way that can speed up the correction of past injustice as well as achieve improved working and living conditions for poor black farmers whose land was forcefully taken from them. In South Africa, the African National Congress (ANC) government has also identified an effective land reform programmes as major mechanisms for rural poverty alleviation and the rectifying of the past injustice in relation to land allocation and ownership, although, these programmes have very disappointing results so far. In most of the countries, like in Zimbabwe and Namibia, black people were taken off the land by force of arms or were reduced to the status of tenants on land owned by white farmers for whom they had worked (Hanekom, 1998: 13). Evidence shows how people reacted when they want land that was initially theirs; in certain instances they have resorted to violence or ‘force of arms’. The two countries in Southern Africa that have tried to address the issue of landlessness of the majority of its citizens are here discussed. Zimbabwe land reform programme is discussed extensively as it borders South Africa and with Vhembe District in particular, hence, its approach to addressing land issues may have a direct lesson for South Africa, especially, the Vhembe district.

4.2.1 Land reform programme in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe racial policies resulted in discriminatory land policies (Links, 2011: 21). In trying to correct the injustice brought about by the discriminatory land policies, Zimbabwe opted for a land reform programme whereby land would be acquired for agricultural use rather than for a claim-based process where ancestral land could be returned to those who had suffered dispossession (Tilley (2004:28). Stoneman (2000) as cited in Mamphodo (2006:), states that the objectives of land reform in Zimbabwe are to distribute land equitably, improve efficiency of agriculture, reduce poverty and uplift the standard of living of all Zimbabweans, as well as achieve national peace and stability by equitable land redistribution. Zimbabwe has experienced three broad approaches to land acquisition - market land acquisition led by the state; state-led compulsory land acquisitions with full compensation or compensation only for improvements or land seizures through land occupations (Moyo 2000; De Villiers 2003). The manner of redistribution and post-redistribution support remain the apex of creating

a poverty reduction and sustainable economic development in Zimbabwe but the poor implementation of land reform in Mashonaland East failed to eradicate poverty and create a sustainable economic development.

Moyo (1995) in Makunike (2014: 92) identified three broad fundamental issues about the nature of land reform in Zimbabwe - addressing entitlement, technical reorganization, and the legal reform of land ownership.

Zinyana (1999: 08) advises that there is a need to recognize stakeholders - the government, (as the implementer of the reform, which should define its targets and allocate resources accordingly); the large landholders, (who stand to lose some or all of their land under the reforms) and the beneficiary (small farmers or the landless, who should realize that they carry a large responsibility to maintain and improve productivity on their newly-acquired land).

In Zimbabwe land policy is governed by one or more of the three frequently incompatible and contradictory motives - political power, social and economic inclusion (Zinyana, 1999:09; Makunike, 2014:92). When land reform is used to retain political power, the economic and social costs usually outweigh the perceived benefits of radical land redistribution. In Zimbabwe the land question was high on the political agenda in the 1980s, dormant for much of 1990s, but bounced back into the limelight in 1999. White farmers and their families were forced off their farms by the military and Zanu- PF war veterans. This was done in violent and intimidating ways, leaving the white owners with no choice, but to hand over their farms out of fear for their lives (de Villiers, 2003).

Two major tribes in Zimbabwe, Shona and Ndebele, have agriculture as their main source of livelihood and it was impossible for them to have maximum benefit without the land (Moyo, 1990). According to Chitiyo (2000) in Matukane (2014: 63) traditionally, land ownership among the Shona was a communal process, operating at different levels, that of family, clan and village. The British government came with the Land Apportionment Act of 1930 which formalized racial separation of land and the Act stirred up antagonism and conflict because of the displacement and dispossession it created (Nyandoro, 2012:306). In 1990 Zimbabwe attained political independence and the Zanu-PF government came into power and promised black people their land back through land redistribution and resettlement programmes. The Land Apportionment Act of 1930 formally delineated land on a racial basis, as one race could not purchase land in an area designated for the other (Chingozha, 2017: 13). Palmer (1990: 163) reports that in the elections which Robert Mugabe called on the eve of the 10th anniversary

of independence, the issue of land again featured. According to Tshuma (1997) the issue of land redistribution almost vanished from the national agenda in the mid-1980s, but was re-introduced in 1989 by Zimbabwe African People's Union when they amended the constitution to accommodate the new plan on redistribution. Chiefs are essential functionaries who allocate land in the best interests of their constituency. Among the Ndebele, the King and his Chiefs had more direct power with respect to land allocation and intervention. Both peoples also believed that the real landowners were the ancestors and that particular areas of land were sacred. The Government, under the rule of President Mugabe (Zanu-PF), wanted to speed up land transfers, as land was not being transferred from white farmers to black farmers "fast" enough. White farmers also failed to put their farms on the market as instructed leading to further failure in the land reform process in Zimbabwe. A "Policies and Procedures" document was drawn up to assist the various agencies involved with the resettlement programme, to identify their responsibilities, which, if implemented correctly would have contributed to agricultural productivity increase and rural employment (Moyo, 2000:11). The amendment of the Constitution and Land Acquisition Act reflected a major formal effort to challenge the imposed rules by the colonial Land Property Rights. In mid 1990s there was a re-emergence of land reform on the development of agenda and the re-launching of the settlement programme in Zimbabwe. This marked the latest phase of a dialectic relationship among peasants, government and global institutions. By the close of the first decade of independence, land had emerged as a key political issue due to growing peasants' disillusionment with the feeble and almost negligible pace of land reform between 1980 and 1990. The government blamed its failure to deliver on land reform on the restrictive legal framework of Lancaster House Constitution (Moyo, 2000). The post-2000 land reform in Zimbabwe was characterized by what was called 'land invasions' which became a generic term used to denote a negative view of politically-organized trespassing of farms led by war veterans. According to Sachikonye (2003: 13); and de Villiers (2000)) land reform has generated a variety of terms - 'settlers', 'Third Chimurenga', 'Jambanja', 'Agrarian revolution', 'Hundo yeminda'; (war for land) and 'fast-track reform'. Cusworth (1992: 90) states the following broad objectives of the reform as set out in the Resettlement Policies and Procedures Document of 1985:

- to alleviate population pressure in Communal Areas;
- to extend and improve the base for productive agriculture in the peasant-farming sector through individuals and cooperatives;

- to improve the standard of living of the largest and poorest sector of the population of Zimbabwe;
- to ameliorate the plight of people who have been adversely affected by the war and to rehabilitate them;
- to provide, at the lower end of the scale, opportunities for people who have no land and who are without employment and may therefore be classified as ‘destitute’;
- to bring abandoned or underutilized land into full production as one facet of implementing an equitable policy of land redistribution;
- to expand or improve the infrastructure and services that are needed to promote the well-being of people and of economic production; and
- to achieve national stability and progress in a country that has only recently emerged from the turmoil of war,”

Sachikonye (2003: 13) identifies the following challenges that came along with the redistribution of land in Zimbabwe:

- Informal settlement or ‘squatter camps’ mushroomed to provide shelters or land to farm workers who had lost jobs and entitlement. To shelter on the farms, there was a need to ensure food supplies to the settlements and provide schooling and health facilities;
- The union-base among workers was considerably weakened;
- There were conflicts over resources, access to housing, land and food. Tension broke out between commercial farmers and the newly-settled small farmers;
- Drastic decline in production;
- Steady decline in employment and access to housing and services on the farm;
- The loss of permanent and seasonal jobs;
- Diminishing access to certain resources and services as a result of change in ownership of a farm or new rules about housing made by the new settlers, and
- Widespread shortages of food among farm workers and communities.

Kinsey (199: 173-177) concludes that land reform in Zimbabwe involves approaches that emphasized family-based holdings, collective co-operatives and links between satellite products and centralized commercial crops, livestock production and processing. The process also included efforts to devise an approach to resettlement to suit the needs of population in parts of the country. According to Makunike (2014: iv), in Zimbabwe, the poorest live in rural areas, therefore, problem of rural poverty has been attributed, in part, to lack of access to land due to historical imbalances arising from colonialism. Poverty in Zimbabwe emanates from lack of access by the poor majority to resources and other material means of life.

After the war, when Zanu-PF and Mugabe took over power, the Britain who had colonized Zimbabwe offered to pay for the land that had been taken forcefully in the first place from black Zimbabwean in the colonial era. This agreement is known as the “Lancaster Agreement”. Britain paid for a while but afterwards failed to pay claiming that they did not agree with how the Zimbabwean government was spending the money. Although Mugabe and Zanu-PF used this money for their own political agenda the government did have a moral obligation to take back the land (Moyo, 2000). Land reform in Zimbabwe is about land redistribution, and so political decisions had to be made on who should get the land and how the process should be implemented. These decisions were related to the poverty alleviation debate since denial of access to land by some sections in society leads to poverty.

According to de Villiers (2003:13) the land question in Zimbabwe remains a critical challenge which is impacting negatively on the economy of the country and it has also affected development. Makunike (2014: 08) concluded that the focus of the development and poverty alleviation agenda should be on land reform. It is only a society that has achieved reform, which is sufficiently radical and egalitarian enough to eradicate conditions of social differentiation in the countryside, is able to alleviate poverty and deprivation (Moyo, 2000; Zikhali,2008). If land reform raises the productivity and incomes of smallholder agriculture in Zimbabwe, it will then be a direct route towards alleviating poverty, hunger, malnutrition and unemployment. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) acknowledged the need for a more equitable distribution of land in Zimbabwe and the enormous challenges faced by the country in addressing land ownership imbalances. Their position was that a solution to the land issue had to lead to political, social and economic stability, as well as to poverty reduction and economic growth in a more equitable economic environment. Hanlon (2002: 14) asserts that corruption, at all levels, remains a major problem and contributes to land grabbing. Matukane (2014) posits that land invasion in Zimbabwe has affected farming, particularly because of the dispossession

of experienced commercial farmers; this has engendered violence and impacted on availability of food, employment, caused inflation and the negatively affected the economy. Chaumba, Scoones and Wolmer (2003: 04) argue that the slow pace of land reform and the exclusion of many poor households, combined with declining support to communal-area farmers and a general economic downturn in the 1990s, created a powder-keg in the rural areas. According to Nyandoro (2012:296) conflict over land and challenges posed by a malfunctioning economy continue to threaten stability in Zimbabwe, thus, the process of land redistribution has resulted in the collapse of the country's commercial agriculture sector. This was due to the land being transferred from white farmers to black farmers who had little farming experience and inadequate equipment (Ghai *et al.*, 1983).

The current land resettlement phase is characterised by - a lack of financial resources to provide hard and soft infrastructure for the farms; inadequate resources to support emerging institutions and organisations as well as increased levels of environmental degradation. What Zimbabwe's land reform history demonstrates, amongst other things, is the impact that lack of resources can have on the land acquisition and post-settlement processes (Tilley, 2007:32). The failure to devise successful and equitable land allocation policy the scene for land conflicts among Africans and between Africans and Europeans. The majority of African communities are still settled on poor, badly-located pieces of land and need consistent state support to enable them to derive livelihoods settlement; this current scenario has resulted in under- and over- utilization of land in resettlement areas, which offer no solution to sustainable economic development.

4.2.2 Land reform in Namibia

According to Chigbu, Sakaria, DeVries and Masum (2017:05) the Republic of Namibia believes that land reform strategy should empower the Namibians and be able to alleviate poverty through the provision of land for production and land tenure system. The racial policies which resulted in discriminatory land policies gave birth to need for a programme of land reform in Namibia as land which was owned by white farmers needed to be redistributed to black owners to create a system related to land allocation and land use support system that would alleviate hunger (Geingob,2005). The Republic of Namibia developed land reform policies to assist black people in getting back their land which was forcefully taken away from them. Land reform in Namibia aims at eradicating poverty and emphasizes equity, productivity and sustainability (Ghai *et al.*, 1983). According to Hoaes (2011:22) the main aim of the whole land reform process in Namibia, after independence, was to redress past injustices

caused by colonialization, whereby the country's indigenous people were disowned of their land. Hunter (2004) as cited in Hoaes (2011:22) states that at independence, 52% of the agricultural farmland was in the hands of white commercial farming communities who made up 6% of the country's population, while the remaining 94% of the population owned 48% of the agricultural land (Hunter, 2004). Two hundred and ninety-three farms consisting of 1.8 million hectares were bought from the white commercial farmers for resettlement purposes (Derman *et al.*, 2006). Land reform proceeded very slowly, which resulted in great frustration on the part of the landless; the ownership ratio between white and black farm owners is still skewed. The land reform programme in Namibia has achieved a partial success, as the programme has been criticized as being slow.

The slow pace of the programme on land reform has resulted in great frustration on the part of the landless; support after resettlement is also cited as a problem leading to low levels of productivity or even non-productivity (Hoes, 2011:67). According to the NAU (2009), land reform is not only the transfer of land from previously advantaged to previously disadvantaged Namibians but also the productive use of all agricultural land in the country.

The Namibian Land Programme (NLP) has the following features:

- All are equal before the law, when it comes to land issues. According to the NLP, there shall be no discrimination in terms of sex, colour, ethnic origin, religion, creed, social or economic status.
- A mixed economy is a principle of the NLP. A mixed economy is based on public, private, co-operative, joint public private, co-ownership and small-scale family ownership are all allowed in the country's supreme law, its Constitution.
- The Namibian Land Programme provides for a unitary land system, in which all citizens have equal rights, opportunities and security across a range of tenure and management systems (RoN, 1991:06).

The main objectives of the resettlement programme according to the policy are:

- To redress past imbalances in the distribution of economic resources, particularly, land;
- To give some sections of the population an opportunity to produce their own food with a view towards self-sufficiency;

- To bring smallholder farmers into the mainstream of the Namibian economy by producing for the market;
- To create employment through full time farming;
- To alleviate human and livestock pressure in communal areas, and
- To offer an opportunity to citizens to reintegrate into society after many years of displacement by the colonialization process, war of liberation and circumstances (RoN, 2001:03).

In the rural areas of Windhoek, for example, communities, however, are said to be clamouring for access to farm land through expropriation and on the basis of ancestral land rights (Hunter, 2004). It is quite clear that the Land Reform Programme has not made any significant change since independence, hence, this strong demand. In a national conference which was held in 1991, the civil society group took a resolution that government should take steps to accelerate the process of expropriating land from absentee landlords. Also, that government should act more decisively to address what is considered to be crises in the resettlement programme (Philip, 2003). The resolutions also wanted reforms in communal areas to make the farmers more productive and finally, they wanted the government to priorities farms of absentee landlords for expropriation.

A number of challenges of the Land Reform Programme in Namibia were identified by some critics as - budgetary constraints (as government could not afford the prices that the white farmers were charging as they were exorbitant); the inadequate infrastructure on most farms (as those bought through the Land Reform Programme could not be used for agricultural production as they are very old); lack of adequate market for their produce; and also due to the previous background, land reform beneficiaries do not have technical skills and knowledge of farming and this affects productivity (Hoaes,2011). Based on these challenges of the Land Reform Programme, it has become very clear that the programme is not making any impact in improving the livelihoods of the poor people of Namibia (Masiiwa, 2003: 09). Post-independence “new farmers” were allocated farms with infrastructure, but it had been destroyed as a result of the lengthy process involved in resettling people. If the resettlement process had been swift, perhaps there might not have been a need for government to put in extra money to replace infrastructure that were in place when these farms were acquired (Hoaes, 2011:29-30).

Manenzhe (2007: 15) argues that equitable distribution of land is not simply transformation of the racial ownership patterns of existing farms but creation of livelihoods and reduction of poverty for the landless. It needs to be noted that new farmers need different skills and the support they need may also be different, therefore, the policy to address land reform should be formulated to address the needs of the different beneficiaries in different regions and countries. Hoaes (2010: 98) agrees that the needs of farmers vary, from farmer to farmer and region to region, thus, not all beneficiaries would need the same type of support. These challenges make it difficult for the Land Reform Programme in Namibia to improve the livelihoods of the poor. The programme has been criticized as being slow and has achieved little success in undoing the unjust of the past while seeming to rather forgive the injustices done to the indigenous people. Kaumbi (2004:92) concludes by stating that land is the most important means of production and without equitable restoration to its real owners, independence will remain just on paper.

According to Mosotho and Tsiu (2008) as cited in Hoaes (2011:64) several key components that underpin successful resettlement were not in place, at most resettlement farms. In terms of support services, most of the resettled farmers had received either limited or no post-resettlement support services. The Namibian government as well as many other organisations should see the need for post-settlement support in order for land beneficiaries to get training and develop skills to farm sustainably and productively; the support packages need to be tailor-made for the different classes of farmers according to their defined needs. Namibian authorities and policymakers should decide what the country needs, whether it is redressing past injustices or striving towards food security, balancing agricultural productivity, equity and economic development (Hoes, 2011:55-59).

4.3 THE LAND REFORM PROCESS IN THE VHEMBE DISTRICT

Vhembe District Municipality is a Category C Municipality, established in the year 2000 in terms of Local Government Municipal Structures Act No. 117 of 1998. It is a municipality with a Mayoral Executive System, which allows for the exercise of executive authority through an executive mayor in whom the executive leadership of the municipality is vested and who is assisted by a mayoral committee. It consists of four local municipalities: Thulamela, Makhado, Musina and Collins Chabane. The District is located in the Northern part of Limpopo Province and shares borders with Capricorn and Mopani District municipalities in the eastern and western directions respectively. The borders extend to Zimbabwe and Botswana in the North

West and Mozambique in the South East through the Kruger National Park (Vhembe, IDP, 2017:01). The District consists of Venda, Tsonga, Sepedi, Afrikaans and English-speaking people. Vhembe District Municipality is Limpopo's most northern district lying within the great curve of the Limpopo River. The Vhembe District is a typical developing area, exporting primary products, although, with a high potential for development, with resources, such as tourism, minerals and agriculture. The majority of land in the Vhembe district is held in trust by government for the traditional authorities, and this makes private land ownership difficult or impossible. At present, the dominant form of land ownership is the Permission-To-Occupy. The land reform process has been slow in the Vhembe District. Several challenges, including the slow transfer of land to the beneficiaries in the Vhembe District have negatively impacted on the agricultural sector as delays have given rise to uncertainty, thus, undermining long term investment. Although the government has tried to offer minimal support by assisting the land restitution beneficiaries to deal with their challenges, there are concerns that these 'new farmers' still experience serious challenges like lack of - capacity, drought, interference by chiefs, skills and know-how to farm commercially (Wisborg, Hall, Shirinda & Zamchiya,2013). The institutions responsible for land reform, local and district municipalities, as implementing agents, are still struggling to adequately support land claimants to advance in the strategic partnerships. CPAs have very little capacity to partake as equal partners in complex enterprise; their power to influence enterprise decisions is minimal. This process needs to acknowledge that most land restitution beneficiaries do not intend to be farm labourers or to live on a farm under paternalist control. While many have a strong desire to get employment opportunities in agrarian enterprises, they choose to reside in towns or villages where they can benefit from social services and continue to engage in a modernizing cultural milieu. The reform programme, however, has achieved some success, especially in the public-private partnerships between CPAs and strategic agri-business partners. These ventures have been positively endorsed as a practical means to achieve the government's policy objectives.

According to Manenzhe (2007) land reform is a politically sensitive issue in the Vhembe District where over 60% of commercial farms have been claimed. This research does not assess the political merits of the land reform process, rather, the focus falls squarely on examining the economic and development opportunities aimed at strengthening the capacity of the land reform beneficiaries to assume a management role and oversee various income streams for their material benefit as well as social and economic empowerment. This new business-rooted concept of agrarian reform is strongly oriented towards the government's Black Economic

Empowerment (BEE) objectives. Local governments, therefore, need to plan for a new future, which would be supporting the growth of towns and villages so that they can become part of the agricultural economy, but at the same time sustain modern lives, off the farm.

Table 4.1 Summary of Performance: Limpopo Province

Number of claims settled		approved actual projects: 238		land claims finalised phased projects approved target 17 Actual 6		Number claims lodged researched	
Target	Beneficiaries	Hectares	Land cost	Financial compensation	Total award	Target	Actual
186	5932	4222.3054	46,720,200.00	324,912,227.95	371632,427.95	331	301

Source: Annual report: 01 April 2017-31 March 2018

During the period under review, the Province projected the following in the APP: to settle 186 land claims, finalized 28 land claims, research 331 land claims, as well as approved 13 phased projects. As at the end of the 2017/2018 financial year, the province managed to settle 189 land claims, finalized 104 land claims, research 301 land claims, as well as approve 10 phased projects.

It was strategic to use some of the land reform inherited projects in the Limpopo Province in this research because:

- The original land was restored to the communities and the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform had policies in place to support land beneficiaries;
- The land claims settled are rural claims affecting disadvantaged households and there is variety in terms of community and institutional dynamics;
- The majority of the land is now fully occupied as residential land or used for other purposes; the relevant question here is whose decision it was for that form of land use as opposed to other means of productive use of land;
- In some areas large portions of land are still not being fully utilized, and
- There are different development projects that are collapsing.

The main challenges facing new farmers in the Vhembe region, like in the other parts of the country, seem to be access to credit or even collateral due to the general dilapidated state of the farms' infrastructure at the time of resettlement, due to the lengthy period of allocation, thus, causing the deterioration. It is not clear whether the state of infrastructure was poor before government bought it from the previous owner or whether it collapsed in the hands of the new resettled owners.

4.4. AN OVERVIEW OF THE LAND RESTITUTION BENEFICIARIES IN THE VHEMBE DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY

The population of Vhembe district from 2011 to 2016 is 99 227 people. Food Security and hunger persist in the district. The district aims to improve access to the resources through the provision of operation and maintenance of socio-economic and environmental infrastructure. Land redistribution and restitution programme are negatively affected by insufficient financial post settlement support and dilated infrastructure (Vhembe IDP, 2020/2021:291).

4.4.1 Ratombo community

Ratombo rural community is found in the Makhado local municipality on the R524 road to Thohoyandou, +40kms east of Louis Trichardt town (Manenzhe, 2015). Ratombo is one of the farms that were owned by the white minority in the Levubu area where the soil is fairly fertile with potential for excellent crop and fruit production comprising of 1 449 hectares of prime agricultural land (Manenzhe, 2015:165). Themeli (2019) states that the Ratombo community is one of the Luvuvhu river valley communities which were forcibly removed from their land by the white government in the 1930s, and the residents of Ratombo were re-settled at Tshituni, Ha-mashau, Tsianda and Ha-Mutsha and Chief Ratombo was relegated to a headman. The Ratombo community lodged its claim for their land with the Land Claims Commission in 1998. When they got their land back, they formed a board composing of community members who were from the beneficiaries' families and two former white landlords. Their mission statement stated that land reform should fight poverty, create jobs and expand the farm to create more opportunities for the community members (Manenzhe, 2015.165).

According to Themeli (2019: 76), the Ratombo community had hoped that land reform would yield immediate results, including access to food, income generation, job creation and general improvement in the standard of living. For the productive use of the land or farms that the Ratombo community secured, they opted for a Strategic Partnership to run the affairs of the

farm through the CPA. Revenues from the farms went directly to the intended strategic partners and no benefits flowed to the communities. Community members complained because all farm revenues and grant income from the state were effectively under the exclusive control of Umlimi, with little or no involvement by community representatives in decision-making and no reporting of financial affairs (Lahiff, Davis & Manenzhe, 2011:28-29).

From the outset, the farms were in poor condition due to neglect by the former owners (Lahiff, *et al.*, 2011:27). At present Ratombo community still has challenges, like, lack of jobs, lack of rain and minimal food security for the beneficiaries but the new CPA which has been elected into office seems equal to the task of remedying this. Although the Ratombo farms have not achieved every intended goal and are still facing a myriad of challenges, there are some successes which have been recorded, like human development and fair production (Themeli, 2019: 88-89).

4.4.2 Makuleke community land claim

The Makuleke community is situated at the border of Vhembe district and Mopani district, in the far north-eastern corner of Limpopo Province (Steenkamp & Uhr,2000: 02). Makuleke region (Old Makuleke Village) is a remote area situated between the Limpopo and Luvuvu rivers, and the New Makuleke Village is about 60 kilometres from the old Makuleke Village (Muzeza, 2013:188). This area was formerly under Malamulele District, but came under Vhembe District following the change of administration status of Malamulele to a municipal administrative area within Vhembe District and later, Mopani. In terms of ethnic diversity, field research has established that Makuleke enjoys social and ethnic cohesion comprising of Tsonga and Venda speaking tribes. The Shangaan being the dominant ethnic group constitute 96.4%, while the Venda constitutes 3.6%. In 1969, under the Group Areas Act of 1950,the Makuleke community was forcefully removed from their land to make way for the Kruger National Park (KNP) and were resettled at Nthlaveni with only 6,000 hectares of land in size, adjacent to the Punda Maria Gate to the KNP. There, problems of malnutrition were experienced due to changes in sources of livelihoods coupled with limited alternative coping strategies; the land was not agriculturally viable and this was extremely unfair for a tribe which was dependent on and sustained by farming (Reid & Tuner, 2004:140, Spierenburg *et al.*, 2008: 90). The community was not used to the characteristic of the savannah dry conditions that did not match the rich and diverse flora and fauna of the Pafuri Triangle they previously occupied until September 1969. As Fabricius and Collins (2007:87) note, the community was forcibly moved

out of their fertile land and because of the hasty removals; the area was never prioritized for major livelihood coping and other human and social development, by the Kruger National Park's administration authorities.

Due to security geographical importance of Makuleke region in linking Mozambique and Zimbabwe, the political struggles in those countries at that time were cited as one of the reasons that necessitated the removal of people to pave way for effective security surveillance at the borderland areas; the removal of the people provided an excellent cover military for covert border operations (Spierenburg & Wells, 2006: 4). According to Steenkamp and Uhr (2000: 02) most of the Makuleke land was included into the KNP as well as the Madimbo corridor, *a military cordon sanitare* along the Zimbabwe border.

Communities, such as Makuleke, dispossessed of their land under discriminatory laws were able to institute claims over lost heritage through the Land Claims Commission (Spierenburg *et al.*, 2008: 90) that had been established under the provisions of the Restitution of Land Rights Act, 22 of 1994. The Makuleke community lodged their land claim for the restitution of their land rights in 1995 and they got their land back in 1999; they successfully reclaimed full ownership of approximately 24,000 hectares and another 5,000 hectares, which were not fenced into the Park (Fabricius, 2007: 87).

The Makuleke community had rights to engage and enter into partnership with a private sector to develop eco-tourism project(s) currently run by Wilderness Safaris in partnership with the community. Makuleke community agreed and committed themselves to utilize the reclaimed land for conservation purposes and not for either residential or agricultural purposes. There are now world-famous five-star lodges in the area that employ community members and pay rental to the Makuleke Communal Property Association from a subsidised conservation of the area (Steenkamp & Uhr, 2000, Thornhill & Mello; 2007; Shabangu, 2014).

The Makuleke land restitution beneficiaries are earning dividends from the lodges; the community members are employed in the Park; they are benefitting in terms of skills development; tertiary education funding opportunities; electrification of two villages, Mhinga and Makuleka; construction of four schools' classrooms; heritage functions and feeding schemes for the poorest families. There is also an Eco-training facility on the Makuleke land which offers individuals a chance to get world-class field-guide training in a place that has over 80% of the biodiversity of the Kruger Park on 22 000 hectares of community-owned land. Part of any tourist visit to Pafuri is learning about the rich traditions and culture of the Makuleke

people, and guests have the opportunity to visit the local village and learn more about their fascinating history (Steenkamp & Uhr, 2000, Thornhill & Mello, 2007, Shabangu, 2014)).

4.4.3 Manavhela community

The Manavhela Ben Lavin Nature Reserve lies 15km south of Makhado town, and 90 km south of Polokwane (Okumbor, 2010:03). The Reserve is roughly 2 612 hectares, with affordable accommodation facilities ranging from luxury tents, to brick chalets and huts. What has become known as Vygeboomspruit 256LS was a cattle farm and most of it eventually became the Ben Lavin Reserve, named after a previous owner (Aliber, Maluleke, Manenzhe, Paradza & Cousins, 2013:193). According to a brief historical report given on the official handing back of the land to the Manavhela community (Mirror newspaper, 13 April 2002), the people originated from Vhukalanga under the leadership of Tshishonga and are known as Vhandalamo. They initially settled at Dzata and later in Madungeni (Tshikantsini) after the war of Mavhoi; they then moved to the area called, Ha-Manavhela. Manavhela is known in official government documents as Vygeboomspruit and marks the route for the northward Voortrekker movement in the former Soutpansberg District of the Northern Transvaal (RLCC, 2002). The land which was returned to the community was known as Ha-Manavhela but is presently known as Ben Lavin Nature Reserve (Vygeboomspruit 286LS, Remaining Extent Portion 1, 2, 3, and 4). The Manavhela community occupied this land long before 1900 and the community formed part of the Ramabulana tribe (RLCC, 2000). The majority of the evicted members resettled at Ha-Kutama (which was renamed, Ha-Manavhela), Tshimbupfe and Ha-Mufeba. The Manavhela people are mainly scattered all over the Makhado Local Municipality and Vhembe District Municipality, with some living in other parts of the Limpopo Province and the country (Okubor, 2010:02).

At the end of the Anglo-Boer War, and against the backdrop of the then recently concluded Union Agreement and the Native Land Act, 1913 (Act No. 27 of 1913) referred to as the 'Land Act', the community members (Natives/Blacks) saw the arrival of a European war veteran, named Ben Lavin (Okubor, 2010: 03). The Native Commissioner of Louis Trichardt informed the leaders of the community that Ben Lavin owned the land on which they were living. In accordance with the provisions of the then new 'Land Act', Ben Lavin turned the community members into labour tenants and subjected them to forced labour for a period of three or nine months in exchange for residency on 'the farm'. Community members who refused to work were given notice, officially known as a 'Trek-pass' - endorsed by the Native Commissioner

of the then Louis Trichardt to evict them from ‘the farm’. By 1960, numerous community members had been evicted and in accordance with the ‘Land Act’ were not given any alternative land.

The erstwhile-evicted community lodged a claim with the land with the Land Claims Commissioner (LCC) on 29 August 1996 based on ‘beneficial occupation rights’, indicating that they had occupied the land for more than 10 years before and after the passage of the 1913 Land Act, until their removal in 1929 without compensation or alternative land. They had enjoyed beneficial occupation rights such as residence, access to water, crop growing, grazing land and access to sacred sites (RLCC 2002).

A Communal Property Association was formed immediately after the community got its land back to represent the Manavhela people. The Manavhela CPA comprises of 519 households that had benefited from the claim. These were the people represented in the legal process of the land claim through the provisions of the Restitution of Land Right Act 1994 Act No. 22 of 1994 (Aliber *et al.*, 2013:197).

Portions 1, 2, 3 and 4 are farmlands that are suitable for grazing and cultivation (crop production) (Mirror Newspaper, 19 April 2002). The nature reserve, which is by far the largest portion of the land, is under joint management by the Manavhela CPA (in overseer role) and Wildlife Society of South Africa (WSSA) (in technical and managerial capacity). An abattoir and piggery are currently outsourced while a broiler production is under the management of people employed by the Manavhela CPA. Portions 2, 3 and 4 of the land are not yet in any productive use. Other needs, such as schools, clinics, community centres as well as telecommunication infrastructures were identified (Banister 2003). Like many other land restitution claims, some of those who are entitled to the awarded land do not want to return while others who were not entitled wanted the land. The Manavhela community was awarded a Settlement Planning Grant (SPG) to develop the claimed land. The Regional Land Claims Commission invited proposals for land-use development plans. The terms of reference for prospective consultants with regard to future land-use for restored-land guidelines included, continued operation and expansion of facilities on Manavhela Ben Lavin Nature Reserve. There is an ongoing process to design a land-use development plan for the Manavhela project. Visitors can buy curios and camping supplies in the gift shop – and the profits, like those generated through lodging and daytime fees, are funnelled through the collective Community Property Association. For the near future, the community has voted to reinvest earnings into

the facility, but in coming years, some grants will be given to beneficiaries to cover children's school fees. The objectives of Manavhela land restitution, such as addressing the problem of poverty, unemployment and inequality are yet to be realized due to gaps in its conception and challenges in the implementation, including those arising from in-fighting (Okumbor, Sithole & Nana, 2018). Apart from a small handful of temporal exceptions, members of the Manavhela community do not get livelihood benefits from the restituted land (Aliber *et al.*, 2013:201).

4.4.4 Gertrudsburg community

In May 1963, the Gertrudsburg community were forcibly removed from land they had occupied since 1863 to a farm owned by a white farmer called, John Greeves and also known as Zaamkomste, by the past regime and no compensation was ever paid to them. Others were settled in the neighbouring areas like Madombidzha owned and controlled by Chief Sinthumule (Mamphodo, 2006:32). According to Ramaite (2004) as cited by Mamphodo (2006:35), the land was allocated to white farmers who established a farm in 1963 called Ledig 289 LS, which is composed of Lovemore farm, Ledig farm, Sweetwaters farm, and Forget-Me-Not farm. Prior to their forced removal, the community used to practice farming and ploughing. After the 1994 elections, these people formed the Gertrudsburg Communal Property Association (GCPA) and a committee under a chairman was also formed. They lodged a land claim to the farm, Ledig 289 LS on 22 May, 1995. After seven years of battle to get their land back, they succeeded on the 28th November 2001. Since 2001 the community has been facing lots of challenges forcing them not to utilise the acquired land to benefit themselves. The community has no support from the Makhado Local Municipality and the Limpopo Provincial government. The land is now lying idle and the farm remains un-settled although CPA is interested in agribusiness and settlement. The other potential role player is Makhado Local Municipality as they are the sphere of government responsible for service delivery; however, the local municipality has not yet taken a clear position on how they should support beneficiaries of Gertrudsburg. On numerous occasions, the Gertrudsburg community representatives have requested the municipality to provide water and electricity to the farm. These efforts have proved unsuccessful because the local municipality claims that it is not their mandate to deal with land claims issues, failing to accept that this was not a land claim project but a settlement that needs services. The Municipality states that it does not have to supply water or electricity because the area has not been proclaimed a township (Manenzhe: 2007:100).

4.4.5 Ravele community

The Ravele community in Levubu, 30 km east of Makhado, was displaced from its ancestral land. Unlike many other communities across the country, they did not let their misfortune stand in their way (Themeli, 2019). The government transferred in the subtropical Limpopo area, 16 farms with macadamia, avocado, banana, sweet potato and litchi, worth R42 million, to the Ravele Community Property Association (CPA) in 2005 (Yende,2017; Van Zyl). The farm was reportedly in poor condition due to neglect by the former owners, from delays in releasing the purchase payments by the state; this consequently led to delays in transfer of ownership to the communities (Lahiff, Nerhene & Manenzhe, 2012:19). According to Gobodo-Madikizela (2013:41) in the 2013 Annual Report Commission on Restitution of land Rights, the CPA represented 324 families of 880 beneficiaries, with the majority of them living in nearby villages. The CPA was formed in April 2004, but the claim was lodged in 1995. The democratic government restored 649 1601 hectares, and the Department supported the community through grants for the community farms where the avocados, macadamia nuts, bananas, citrus, litchis and vegetables were being produced. This prime land boasts of some of the best citrus, mango and vegetable producing farms in the country (Gobodo-Madikizela, 2013:42)

Since taking over the farms, the CPA in partnership with a managing agent has divided the area into four business units, each managed by one person supervising a group of farm workers. The four business units employ 175 permanent staff who are all from the community as well as 51 seasonal employees.

4.4.6 Kranspoort community

Kransport is a farm on the western side of Louis Trichardt which was under the Dutch Reformed Church Mission Station at the foot of Soutpansberg Mountains (Van Leynseele,2013:49). The Kransport farms are 1500 hectares and the community has lived on the plot in brick houses from 1890 until they were forcefully evicted between 1955 and 1964 under the Group Areas Act of 1955 and the Land Act of 1938. The Kransport community tried to resist but they were detained in Mara Police Station during the Sefasonke resistance causing them to scatter to Kutama, Soekmekaar, Musina and all over the country (Van Leynseele, 2013:45-46). The last owner of the farm, Mr Hofmeyr, had a vision of developing Kransport into a model educational and agricultural centre for the community and had wanted the place

to be utilized for missionary work. According to Naidoo (2015:50) it was in 1999 that the Kranspoort community instituted a claim for the restoration of the farm, Kranspoort No1849, which the Nederduits-Gereformeerde Kerk van Transvaal tried to defend; the beneficiaries were handed their land back in the year 2000. Rights to land were accepted as a basis for full restoration of landownership. Following the ruling by the Land Claims Court, the rights of the Kranspoort community, consisting of an estimated 125 households (including those who were forcibly removed from the mission and their direct descendants) were restored in a lavish land claims' settlement celebration that received national media attention (Van Leynseele, 2013:32). The beneficiary called a meeting for the way forward. The beneficiaries wanted to continue with cattle and crop farming but due to lack of support from the government, tensions that surfaced and competition over leadership positions, this proposal was not accepted (Van Leynseele, 2013:35). Some of the challenges encountered included - lack of meetings and funding and stealing by trespassers who were using old houses as their hostels. The beneficiaries have been promised eight RDP houses as a starting point for them to stay; some are talking about building lodges at the farms which will help in creating jobs. The amenities at Kranspoort, such as the church, school and medical clinic that had once signified its status as a beacon of progress, are, however, now dilapidated (Leyn, 2013:36).

4.4.7 Ndouvhada community

Ndouvhada community is composed of the Maingaye, Ramadwa, Khadammbi, Mashige, Matambatshikha, Madzhie and Maliaga communities. The people of Ndouvhada community were forcefully removed from the Chelford 213, Buffels 764, Trigony 236, India 229 and Booths 230 farms in 1970 (IDP,2018:17,Commission on Restitution of Land Rights,2018). These farms lie at the foot of the Soutpansberg Mountains adjacent to Kutama community and are 32km from the western side of Louis Trichardt. The Ndouvhada community under the leadership of chief Ndouvhada Mavhifhane Frans was staying on those farms ploughing and doing cattle farming. When they were evicted they moved to Midoroni, Tshakhuma, Maebani, Doli-Doli and Nzhelele (Van Zyl, 2019). In 1996 the Ndouvhada community lodged a land claim which was finalised in 2015. Mr Derrick De Pree commonly known as Manjengwe was the last owner of the farms that initially belonged to the Ndouvhada community. After World War 2, the farms were given to the white owners as a token of appreciation and people were working there with no payment or food and it resulted in most of the members of Ndouvhada community being denied a chance of going to school to get educated. The farms were for game

ranging and many jobs were created. The owner had markets in Australia, Germany, New Zealand and France. When the claimed farms claimed were returned to the Ndouvhada community, the owner of the farms took away all the animals (Maliaga,2019). The Ndouvhada beneficiaries were left with no animals and they could not do anything because they lacked support from the government, so they are now re-writing business plans for cash-crop farming (Maliaga,2019).

4.4.8 Munzhedzi community

Munzhedzi is the name of a community that originally resided in the former Venda homeland, in the area of Nthabalala (Manenzhe, 2007:02). Nthabalala was one of the sons of Thovhele Rasithu Ravele Ramabulana, who was awarded the area known as, Nthabalala, after his father's death in 1864 (Nemudzivhadi 1985:20). Munzhedzi is one of the sons of Nthabalala and was granted jurisdiction over land that was later registered as the farm Vleifontein 310 LS, and parts of the farms Syferfontein 85 LT and Diepgezit 390 LS (Nkuzi, 1998).

In 1982, part of Vleifontein 310 LS was proclaimed a township (Vleifontein), intended to accommodate Venda speakers who were forcibly removed from the old township of Tshikota, adjacent to the 'white' town of Louis Trichardt. The rest of Vleifontein 310 LS, along with Syferfontein 85 LT and Diepgezit 390 LS remained in the hands of the state (Manenzhe, 2007).

Following the passing of the Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994, the Munzhedzi community under the leadership of headman, T.J. Munzhedzi, organised themselves to lodge a land claim (Manenzhe,2007:02). On 1 February 1998, they formed a land claim's committee and lodged a claim with the Commission on Restitution of Land Rights (CRLR) on 22 July 1998. Originally, the properties claimed by Munzhedzi were (according to community members) Vleifontein 310 LS, Diepgezit 390 LS and Syferfontein 85 LT, but Syferfontein 85 LT was subsequently excluded from the claim. The initial enthusiasm of the claimants for pursuing their claim through the legal route was frustrated by lengthy bureaucratic delays in the processing of the claim, and lack of communication from the office of the RLCC. Loss of confidence in the official process, and pressure from within the community to address land needs of the people, resulted in members of the community, led by their headman, occupying the land prior to the formal settlement of the claim [Nngobo, 22/11/2004] A new Munzhedzi settlement was, thus, established on the western portion of Vleifontein 310 LS and Diepgezit 390 LS in 1999, when a group of disgruntled members of Munzhedzi community and some

landless people from outside the community, all under the leadership of headman T.J. Munzhedzi, moved onto the claimed land, demarcated their own residential stands and started constructing shacks. Reasons given by the occupiers for taking this action were the slow progress of their land claim and the belief that the Makhado Local Municipality was planning to proclaim land west of Vleifontein township (within the Munzhedzi's ancestral land) as an extension of the formal township. The majority of the claimants did not go onto the land with headman Munzhedzi in the initial stage of land occupation, reportedly because they already had houses or were expecting assistance from the government to build them new houses on the claimed land. As a result, headman Munzhedzi allocated land to anyone who needed land, in order to gain supporters and to reduce the chances of removal. In 2001, the office of the RLCC (Limpopo) responded by agreeing to the settlement of the land claim with the return of 1,204 ha of land to the Munzhedzi community in March 2002, which now officially consisted of 486 named members and their dependents. The Settlement Agreement entered into between the Munzhedzi CPA and the Minister for Agriculture and Land Affairs on behalf of the state added Zwartfontein 392 LS to the restored land, as compensation for the loss of land on Vleifontein 310 LS on which the formal township of Vleifontein is built. Syferfontein 85 LT could not be restored to Munzhedzi because of a competing claim by the neighboring Shimange community (Manenzhe & Lahiff, 2007: 02-03).

4.4.9 Shimange community

The Shimange clan comprises of people who in 1845 settled on land that is currently registered as Syferfontein 85 LT and Uitschot 84 LT.³⁴ This land is situated 20 km southeast of Makhado town (formerly Louis Trichardt), 13 km south-west of Elim and south of the Vleifontein Township (Lahiff & Manenzhe, 2008:16; Manenzhe, 2007: 79). For many years, it was a mission station known as Ephrata. The topography of the area can be described as broken foothills and undulating land. The farms contain numerous springs and are part of the Letaba Catchments area, which is a summer rainfall area.

According to Lahiff and Manenzhe (2007:16), the Shimange clan originated in Mozambique, where Nkukwana left Xihaheni District and trekked to the area which they called Vudyodyodyo and was later named Syferfontein. In 1850 a son was born to Nkukwana and was named Shimange, who later took over the leadership of the clan. In the 1890s, Syferfontein was obtained by its first white owner, Veldkornet Tom Kelly. The land remained in the Kelly's family until 1916 when it was sold to Rev. N. Jacques; in 1969 the Jacques family sold the

farm to a Mr. Henning. The farm was used for cattle and maize production and a mission school also operated from this farm (Manenzhe,2007).

As the land belonged to the state, and was not contested by any party, this claim was settled through an administrative process whereby the Minister approved the settlement according to Section 42D of the Act, restoring the farm Syferfontein 85 LT, measuring 718, 87 hectares in extent, to the Shimange Clan, as represented by the Shimange CPA, excluding two farms which are Uitschot and Zwartfontein. The settlement of the claim was marked by a celebration held at the Vleifontein Stadium on 2nd March 2002 (Manenzhe,2007). The land restored to the Shimange CPA was unallocated state land, which contained an old graveyard, various outbuildings and remnants of a cattle dip, holding pens, a dam, a small plantation and a pump house (Lahiff .Manenzhe, Wegerif& Maluleke, 2008:51).

The main interest of the Shimange community in claiming their land was to rebuild the sense of community destroyed through the implementation of the apartheid policies and to return to their ancestral land(Manenzhe,2007). They hoped that the return of the land would lead to the creation of job opportunities and boost the local economy (Manenzhe, 2007:82). The Shimange community is still struggling to have their dreams of creation of jobs realized due to lack of funding. Lahiff and Manenzhe (2008:57) state that although, the Makhado Local Municipality has a potentially important role to play in terms of providing services at Shimange but to date, the Municipality has taken no measures to support this or other land reform projects within its area of jurisdiction.

4.4.10 Machaba community

The Machaba community is comprised of the Davhana, Phanyane, Rangata, Machaba and Ntshiri families The Machaba community was forcefully removed from their land in 1926. This community was under the leadership of Mr Machaba Ralekwalana Wilson (Selepe, 2002). When the Machaba community was evicted from their land they went and lived in Bothlokwa, Indermark, Bochum, Sinthumule and Kutama (Selepe, 2008). They lodged their claim for their land in 1998 and to date they have received only two plots: Waagkraal which is 23 hectares and Oog Van Doornrivier which is 46 hectares (RLCC, 2002). Waagkraal used to operate mainly as a place where sheep were reared and slaughtered and meat delivered to neighbouring towns. Oog Van Doornrivier was a plot for cattle. The Machaba CPA is still waiting for their remaining 15 hectares. There is a slow pace for handing over the remaining farms due to

infighting for leadership positions. There were few tenants who occupied the houses, but they have been evicted because they were not looking after the properties. The beneficiaries are aiming to declare the farms as a residential area and the other portion for farming and crop production.

4.5 CONCLUSION

Land reform encompasses redistribution of land to the poor, who either possess little or no land. This is vital for the poor, because land is the primary means of generating a livelihood and a main vehicle for investing, accumulating wealth, and transferring property between generations. The eradication of rural poverty, through land reform, is based on two assumptions: firstly, the poor must have access to the land and secondly the poor must be assisted with sufficient resources and an enabling institutional framework, for them to base their livelihoods on the land. Different countries have experienced different challenges with the issue of land, like, the slow pace of finding solutions and the lack of necessary support to the beneficiaries. The issue of land needs to be speedily and properly addressed to avoid conflicts and fights between the dispossessor and dispossessee as well as loss of trust in the ruling party by the dispossessed. In the African economy, there can be no commodity more valuable than land and no circumstance in which it could be profitable to dispose it. This chapter highlighted the features of the Vhembe District beneficiaries and an international perspective on land reform and post-settlement support. The next chapter discusses the research design and the methodology of the study.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the research design and methodology (sampling, data collection and analyses). The justification, reliability and validity of the instruments are also discussed. Ethical consideration, the recording and transcribing of the data are also detailed.

The main purpose of research is to provide a reliable source of knowledge and decision-making instead of a subjective personal experience, belief, tradition, or intuition (Schumaker & McMillan, 1993: 26) and through research a reliable solution of research problems can be found; empirical studies, replications of research synthesis, practitioner adoption and evaluation are also done. This system is not static; rather it is being continuously improved to address emerging challenges. The chapter outlines the research methodologies selected for the study and the rationale for selecting particular methodologies.

5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a strategic framework or plan that helps guide research activities to ensure that desirable results are achieved and include techniques that will be used in the implementation of research (Terre Blanche *et al.*, 1999: 29). Research design therefore provides detailed information about sampling, data collection and data analysis. Mouton (2009: 647) defines a research design as a plan, blueprint or a structured framework of how you intend conducting the research process in order to solve the research problem. Kumar (2005: 75) notes a research design as a procedural plan that is adopted to answer a research question. Wilman, Kruger and Mitchell (2006: 52) state that a research design is the plan which assists us to obtain research participants and collect information from them. A research design is a systematic process which is used to collect, analyse and interpret data in order to make sense of it with an aim of increasing understanding of the phenomenon under study (Lee & Ormrod, 2005: 02). According to Bailey (1987: 24), there are a variety of approaches to social sciences research as each particular project is unique in some ways because of the particular time and place in which it will be conducted. Wysocki (2008: 228) argues that research design is basically a way of answering hypothetical question. A hypothesis is an idea or a guess about a particular phenomenon put forward which is tested with data specifically collected for it. Research

methodology, which is the focus of this chapter, entails a system of explicit rules and procedures on which a research is based and against which claims of knowledge are evaluated (Frankford-Nachmias, 1992: 14).

This study research design had both quantitative and qualitative elements based on the premise that the uses of either quantitative or qualitative approach alone is insufficient. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009: 240) argue that both closed-ended questionnaires and qualitative interviews are commonly occurring in recent literature and their combination allows for the strengths of each strategy to be combined in a complementary manner. In real practice, qualitative and quantitative approaches usually interact (Kvale, 1996: 68). Research design for quantitative studies is highly structured, while the design in qualitative studies is more fluid. This study was conducted into two stages - stage 1 which was more fluid and less structured and a more structured approach in stage 2.

In this way a better understanding of a phenomenon can be obtained. Due to the different approaches and the uniqueness of the steps in each approach, their methodologies for the sake of clarity, were discussed under separate stages.

5.3 METHODOLOGY

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:12), a research methodology refers to the procedures or methods which are used in research to establish new knowledge and differs from study to study; it also dictates the particular tools used in order to carry out a particular project. Collins and Hussey (1993: 113) state that methodology deals with what data needs to be collected, the method of collection, communication and how results are to be analysed to answer the researcher's problem that initiated the research. "Most authors agree that in real life, human sciences research uses both quantitative and qualitative methodology -sometimes, consciously-sometimes unconsciously (Fouche' & Delpont, 2002: 18). The study followed a mixed methods approach by implementing both qualitative and quantitative research methods. David and Sutton (2011: 285) refer to mixed methods as a way of finding out more about the subject that one wishes to understand. Creswell (2008: 263) explain mixed methods research as a procedure for collecting, analyzing and 'mixing' both qualitative and quantitative data at some stage of the research process, within a single study to understand a research problem more completely. The qualitative method was used since respondents are free to share their perspective, and the researcher explored and described events as perceived by them. According to Babbie and Mouton (2008: 270), qualitative research is conducted in the natural setting of social actors,

and the focus is on the process than the outcome while a high level of reliability of data gathered can be achieved from questionnaires. Qualitative data was collected first followed by the quantitative data. A qualitative approach was used in stage 1 and collected data by means of open-ended interviews with the provincial and district managers, provincial Land commissioner, LED managers, CPAs chairpersons and secretaries, land restitution beneficiaries and municipal managers in the Vhembe District. In stage 2, a quantitative approach was used and data was collected through the use of questionnaires from the rest of sampled respondents. The advantage of using both quantitative and qualitative methods rests in the potential for enhancing the validity of research findings (Arthur, Waring, Coe, Hedges, 2012: 147).

This study, therefore, combines qualitative and quantitative procedures to determine how the restoration of land to the Vhembe District beneficiaries contributes to sustainable economic development. The mixed methods were adopted, as it was best suited for the study as the use of multiple methods is usually necessary to study a single topic (De Vos, 2005).

5.3.1 Stage1. Qualitative Approach

A qualitative approach is about people as the central unit of analysis and is mainly concerned with individual's perceptions, beliefs, views and feelings (Hakim, 1992: 260). A qualitative approach relies on non-statistical methods and small purposefully-selected samples. The focus of qualitative method is on phenomenon that occurs in natural settings and studies this phenomenon in all its complexity putting emphasis on meaning, process and context (Leedy *et al.*, 2005: 133; Christensen, 2001, Litosellite, 2003). A qualitative research method explores the full extent of a phenomenon which is not well understood and it is therefore relevant for the purpose of this study as little was known about the post-settlement challenges facing the land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District as well as the magnitude of their impact on the livelihood of the land reform beneficiaries.

The rationale for using a qualitative approach at this stage was to obtain the individuals' own accounts of their attitudes and behaviour with regard to the post-settlement challenges facing the land restitution beneficiaries and their impact on sustainable economic development in the Vhembe District.

5.3.2 STAGE 2 QUANTITATIVE APPROACH

In phase 2 of the research study, a quantitative approach was used to obtain information with regard to the post-settlement challenges facing the land restitution beneficiaries and their impact on sustainable economic development in the Vhembe District. Quantitative is an approach in research which involves collecting data in the form of numbers where statistical analysis may be applied to determine the importance of the findings (Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter, 2006: 47; Babbie 2008: 443). When using quantitative method, the emphasis is on numerical analysis of data collected through questionnaires or surveys and generalizing it across groups of people; in other words, this involves explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data which are analyzed statistically (Babbie, 2008: 520-521). A phenomenon is the key elements of research which the researcher is looking to explain. In this research study the phenomenon was the post-settlement challenges facing the land restitution beneficiaries and their impact on sustainable economic development in the Limpopo Province. In order to have an informed understanding of quantitative research, Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 95-97) and Terre Blanche *et al.*, (2006: 47-48) describe the features of quantitative research as follows:

- Quantitative research is characterized by the use of statistics to answer questions pertaining to how, who, and when and a statistical analysis allows for generalization to others. The goal of quantitative research, therefore, is to choose a sample that is closely identified with the population.
- Quantitative means to quantity meaning, thus, making facts things that can be counted. It is for this reason that the focus of quantitative research is on numbers or quantities.
- Quantitative research has its results that are based on numerical analysis of statistics.
- Data collection is relatively quick when using a more structured research instrument. The researcher usually uses tools, such as questionnaire to collect numerical data.
- The results of the research are relatively independent of the researcher.

5.4 STUDY AREA

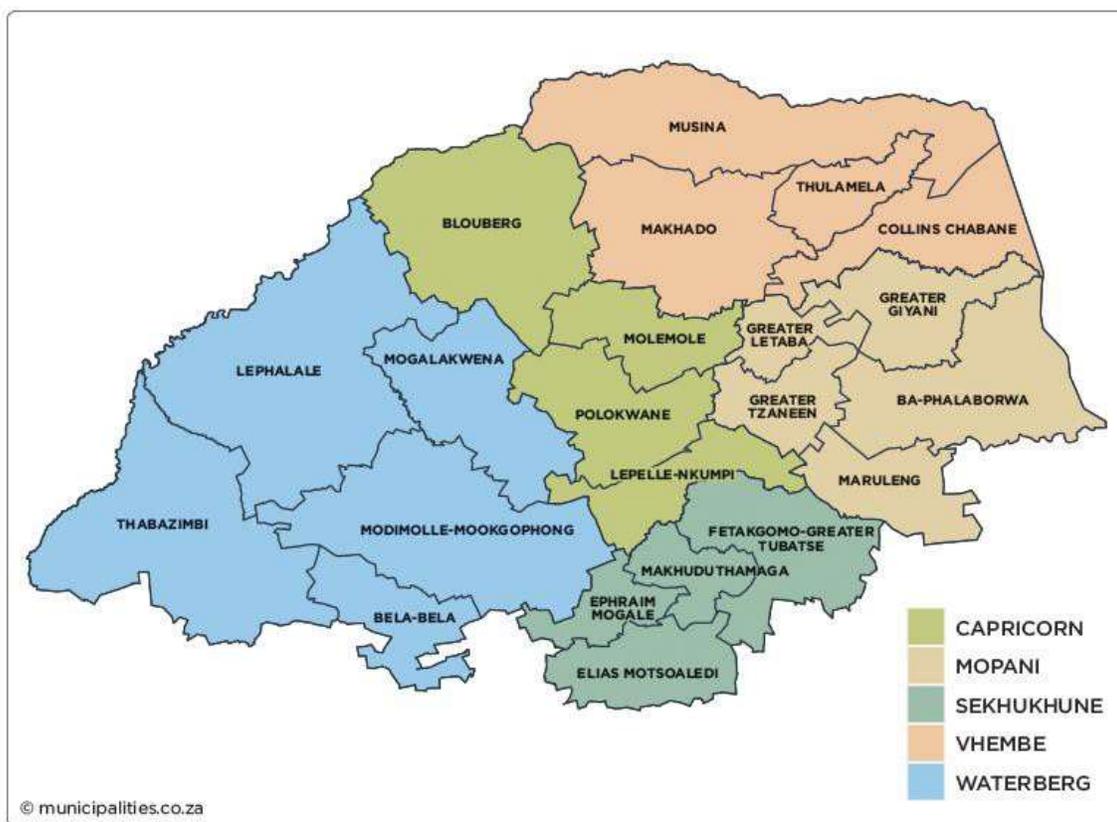


Figure 5:1 Map of Limpopo Province (www.google.co.za)

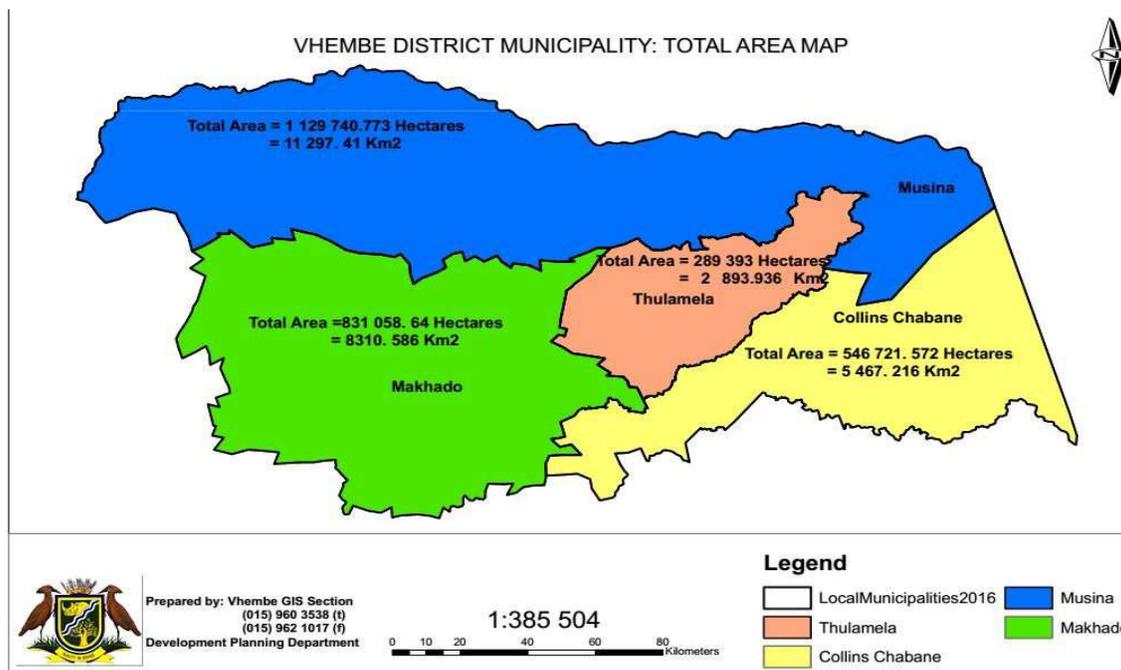


Figure 5.2 Vhembe district municipality IDP:2019/2020

The study investigated land reform projects in the Vhembe District in the Limpopo Province. Vhembe District is one of the five districts in Limpopo Province, and it is made of Musina, Makhado, Thulamela and Collins Chabane Municipalities. The District consists of Venda, Tsonga, Sepedi, Afrikaans and English-speaking people. Vhembe District Municipality is Limpopo's northern-most district lying within the great curve of the Limpopo River and is South Africa's most rural province (Aliber *et al.*, 2013:154). The Vhembe District borders Zimbabwe to the north and Mozambique to the east. It is a typical developing area, exporting primary products with a high potential for development, with resources such as tourism, minerals and agriculture. The majority of land in the Vhembe District is held in trust by government for the traditional authorities, and this makes private land ownership difficult or impossible. At present, the dominant form of land ownership is the Permission-To-Occupy. The rural areas are the most under-developed, with large open spaces used for farming purposes with most of the farms under claims. The district has got the highest number of claims in Limpopo Province due to the fact that it is surrounded by farms which were taken over by white farmers who wanted to stay on land which is of high agricultural value and tourism purposes (Wisborg, *et al.*,2013; Baloyi,2010)..

The total number of claims lodged in Vhembe District Municipality is 1042 of which 898 have been settled and 13 partly settled. Urban claims are 129 and rural 748 of which there are 124 outstanding claims. The main challenge from this situation is that unsettled claims impact on planning and development of the area (IDP, 2019/2020: 25).

5.5 POPULATION

A population refers to the larger pool while a sample is a selection from the population (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 1996: 188; Robson 1995: 135-136). A population is the total group or a larger pool from which our sampling elements are drawn, and to which the researcher would want to generalize the findings (Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2006:133; Babbie, 2010: 199; Rosnow & Rosenthal 1996: 411). MacBurney and White (2004: 373) define population as the entire collection of individuals being considered for a research. According to Mouton (2001: 174) a population is the aggregate of elements from which the sample is actually selected. The population gives the total of all individuals who have certain features that are of interest to a researcher with relation to a particular topic (Thomas 2013: 135). A population, thus, is the group of people whom the researcher wants to draw conclusions from and the individual within

a particular population usually have a common, binding characteristics (Babbie, 2008: 121; Terre Blanch *et al.*, 2006: 133).

The population for the purpose of this research study comprised of the respondents who know much about land reform. The governments officials have the duty of ensuring that there was support to the beneficiaries and were therefore considered the population for the purpose of this study. The population was drawn from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform within which land restitution is implemented and the Departments of Agriculture and Local Economic Development, Environment and Tourism as the departments that can offer support to the beneficiaries and Nkuzi Development Association (an NGO) which is directly involved in issues of land reform in the Limpopo province. The members of the CPAs, as the direct beneficiaries and the managers at local municipalities and as people who deal with local economic development issues, also formed part of the population.

5.6 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Research instrument is the method or means by which data is collected (Marlow & Boone, 2005:336). According to Gray (2009: 273) a research instrument is a tool, such as a questionnaire survey or observation schedule used to gather data as part of researcher project. The structured questionnaire and open-ended interview were chosen methods to collect data.

5.6.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire was used as the main instrument for gathering data. It was divided into two main parts. The first part was a demographic section which required respondents to provide information with regard to age, gender, race, qualification, work experience and position at work. The second part was the main body which consisted of the actual questions designed to measure the effects of post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe district.

The questionnaire provided a standardized response since all respondents were asked questions in exactly the same manner. Although communication cannot be direct in a questionnaire, the researcher asks questions to which he/she wants answers, and it is through the questionnaire that the respondent's answers are conveyed back to the researcher (Brace, 2004: 17). An advantage in using a questionnaire to collect data is that participants respond to questions with assurance that their responses would remain anonymous, and therefore they were more truthful than they would be in person-to-person interviews.

A Likert scale was used as it is the most popular and reliable way to measure someone's attitude and behaviours. The Likert format also enabled the respondents to respond to the statements with ease. In each question, a statement in a multiple-choice type format was used (Bowling 1997; Burns & Grove 2003; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:234). Unlike a simple "yes/no" response, a Likert scale allows a researcher to uncover degrees of opinions and this can be helpful in addressing sensitive topics, such as unethical behaviour in service delivery. The Likert scale was also considered balanced because there are equal numbers of positive and negative positions, however, it has its drawbacks as it only allowed respondents to choose from a limited number of options; that should not be viewed as a serious limitation as the significant strength of its use complement that weakness, in that a larger amounts of data are collected within a short space of time, more than it would have been possible with rigorous interviews.

In the questionnaire, five choices were provided for every statement. The choices represented the degree of agreement each respondent has with a given statement.

The format of the five-level Likert scale are Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree and Strongly agree.

In order to ensure that the researcher got things right, a draft questionnaire was piloted on a small group of people who were encouraged to provide feedback (Thomas, 2013: 215). Above all, the researcher made sure that every question is relevant to address the research question; and the inputs given were acknowledged and taken into account (Leedy & Ormrod 2005: 192; Thomas 2013: 207).

5.6.2 Interview

The interview schedule was also used as a data collection method. According to Bless *et al.*, (2006: 116), an interview schedule involves direct personal contact with the participants who are asked to answer questions relating to the research problem. Babbie (2007: 06) states that an interview schedule is a data collection encounter in which one person (an interviewer) asks questions to the other (interviewee); it contains instructions for the interviewer, specific questions in a fixed order, and transition phases for the interviewer. A interview helps the interviewer to find out enough information, not only through conversation, but also through body language. The interview schedule made up of open-ended questions was preceded by a covering letter motivating the respondents to complete it. The researcher asked further explanations in situations where the answer was ambiguous.

5.7 SAMPLING

Adams, Raeside and White (2007: 87) define sampling as the process or technique of selecting a suitable sample for purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population. David and Sutton (2011: 233) add that sampling is the process of deciding who will participate in the research project while Terre Blanche (2004: 213) defines sampling as the process used to select cases for inclusion in a research study. Sampling, therefore, refers to the selection of specific research participants from the entire population and is performed in different ways according to the type of study (Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2006: 49).

The sampled group for the study consist of the Provincial Land Commissioner, Provincial Managers for the departments of Agriculture and Economic Development, Environment and Tourism, district managers for Rural Development and Land Reform, LED managers in the Municipalities, CPAs' chairpersons and secretaries, land reform beneficiaries and NGOs that deal with issues of land reform.

Respondents were sampled to participate in the research based on their first-hand experience of the phenomenon and were selected for the purpose of this study because they were considered knowledgeable in terms of understanding the post-settlement challenges on the land restitution beneficiaries and their impact on sustainable economic development in the Vhembe District. The LED managers, Provincial Land Commissioner, Provincial Managers and District Managers were selected precisely on the basis of their closeness to the research topic and their levels of experience in management, leadership and organizational issues were also taken into account.

The study was conducted in four local municipalities of the Vhembe District - Musina, Makhado, Thulamela and Collins Chabane Municipalities. A representative sample of 10 projects which are Ratombo, Makuleka, Manavhela, Gertrudsburg, Ravele, Kranspoort, Ndouvhada, Munzhedzi, Shimange, and Machaba CPAs were selected and a detailed assessment and analysis of these projects were conducted.

5.7.1 Sampling method

A non-probability sampling using purposive sampling was followed because the opinions of the sampled people was more valuable, and the sampled respondents are the people who are directly involved with the issues of land reform. David and Sutton (2011: 232) state that in purposive sampling, the units are selected according to the researchers' knowledge and

opinions about whom they think are appropriate to the topic area, hence, the researcher selected few participants who are knowledgeable about the topic. The non-probability sampling method based on the conscious selection of respondents was chosen. In non-probability sampling the researcher cannot guarantee that each element of the population will be represented in the sample (Leedy *et al.*, 2005: 206) whereas in probability sampling, the researcher can specify in advance the segments of the population that will be represented in the sample. Three types of non-probability samplings can be identified, namely, convenience sampling, quota sampling and purposive sampling. The purposive or judgmental sampling was chosen for the purpose of this study. In this approach, research participants are selected on the basis of the researcher's judgement about which ones would be the most appropriate on the basis of the study topic (Babbie, 2010: 193). It is not possible to study the entire population, therefore, a sampling technique has to be employed and probability sampling has the power to produce a representative sample which is generally acceptable as it assures generalizations. A representative sample which could produce a large random sample which is relatively representative was not opted for due to time limit and financial constraints.

5.7.2 Sample size

David and Sutton (2011: 233) further talked of the sample size and advise that a sample size should answer the question: *How large a sample should be in order for it to be representative of the population?* The size of the sample is dependent on the number of officials from the Department of Land Reform and Rural development, who are - Land Commissioner in Limpopo Province and five district managers on land reform, provincial managers from the Departments of Agriculture and Local Economic Development, Environment and Tourism and ten LED managers in the ten local municipalities in the Limpopo Province, chairperson and secretary from each of the ten CPAs in the Vhembe District, Nkunzi Development Association representative and 10 beneficiaries (5 males and 5 females). The sample size for the purpose of this study consisted of 49 research participants. This number should not be viewed as a limitation, as this approach is consistent with the sampling procedures common in studies using unstructured interview methodology.

Department/Group	Category	Sample	Sampled	Method
Rural development & Land Reform	Provincial Land commissioner	1	1	Interviews

Agriculture	Provincial manager	1	1	Questionnaire
Local Economic Development, environment and tourism	Provincial manager	1	1	Questionnaire
Rural Development And Land Reform	District managers	5	5	Interview
Municipalities	LED managers	25	10	Questionnaire
CPAs	Chairpersons	50	10	Interview
CPAs	Secretaries	50	10	Questionnaire
Community	Beneficiaries	50	10	Interview
NGO	Nkunzi Development Association	1	1	Questionnaire

Table 5.1 Sample size

5.8 DATA COLLECTION METHODS AND INSTRUMENTS

According to Grinnell (1993:441), data collection methods are procedures specifying techniques to be employed, measuring instruments to be utilized and activities to be conducted when doing a research study. Data collection method involves planning for fieldwork that is where the researcher must decide how to obtain the data from the subjects, in a scientific way (Fouche & Delpont, 2011: 75). Data collected from different respondents was compared to determine the similarities and differences, after which data with similar patterns were arranged together as categories.

Letters were sent to the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) and the Department of Agriculture (DoA) in the study area about the intention to visit the land reform projects in the area. Appointments were made with the contact persons of projects to be visited. The representatives identified beneficiaries based on their involvement in the decision-making in the projects. In line with the requirements of academic research ethics, consent was sought from every individual to be interviewed. No incentives were offered to any participant and all individuals participated out of their own free will, with the understanding that they could withdraw their participation at any time. Two data collection instruments were used to collect data, namely, questionnaire and interview.

The questionnaire and the interview schedule were first pilot-tested to “ensure that errors of whatever nature could be rectified immediately, at little cost” (de Vos, Strydom, Fouche’ & Deport, 2002: 177). Pre-testing the instruments helps to find out if the items are clear and unambiguous and avoid double-barrelled questions. According to MacBurney and White (2004: 239), open-ended questions permit the respondents to answer in their own words; they answer more completely and reveal the reasoning behind their answers. With open-ended questions, according to Adams *et al.*, (2007: 132), respondents are asked to describe issues or state their views and feelings. Primary data was collected, and a semi-structured questionnaire was designed to accommodate both open-ended and closed-ended questions. Twenty three questionnaires were distributed to the respondents and collected personally from a place convenient to the respondents. In-depth face-to-face interview was conducted with the representatives of each beneficiary group for each project. A set of pre-determined open-ended questions on an interview schedule was developed to guide the researcher during the interviews, and the participants were guided and encouraged to share their experiences and views regarding land restitution post-settlement challenges and their impact on sustainable economic development. According to David and Sutton (2011: 636), semi-structured interviews allow a degree of flexibility in wording and sequence.

Observations of the study area based on the expectations of the researcher were also carried out to verify the responses of the beneficiaries. Additional information on non-operational projects was obtained from two extension officers and two projects officers.

Secondary data was collected from documents on the status of land reform in South Africa, reports from government offices and previous studies on land reform projects and from libraries, internet searches, government records and through attending workshops and conferences where issues of land reform were discussed.

A questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter where issues such as the aim of the research, why information was being collected, its importance to the respondents and the municipality and the assurance of confidentiality were clearly communicated. Instructions for completing the questionnaire were also clearly stated (Gary, 2009: 364; Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2006: 489). The researcher purposefully selected the respondents because of the belief that they were competent to respond to their questions. The basic aim of quantitative data was to describe the phenomenon and to generalize finding from a sample to the rest of the population. People were more truthful while responding to the questionnaires regarding sensitive issues due to the

fact that their responses were anonymous (Leedy and Ormrod 2005: 185; Judd, Smith, Kidder 1991: 216). Data collection, through the use of questionnaire, provided less pressure on the respondents, than immediate response. This becomes important as respondents are required to take their time in responding to attitude questions rather than giving immediate quick responses (Judd *et al.*, 1991: 216).

Questionnaires also have their drawbacks as the majority of respondents who receive questionnaires do not return them and those who do, might not be representative of the original selected sample (Leedy & Ormrod 2005: 185).

In order to address that drawback, appointment with representative respondents with the permission from their leadership was arranged. All respondents were called to the meeting where the purpose of the questionnaire was explained. Questionnaires were hand-delivered by the researcher to the respondents and they were informed exactly when the questionnaires were to be collected (Gray, 2009: 365).

Data was collected from the respondents by means of unstructured interviews. Conducting interviews is a natural way of interacting with respondents and allows the researcher to understand how they think and feel (Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2006: 297). Interviews are a far more personal form of research as they deal directly with the respondents. Interviews were conducted with five municipal managers using open-ended questions as these allow the research participant to respond to questions in terms of their own frame of reference (Bogdan & Knopp 1992: 02). The questions revolved around the post-settlement challenges facing the land restitution beneficiaries and their impact on sustainable economic development in the Vhembe District.

Unstructured interview began with an opening question: *“Can you tell me about your experience with regard to the post-settlement challenges facing the land restitution beneficiaries and their impact on sustainable economic development in the Vhembe District?”* The interview then progressed based primarily upon the initial response. The open-ended or unstructured face-to-face interviews were tape-recorded in full for later analysis and, although, the interviewer took notes, it was however performed with caution as it could have distracted the natural flow of the conversation (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006: 94). Unstructured interview is more flexible and may also provide valuable information that the researcher had not planned for (Leedy *et al.*, 2005:146). They are also less artificial, more natural and resemble a discussion between equal participants (Sansford & Jupp, 2006: 95).

The following hints were taken into account by the researcher in order to facilitate the success of the interviews:

- Choosing a suitable location with a little or no interruptions is important (Leedy *et al.*, 2005: 147). Interviews were conducted at the municipality building usually in the offices of the respondents were minimal or no disruptions were experienced.
- The purpose of the interview was explained in advance to the respondents. This was also facilitated by giving a summary of what the interview is all about. In this case respondents had to be informed that the aim of the interview is to facilitate the completion of a doctoral degree. Open-ended non-threatening question can also assist to put the respondents at ease (Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2006: 299).
- Respondents were requested to put aside the required amount of time so that undivided attention is given to the interview session. This can be achieved by indicating to the interviewee how long the interview will last (Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2006: 298).
- Responses were recorded verbatim. The tape-recorder captured everything the respondents said since the interview was an unstructured one (Leedy *et al.*, 2005: 149), and the consent of the respondent was obtained first. The advantage of tape-recording is that it allows the researcher to have a full record of the interview which could be played back from time to time for clear understanding (Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2006: 298; Leedy *et al.*, 2005: 149).

Unstructured interviews are usually very time-consuming and often take a substantial amount of time (Kvake, 1996). Only five respondents, namely, Provincial Land commissioners, district managers, CPAs chairpersons and land restitution beneficiaries. Unstructured interviews were chosen because of the belief that they provide a deeper understanding of the social phenomenon where little is already known and where detailed insights are required from individual respondents. Since the post-settlement challenges facing the land restitution beneficiaries and their impact on sustainable economic development in the Vhembe district is a sensitive topic, unstructured interview was particularly appropriate because the research respondents would not prefer to talk about such issues in a group environment. Very few questions were asked since this exercise was aimed at obtaining the depth of information from respondents.

5.9 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis involves the breaking up of data into relevant categories and the naming of these categories with codes, while at the same time generating categories from data and reducing large amounts of collected data to make sense (Boeijie, 2010: 76). Complex collected data is made more manageable by organizing it into categories and interpreting it, searching for recurring patterns to ensure the importance of the information (Marshall & Rossman, 1995: 15; Bogdan & Knopp, 1992: 153). In qualitative research the collecting of data and analysis cannot be clearly separated and therefore takes place simultaneously to build a coherent interpretation of the data (McMillan & Schumacher 2001: 57). In order to analyse data, it had to be organized to make sense of it. Data analysis in qualitative research is aimed at uncovering and understanding the bigger picture to describe the phenomenon under study. Data analysis is a means to search for - patterns in data collected, recurrent behaviour, objects or a body of knowledge. The researcher used patterns, recurrent behaviour, objects and/or body of knowledge for analysis after collecting the data. The information collected from interviews and questionnaires was compared with literature review and the researcher used Statistical Package for Social Sciences version 18 (SPSS) and Thematic analysis to analyze data. Quantitative data was captured by computer and analyzed with the help of Statistical Package for Social Science 18 (SPSS).

Coding is the primary process for developing themes within the raw data by recognizing important moments in the data and encoding it before interpretation. Coding as part of constructing a grounded theory involves breaking up the data in analytically relevant ways (Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2006: 324). The interpretation of those codes can include, comparing theme frequencies, identifying theme co-occurrence and graphically displaying relationships between different themes. Coding, according to David and Sutton (2011: 339), occurs when chunks of the texts are interlinked to highlight similarities and differences between texts, therefore, the data collected was broken up into manageable themes, patterns, trends and relationship. The researcher did data reduction which Crowther and Lancaster (2009: 194) define as a process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting and transforming qualitative data by identifying and organizing data into clear patterns. The findings were re-checked with some of the participants to gauge whether the interpretations are true or not and in order to fine-tune these to better express reality or solutions.

Thematic analysis was used for the purpose of analysing data collected through unstructured interviews and focused on examining themes within data. Thematic analysis for the qualitative analysis of the data entail: transcribing data verbatim, cutting, comparing, sorting, coding, clustering and saving data in terms of relevance to one or more of the research themes. Thematic analysis is also related to phenomenology as it focuses on human experience, subjectively (Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2006: 562). The perceptions, feelings and experiences of the respondents with regard to the challenges experienced by the land restitution beneficiaries were the focus of the study, thus, respondents were allowed to discuss the topic in their own words.

The interviews were read several times to gain a thorough sense of everything in order to facilitate the interpretation of smaller units of data. The text segments were compared and contrasted to identify context-bearing data segments, and naming of classifying categories (McMillan & Schumacher 2001: 464). Each category was recognized by a words or phrases that describe the essence of the category; these are then coded for the categories. The goal was to generate a set of categories that present a realistic reconstruction of the collected data.

Data was analyzed inductively to allow categories and patterns to emerge from the data culminating in sets of smaller data that are more workable. A comparative method was used to compare one unit of information with another in search of recurring regularities and patterns in the data to assign information into categories. The use of the inductive process assisted the researcher to determine links between categories in order to form tentative hypothesis leading to the development of the theory (Merriam 1998:180-192). The ultimate goal of qualitative research is to make general statements about relationship among categories by discovering patterns in the data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001: 476). The process of searching for patterns lead to an in-depth analysis to understand the post-settlement challenges faced by land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe district. An analysis of the performance of projects after the land was restored to the beneficiaries and their present status was conducted to determine changes in farming activities and the contribution of the projects to the livelihoods of the land reform beneficiaries.

5.9.1 Data analysis in phase 1 and 2

After data was collected from closed-ended questionnaire, it was organized and analyzed. Analysis of closed-ended questions was performed by a computer programme called Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) and data was analyzed by using descriptive statistics. Frequency tables were drawn and from these, the data was presented in bar graphs. Analysis, presentation and discussion of the findings of phase 2 are later presented.

Data collected by closed-ended questionnaire were compared to those collected through the use of unstructured interviews in order to support analysis and findings. This process called “triangulation” between qualitative and quantitative data was employed to confirm and validate the findings. The findings were then used in making informed conclusions.

5.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

The main purpose of research ethics is to ensure that the welfare of research participants is taken into account (Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2006: 61). In a research of this nature where human beings are the focus of investigation, special attention must be paid to issues which concern ethics and, although, a research of this nature cannot be expected to cause undue psychological and emotional harm to research participants, due attention was given to ethical issues. Babbie (2007: 27) states that the fundamental rule of social research is that it must bring no harm to research subjects. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2001) in Watkins (2008: 69), most ethical issues fall into one of the following categories: protection from harm to the research participants, informed consent, social value, right to privacy, permission to conduct a research, and honesty with professional colleagues. The next section explains important ethical issues which were attended to in the research.

For this study, official permission was obtained from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform and the proposed study was discussed with the relevant managers.

5.10.1 Explanation of procedure

The procedure regarding interviews that was conducted in a place where the participants felt comfortable was explained, and the whole interview session was recorded; although some notes were also being taken. The participants were informed about the purpose of the research by giving them a clear statement as to why the data was going to be collected and what it would be used for. The participants were further informed that there were no incentives for participation and that the findings of the research would be shared with the Department of Rural

Development and Land Reform; participants were told they may request a copy once the thesis has been accepted by the University of Venda.

5.10.2 Permission to conduct the research

Permission was sought from the management of the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, Department of Agriculture, the Department of Economic Development and the Department of Water Affairs to administer a questionnaire and conduct interviews with the officials. Permission was also sought from the management of the CPAs for interviews with their chairpersons and beneficiaries and to administer questionnaires to the secretaries on the challenges facing their projects. For documentary reviews, permission was requested from responsible people to view the documents. The purpose for obtaining permission to conduct a research was to ensure that research participants were aware of the importance of participating in the research project.

5.10.3 Voluntary participation

The participants were informed about participation, which was completely voluntary; no one was forced to participate (Babbie, 2008: 67). The participants were told that they have a right to refuse to participate or withdraw from participating any time if they felt that they were no longer comfortable. The respondents felt free to participate during the filling in of questionnaires and not at any stage did they feel intimidated or were being forced to respond in a particular direction.

Participants were protected from harm which included emotional or psychological distress and also physical harm. Research participants should never be harmed even if they have volunteered for the study. The research participants were not to be exposed to undue physical and emotional harm in the form of unusual stress, embarrassment and or loss of self-esteem (Leedy *et al.*, 2005: 101).

5.10.4 Informed consent

Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (2006: 183) defined “informed consent” as an ethical principle whereby research participants should be told enough about a piece of research to be able to make a decision about whether to participate in it or not. The participants were informed about the purpose of the study and their right to decline to participate and to withdraw from the research even if participation has begun. The individual participants were requested to give

their written consent to participate. The participants were also given enough time to consider their participation in the research, and once they agreed to participate, they signed the agreement.

5.10.5 Respect for privacy

According to David and Sutton (2011: 55), people who participate in a research have the right to expect that their data will never be made public in a way that would permit their identification unless they agree to such publication. The right to privacy was respected by interviewing participants individually in their offices or at a place convenient to them and allowing them to discuss issues that they felt comfortable with. The names of the participants were not made public, and the institutions that they come from were not disclosed.

Leedy *et al.*, (2005: 102) cautions that a research study should respect the right to privacy of the research participants, hence, the data from research participants should always be confidential. Privacy is assured when the public cannot identify a given response with a given respondent (Babbie, 1983: 475). In order to guarantee anonymity of the respondents, their names would not be disclosed. This assurance also motivated research respondents to be more truthful when filling in the questionnaires.

5.10.6 Confidentiality

David and Sutton (2011: 211) state that confidentiality refers to ensuring that no-one outside the research team will be able to identify the participants in the study. Data collected was handled and managed in a professional manner where the researcher stored all data and names of subjects in a database in his laptop, and a security pin was created to avoid risks of unauthorized access to data. The audio-recorded information was kept at a safe place where only the researcher has access. The respondents' responses remained confidential, and their names remained anonymous.

5.10.7 The right to maintain self-respect and dignity

Royse (2008: 58) stated that respect is protecting the autonomy of all persons and treating them with courtesy. The participants were treated with respect and dignity throughout the research, and if they felt that they are no more interested in participating, they were welcome to withdraw. Respondents were not compelled to answer any question they consider sensitive or they were not comfortable with.

5.10.8 Social value

According to Terre Blanche *et al.*, (2006: 69) a research study should be conducted to address issues that are of value to the society and who the beneficiaries of the research will be. Beneficiaries of this research included the society and research participants.

5.10.9 Trustworthy and accuracy

In order to secure trustworthiness, reliability and validity of the data, and to ensure balanced, objectivity and unbiased results, appointed research assistants facilitated the completion and collection process of the questionnaires. For this study, accuracy was double checked, purposefully, in about ten to fifteen percent of the entered data, to ensure that no coding errors had occurred.

5.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the research design in details. The research methodologies followed when investigating the Post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe district were presented. The rationale of using the mixed methodologies (qualitative and quantitative approaches) during the research was clearly articulated. Research techniques applied during this study were also explained. The chapter discussed the research design, study area, population of the study, sampling method and size, data collection instruments, pilot study and data analysis methods as well as ethical considerations. In the next chapter, data presentation, interpretation and analysis are presented in detail.

CHAPTER 6

DATA PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the research design of the empirical investigation and the research methodologies that were followed; it also indicated the structure and procedures that were followed to answer the study questions in the investigation of post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District. The previous chapter paved a way with regard to how collected data would be analysed using various steps as outlined in this section. The collected data was analyzed thematically and descriptively to establish the impact of post settlement challenges faced by land restitution beneficiaries.

The analysed information or data is, thereby, presented in this section. Firstly, the demographic variables of the participants are presented followed by post-settlement challenges, impact of the post-settlement challenges and the support given to the land restitution beneficiaries by different stakeholders. This chapter, therefore, summarizes the critical issues that emerged from this study, particularly, the challenges of post-settlement, and offers recommendations for policy reform.

6.2 DATA PRESENTATION

Data was collected in two ways, namely, through unstructured interviews and structured questionnaires. The two techniques of collecting data were employed because in reality they supported each other. After analysing of data had been completed, the data was evaluated against the basic issue in the study, which is “Post-settlement challenges facing land restitution beneficiaries and their impact on sustainable economic development in the Vhembe district”. In the case of the questionnaires, it is important to note that the research participants who were purposefully selected were required to respond to the same types of questions. The response to the questionnaire items are presented in a graphical tabular form and are followed by a brief synthesis of the findings of each item. In the unstructured interviews, the items are presented in a narrative form and are followed by a brief synthesis of the findings of the items and the detailed findings are discussed in the proceeding sections. The interview questions were basically the same, although, the interviewer was free to intervene in case the respondent was

deviating from the main question or when he had to make a follow-up question for clarity. Permission to conduct research was a challenge as there was a delay in response to the request and it delayed the research project. Permission was finally granted after numerous reminders.

6.3 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

The analysis of data was conducted in two phases - the first and the second. Data collection was conducted qualitatively through the use of unstructured interviews and quantitatively by structured questionnaire.

6.3.1 Phase 1: Data analysis collected using a questionnaire during the first phase

The first phase involved analysis of data collected through structured questionnaire and the information is presented in a graphical tabular format with frequencies and percentages followed by a brief synthesis. The questionnaire was designed in such a way that the first section focused on the demographic variables of the respondents while the second section deals with the challenges facing the land restitution beneficiaries. The third section focused on assessing the impact of the land restitution challenges on sustainable economic development of the beneficiaries and the fourth section focused on the strategies that can be used to address the challenges facing the land restitution beneficiaries. All the sections were closely analysed focusing on the average scores that came to the fore for each section and per each item. In order to enhance readability of the information provided, tables and graphs are used. In each section information was first provided in a tabular form and thereafter detailed information was given through the bar graphs.

6.3.1.1 Demographic variables of respondents

Participants were asked to complete their demographic information on items such as gender, age, and level of education. The information from the participants that relates to the demographics was collected and described using graphs and tables.

6.3.1.1.1 GENDER OF THE RESPONDENTS

TABLE 6.1 AND FIGURE 6.1 DISTRIBUTIONS IN SAMPLE PER GENDER

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	13	62
Female	08	32
Total	21	100

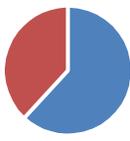


Table 6.1 shows the gender composition of the respondents. The majority, 62% (13) of the respondents were males and females comprised the remaining percentage of 38% (8). Historical and socially, land ownership has always reflected patriarchal organization of the community. Traditional and in a patriarchal societies, men have the right to own the means of production and also to run businesses as opposed to the females. The results could be a reflection of past practices as land restitution seeks to restore land to the previously-disposed individuals, therefore, this could mean that the land has been restored following the old patriarchal system which considers males as the direct inheritors of their forefathers' belongings. This practice is still common in many areas around the world and more visible in the developing world, particularly in the rural communities.

6.3.1.1.2 Age of the respondents

Table 6.2 and Figure 6. 2 distributions in sample per age

Age	Frequency	Percentage
32-38	05	23.8
39-45	10	47.6
46-51	04	19.0
52 and above	02	9.5
Total	21	100

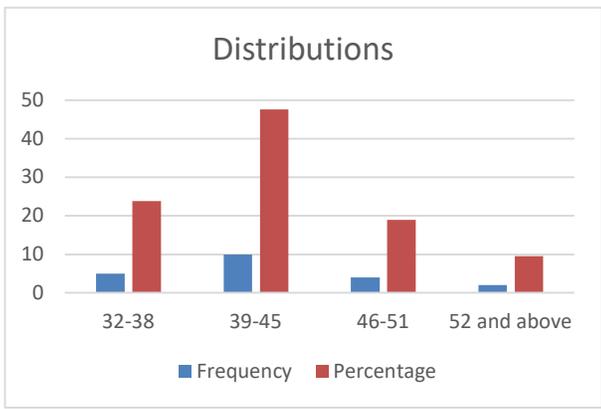


Table 6. 2 above shows the age groups for the participants. Most of the participants or the land restitution beneficiaries surveyed were between 39 to 45 years of age (10%) and also there was a significant number of participants who were between 32 to 38 years of age. As depicted in Figure 2, the least represented age was between 52 to 58 years of age. The results show that the middle-aged people are the largest recipients of the land restitution. This is a true reflection of realities, as it can be observed that the surveyed beneficiaries are between the ages of 32 to 51 years. Surveyed land restitution beneficiaries are all in the legal working age and economically active. Economically active population according to Labour Relations Act of 1996 is between 16 to 64 years of age and these are considered economically active based on their ability to contribute effectively and efficiently to the economy and general development. This implies that, these land restitution beneficiaries can contribute effectively and efficiently to the running and operation of their businesses, in this case agriculture.

6.3.1.1.3 ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS OF THE RESPONDENTS

TABLE 6.3 AND FIGURE 6. 3

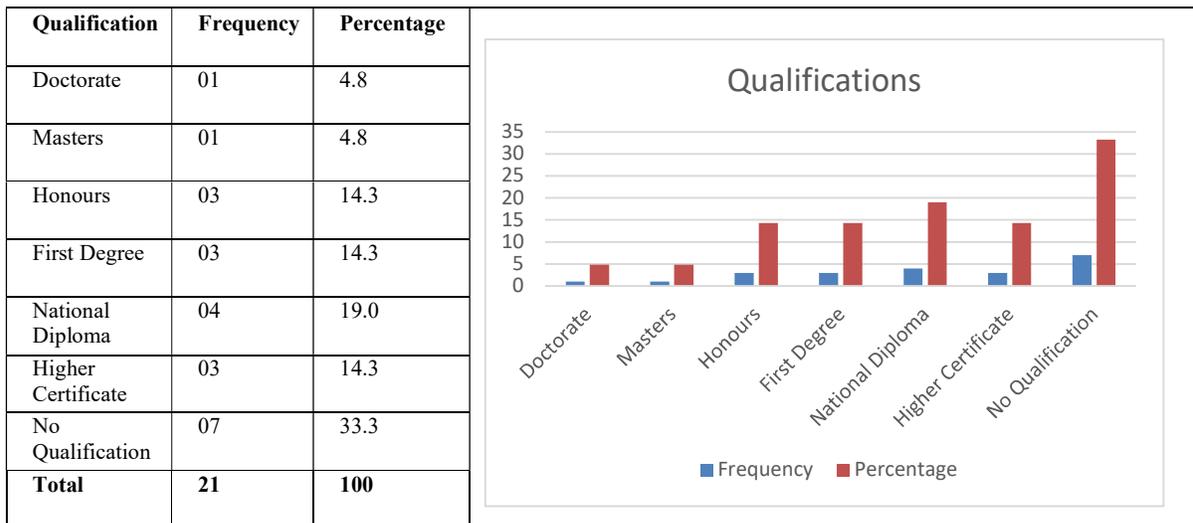


Table 6.3 Distribution in sample per qualifications

The levels of education of the respondents are well indicated in Figure 6.3. The vast majority of respondents do not have any qualification and this is revealed by 07 respondents who constituted 33.3% of the total sample. Only 01 respondent who constituted 4.8% of the total sample has a Doctoral degree. Only 01 respondent who constituted 4.8% of the total sample has a Master’s degree; 3 respondents in the study who constituted 14.3% had a first degree,

another 03 who constituted 14.3% have higher certificate, and another 03 who participated in the study have Honours degrees. 04 respondents who constituted 19% participated in the study and they have a national diploma. A conclusion can be drawn that the majority of the participant who constituted 66.7% were educationally qualified for leadership and management positions, which is encouraging.

6.3.1.1.4 Distribution in sample per position in the organization or institution

Table 6.4 and Figure 6.4

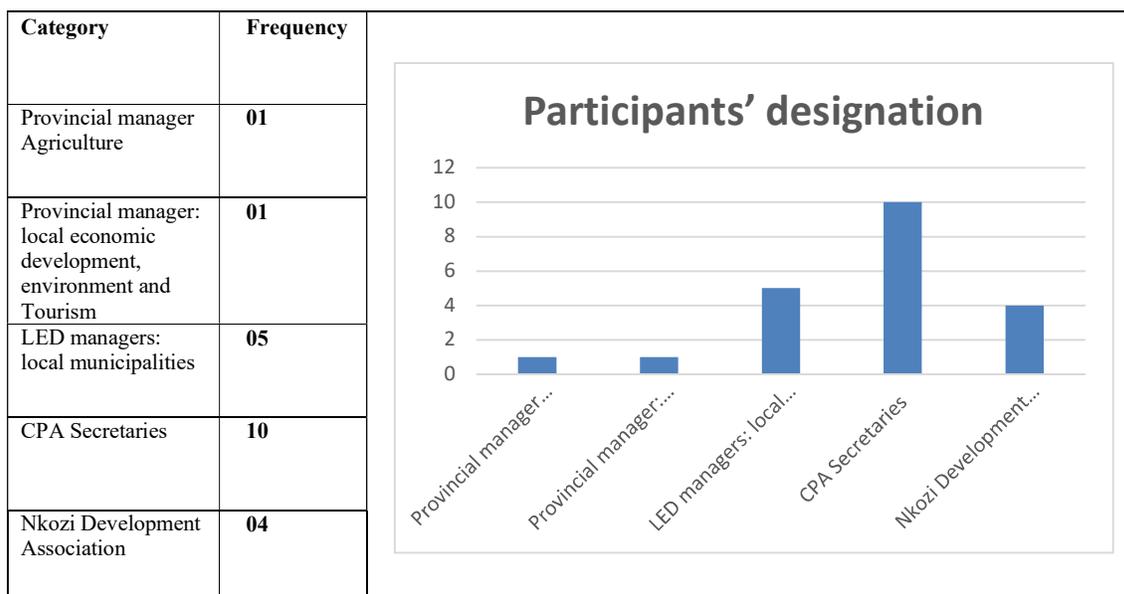
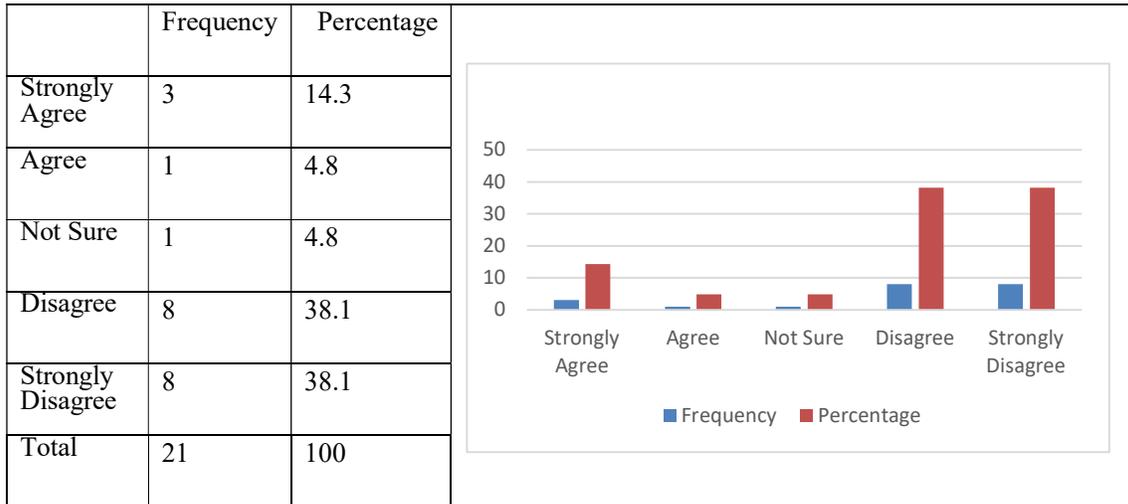


Table 6.4 shows the participants' designation. As shown, the majority of the participants were local economic development managers at 42% (9), followed by a significant number of CPA secretaries at 23.8% (5). There was only one provincial manager who participated in the survey.

6.4 POST-SETTLEMENT CHALLENGES

6.4.1 The Department of Rural development and Land Reform assists the beneficiaries of land restitution

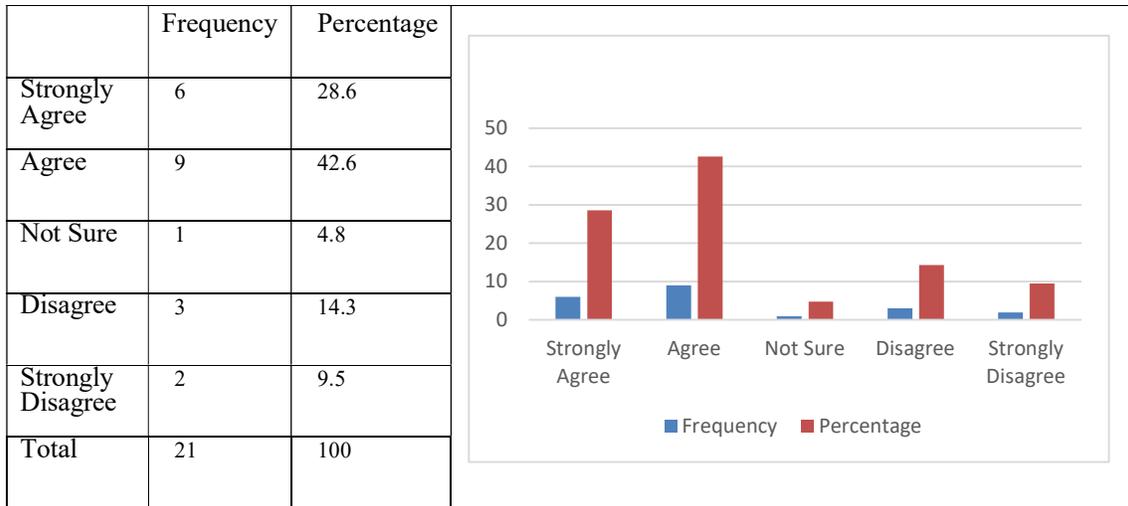
Table 6.5 and Figure 6.5



76.2% of the respondents *disagreed* that the department of land reform and rural development assists the beneficiaries of land restitution. Only 19.1% of the total sample *agreed* with the statement meaning that they believe that the department of land reform and rural development supports the beneficiaries of land reform. It should also be noted that 4.8% of the total sample neither *agreed nor disagreed*. It is, therefore, suggesting that lack of support from the Department of Land Reform and Rural Development is a challenge to the land restitution beneficiaries and it is impacting them negatively. This is consistent with the concerns of Manenzhe (2007:04) who found that there is a lack of co-ordination of government support to new landowners.

6.4.2 The state's participation is visible

Table 6.6 and Figure 6.6



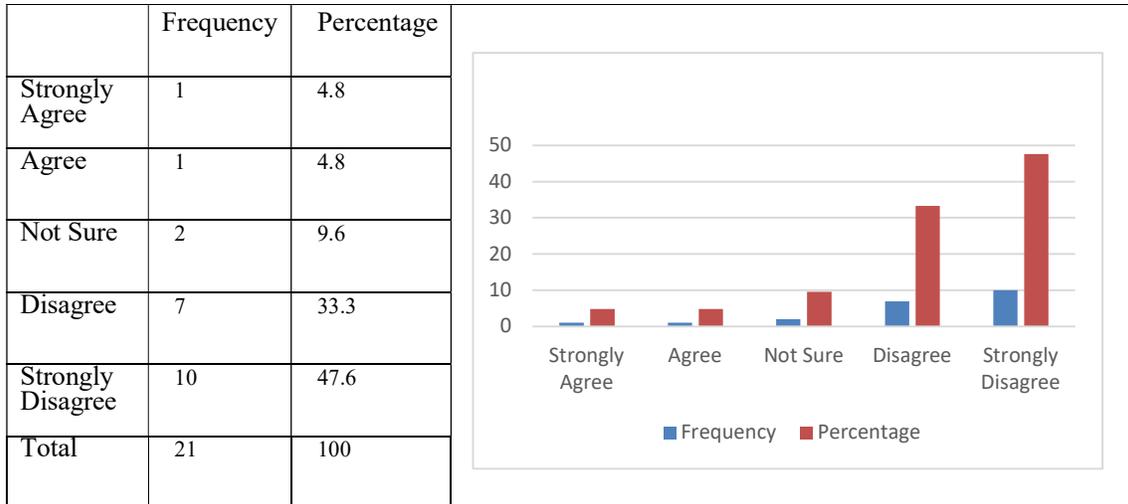
Of the respondents, 15 who constituted 71.2% of the total sample *agreed* that indeed the state's participation is visible in terms of assisting the land restitution beneficiaries. This confirmed the view that the national government through the Department of Land Reform and Rural Development is committed to assisting the disadvantaged communities who were robbed of their land, to have their land back and assist them in working the land for job creation and poverty eradication.

One respondent who constituted 4.8% of the total sample *neither agreed nor disagreed* to the statement. Another few respondents (23.8%) *disagreed* that there is a visible state participation in the issues of assisting the beneficiaries of land restitution dealing with the day-to-day challenges they experience, relating to land restitution and sustainability of their projects. Cloete (1991:57) states that the government as an individual entity or individuals who have been appointed or elected should see to it that laws passed are implemented, and that the government needs to be visible in implementing policies to ensure compliance with policies and procedures.

It is in the interest of the beneficiaries of the land restitution to know how the state is conducting its affairs. Where participation is prevalent the principles of openness and transparency should be practised. It was revealed through these results that the state participation is visible and it does not form part of challenges facing land restitution beneficiaries.

6.4.3 The executive committee is transparent

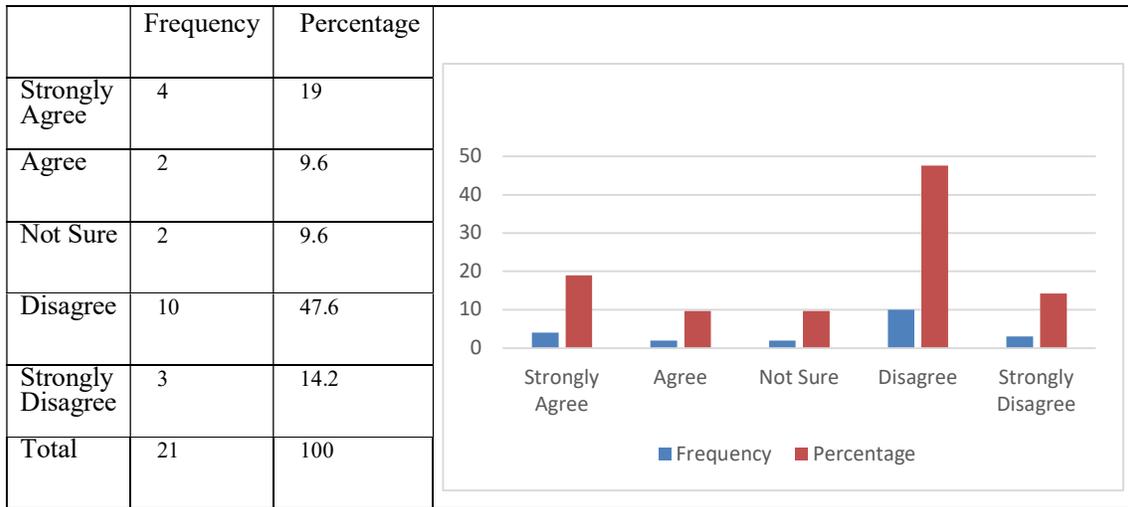
Table 6.7 and Figure 6.7



Two respondents who constituted 9.6% of the respondents *agreed* that the executive committee is transparent; it is in the interest of the beneficiaries of the land restitution to know how the executive committee is conducting its affairs. Where transparency is prevalent the principles of openness and transparency which are pillars of good governance are not compromised; 9.6% of the total sample was *not sure* whether the executive committee was transparent on its day-to-day running of the inherited projects and management of finances. It should be noted that 80.9% of the total sample *disagreed* with the statement meaning that the executive committee is not transparent in its operation. This is consistent with what Rugege (2014:201) calls “unaccountable leadership structures” which hamper development in restitution projects.

6.4.4 The Communal Property Association manages well

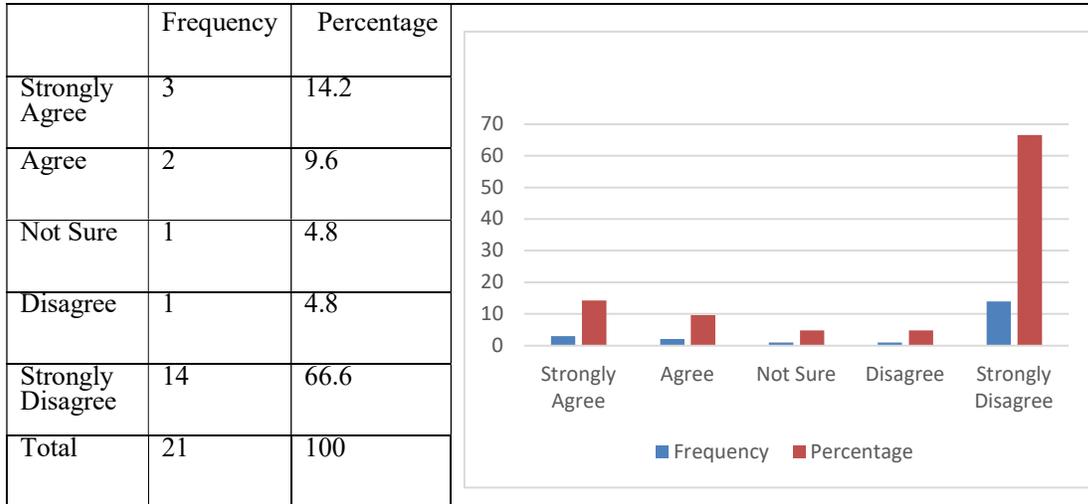
Table 6.8 and Figure 6.8



Only 6 respondents who constituted 28.6% agree that the CPAs manage well. Only 2 respondents who constituted 9.6% of the total sample *neither agreed nor disagreed* with the statement while 13 respondents who constituted 61.8% *disagreed* that the CPAs manage well. Cooper (2006:137) states that that officials accept money and other valuables in exchange for special favours while performing their normal official duties. In support, Mle (2012:29) states that bribery is rife and members of the public are shocked when officials who occupy positions of trust are implicated in a scandal. It was revealed through these results that management and leadership within the CPAs was indeed a challenge which required immediate attention. This is consistent with Manenzhe *et al.*, (2007: 03) who assert that most of the CPAs are dysfunctional because of the traditional leadership taking over the authority of community and its lack of ability to govern; all these result in conflicts. This implies that there is a problem of management as highlighted by Ramutsindela (2016:31) when he states that the insufficient government support following CPAs establishment make them ineffective and dysfunctional.

6.4.5 The Communal Property Association holds regular meetings with the beneficiaries

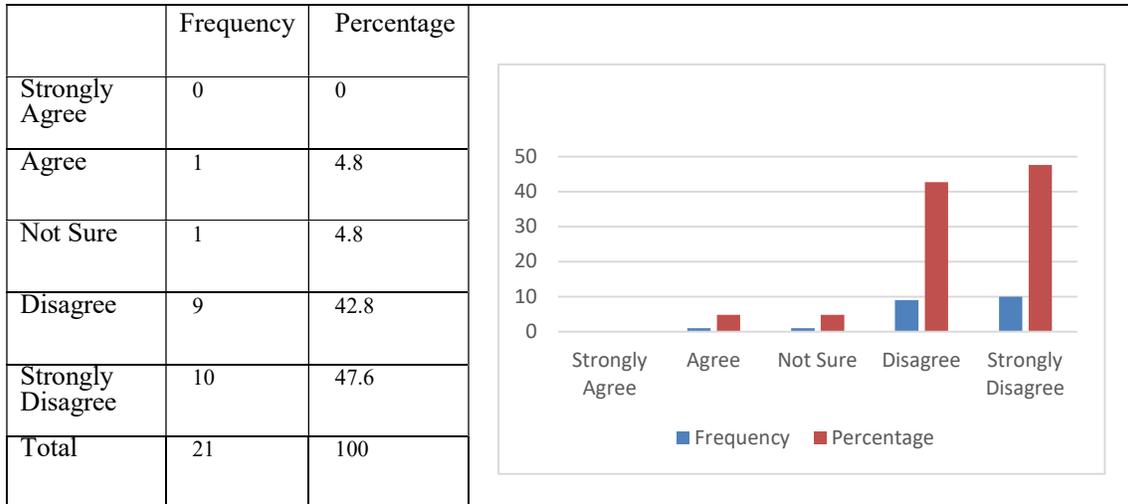
Table 6.9 and Figure 6.9



Respondents who constituted 71.4%, 15, of the total sample *disagreed* that the CPAs hold regular meetings with the beneficiaries. Only 1 respondent who constituted 4.8% *neither agreed nor disagreed* with the statement; 5 respondents who constituted 23.8% *agreed* that the CPAs hold meetings with the beneficiaries. This indicated that the majority of the respondents *disagreed* that indeed that the CPAs did hold regular meetings with the beneficiaries. This is an issue of concern which needs an immediate attention as it is in regular meetings that strategic decisions are taken for sustainable economic development. This is consistent with what Mandiwana(2014) found, that in some land reform projects, stakeholders failed to attend meetings due to different reasons, hence, planning and implementation are negatively affected.

6.4.6 There is good communication amongst the stakeholders

Table 6.10 and Figure 6.10

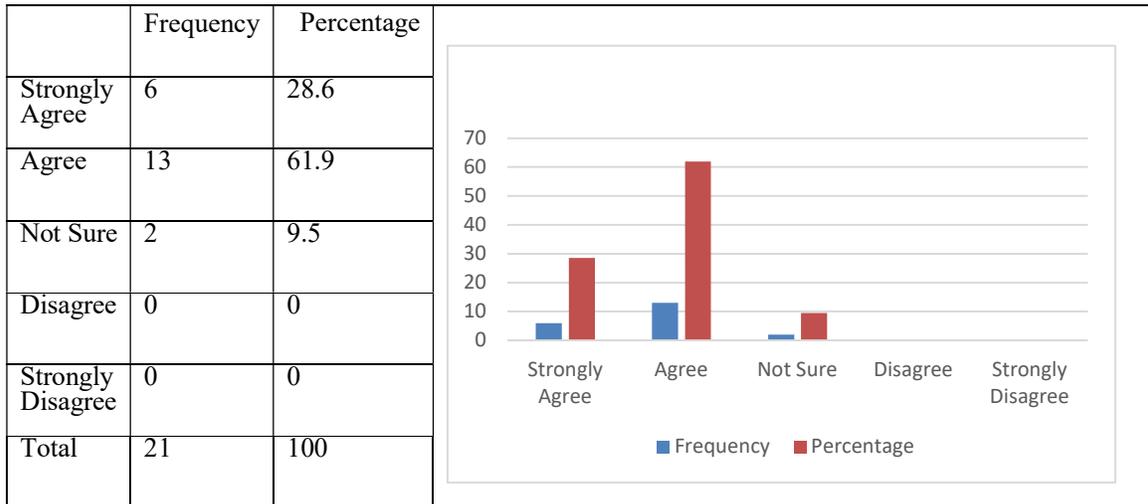


None of the respondents *strongly agreed* that there is good communication amongst the stakeholders. Only 1 respondent who constituted 4.8% agreed that there is good communication amongst the stakeholders; 1 respondent who constituted 4.8% *neither agreed nor disagreed* with the statement; 19 respondents who constituted 90.4% *disagreed* that there is good communication amongst the stakeholders. Lack of good communication amongst the stakeholders, results in confusion and frustrations amongst the stakeholders and policies that need to be interpreted and implemented will not filter down well to the stakeholders; this compromises economic development.

6.5 IMPACT OF POST-SETTLEMENT CHALLENGES

Table 6.11 and Figure 6.11

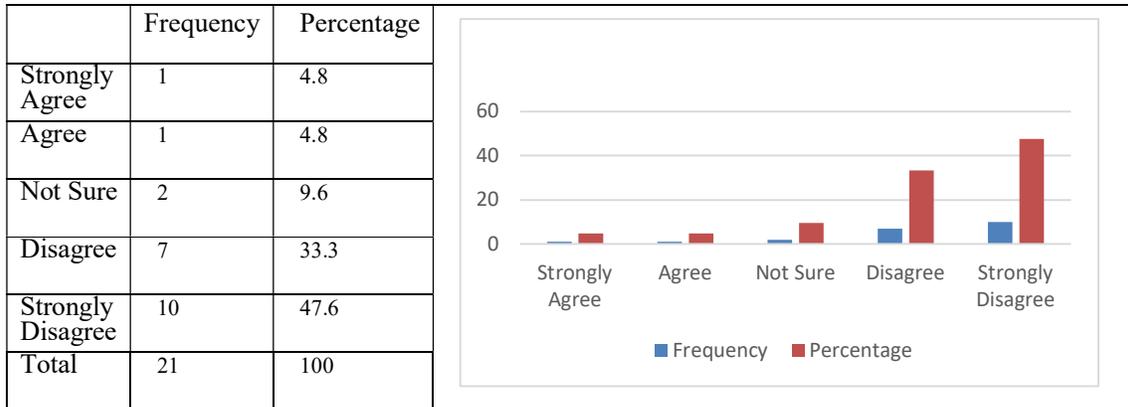
6.5.1 Land restitution helps in eradicating poverty



A response rate of 90.5% *agreed* to the statement that land restitution helps in eradicating poverty. It should be noted that only 2 respondents who constituted 9.5% of the total sample *did not agree* that land restitution helps in eradicating poverty. Although it can be argued that land restitution on its own cannot have the capacity to eradicate poverty but the above results showed that land restitution helps eradicate poverty. This is consistent with Dlamini (2016:72) who found that land restitution contributes to increased equity, efficiency, growth, as well as helping with poverty reduction.

6.5.2 Land restitution unites all the stakeholders

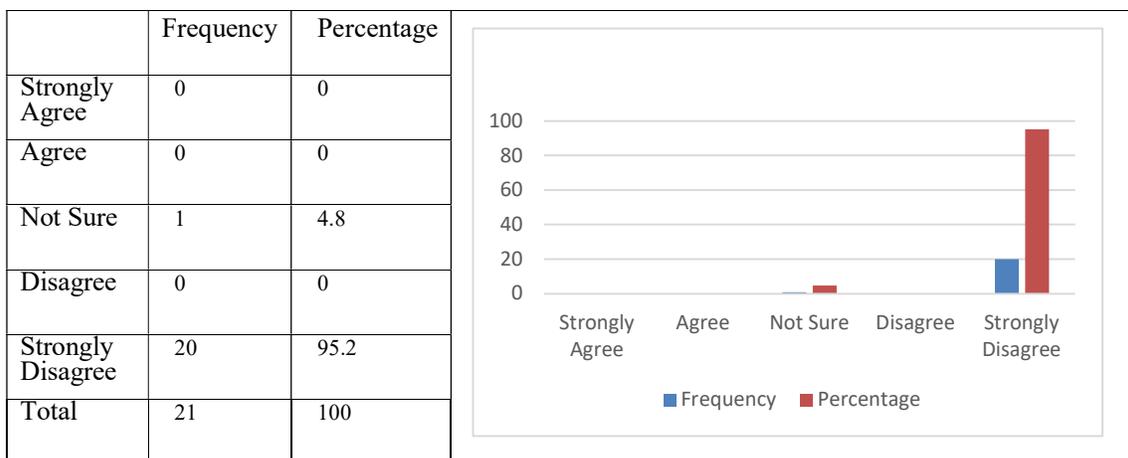
Table 6.12 and Figure 6.12



Only 2 respondents who constitute 9.6% of the total sample *agreed* that land restitution unites all the stakeholders; 2 respondents who constitute 9.6% *neither agreed nor disagreed* with the statement; 17 respondents who constitute 80.95% of the total sample *disagreed* with the statement and this may be attributed to the fact that there is no good communication amongst the stakeholders and once there is confusion and frustrations the stakeholders end up not being united. This is consistent with Andrew (2003) who found that there are weak institutional capacity and conflicts among the beneficiaries.

6.5.3 The implementation of laws, policies and strategies are easy to understand

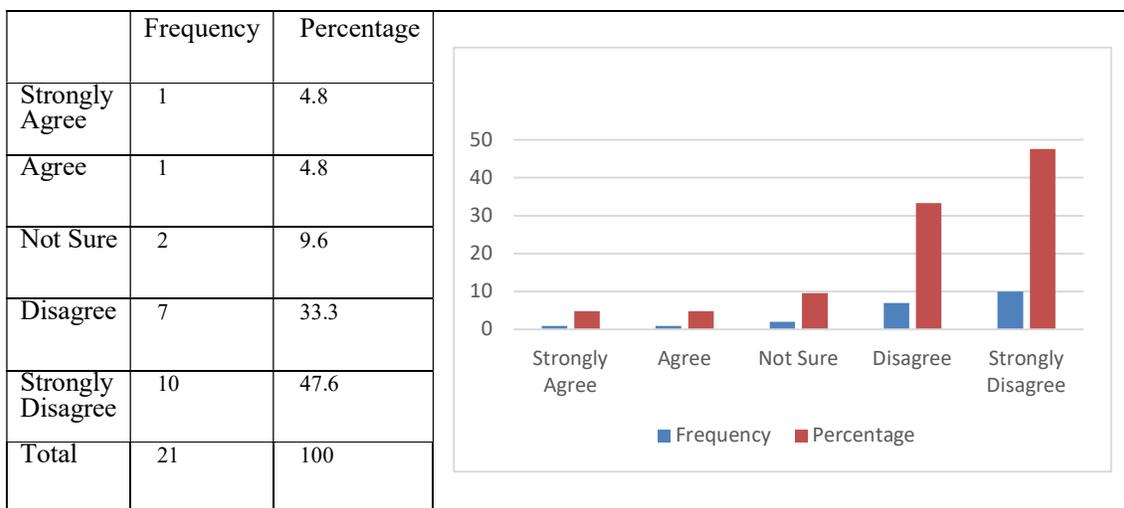
Table 6.13 and Figure 6.13



None of the respondents *agreed* that the implementation of laws, policies and strategies are easy to understand. Only 1 respondent *neither agreed nor disagreed* with the statement; 20 respondents who constituted 95.2% of the total sample *strongly disagreed* that the implementation of laws, policies and strategies are easy to understand. This is consistent with the argument of Masoka (2014:02) who found that the state policies are problematic from a number of perspectives, and they have fallen short of their delivery targets. This may be attributed to different statements uttered by different political organization leaders, some of whom are in parliament; these include members of the same political organizations who gave different views on the issue of land restitution laws, policies and strategies. Information is a powerful tool that any beneficiary can use in order to exercise his/her right with regard to good governance and interpretation of laws, policies and strategies. Providing information and knowledge should be an active continuous process to ensure that it is easily and readily available to the previously-disadvantaged people.

6.5 4 The land restitution projects are sustainable

Table 6.14 and Figure 6.14

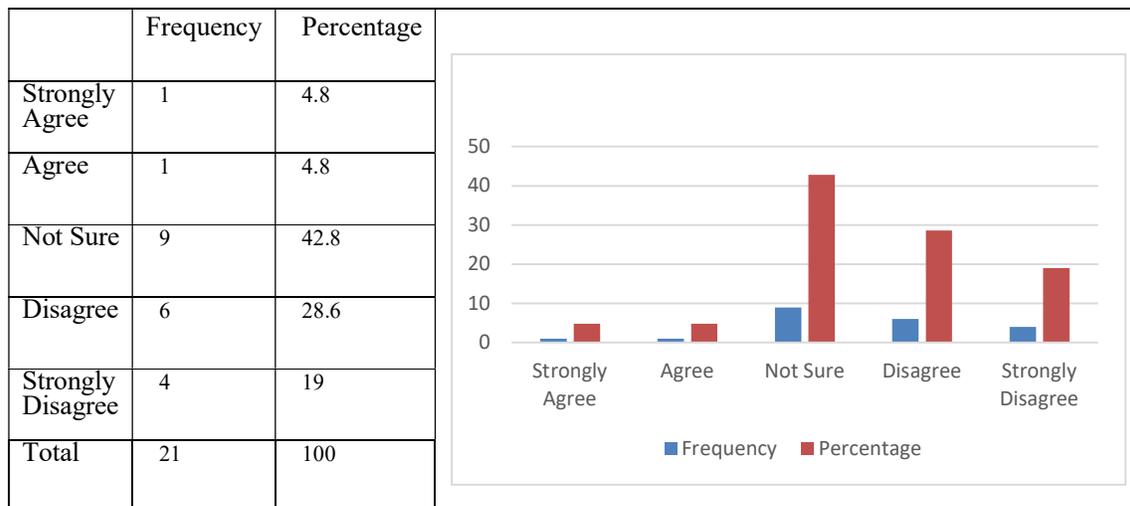


Sustainability is derived from increased local growth, and where rural people care about success and are able to access resources to keep their strategies going. According to the World Commission on Environment and Development (1987) as cited in Treurnicht (2008:390), sustainable development is a development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Repetto (1986:15) sees sustainable development as a development strategy that manages all assets, natural resources

and human resources, as well as financial and physical assets for increasing long-term wealth and well-being. Only 2 respondents who constituted 9.6% *agreed* that the land restitution projects are sustainable; 2 respondents who constituted 9.6% of the total sample *neither agreed nor disagreed* with the statement; 17 respondents who constituted 80.9% of the total sample *disagreed* that the land restitution projects are sustainable. Many projects have basically closed down, and many others appear to have shrunk (Aliber *et al.*, 2013:55). According to Chetty (2019:09) a vast number of restitution projects are deemed to have failed or stagnated or declined in performance.

6.5.5 The land restitution process is time-bound

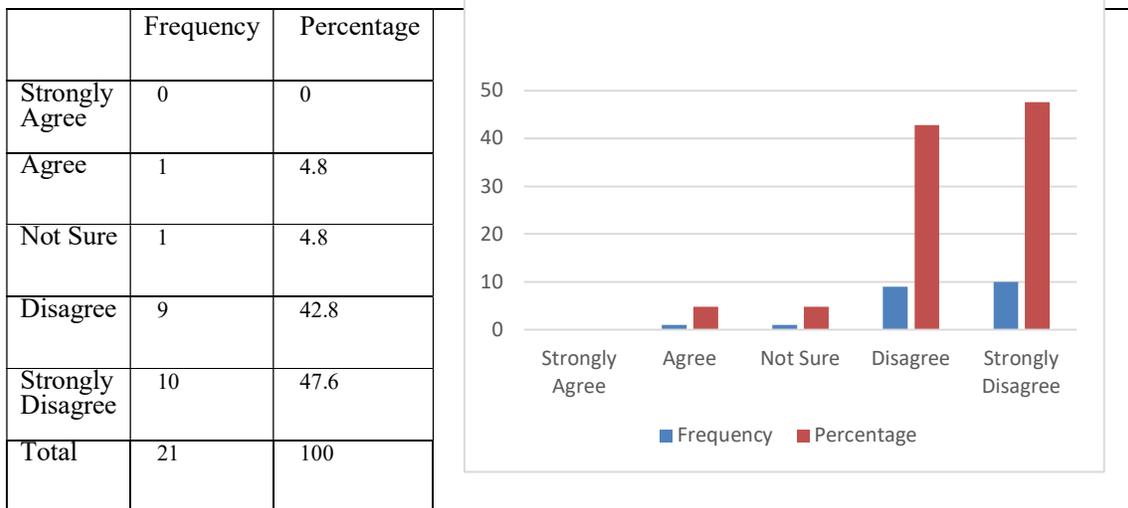
Table 6.15 and Figure 6.15



Two respondents who constituted 9.6% *agreed* that land restitution is time-bound; 9 people who constituted 42.8% *neither agreed nor disagreed* with the statement; 10 respondents who constituted 47.6 % *disagreed* with the statement. This may be attributed to the delay and slow pace of land reform process. According to Lahiff (2008:01), the land question, until the present day, remains one of the key challenges to post-apartheid South Africa; the country has been struggling with the issue of land since 1913.

6.5.6 Government departments have strong capacity to deal with challenges

Table 6.16 and Figure 6.16

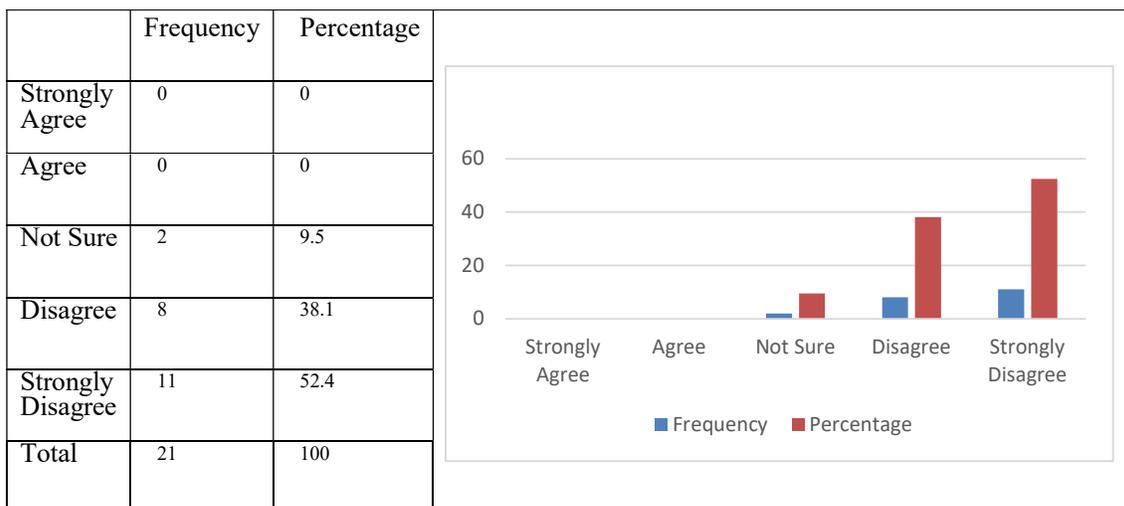


According to Lahiff (2001:03) in Manenzhe (2007:04) there is no consistent co-ordination of government support to new landowners, therefore, provision of needed post-restoration support by the Government remains a critical question in South African land reform. Only 1 respondent who constituted 4.8% of the total sample *agreed* that Government departments have strong capacity to deal with challenges; 1 respondent who constituted 4.8% *neither agreed nor disagreed* with the statement; 19 respondents who constituted 90.4% of the total sample *disagreed* that the government departments have got strong capacity to deal with the challenges confronting land restitution beneficiaries.

6.6 THE INTERVENTION STRATEGIES

6.6.1 There are enough intervention strategies to bring about economic development

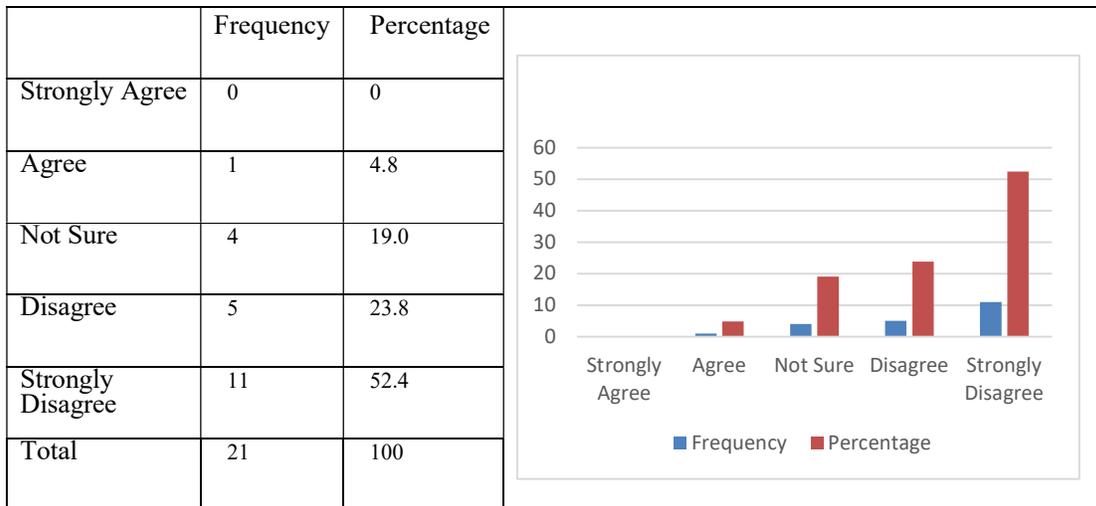
Table 6.17 and Figure 6.17



The Table above indicated that the response rate of 19 respondents who constituted 90.5% of the total sample *disagreed* that there are enough intervention strategies which can bring about economic development. This confirms that where the strategies are not well researched and defined, the beneficiaries will consider them null and void, especially, if they do not work towards sustainable economic development. It should also be noted that 2 respondents who constituted only 9.5% of the total sample *neither agreed nor agreed* with the statement.

6.6.2 The intervention strategies lead to sustainable land restitution projects

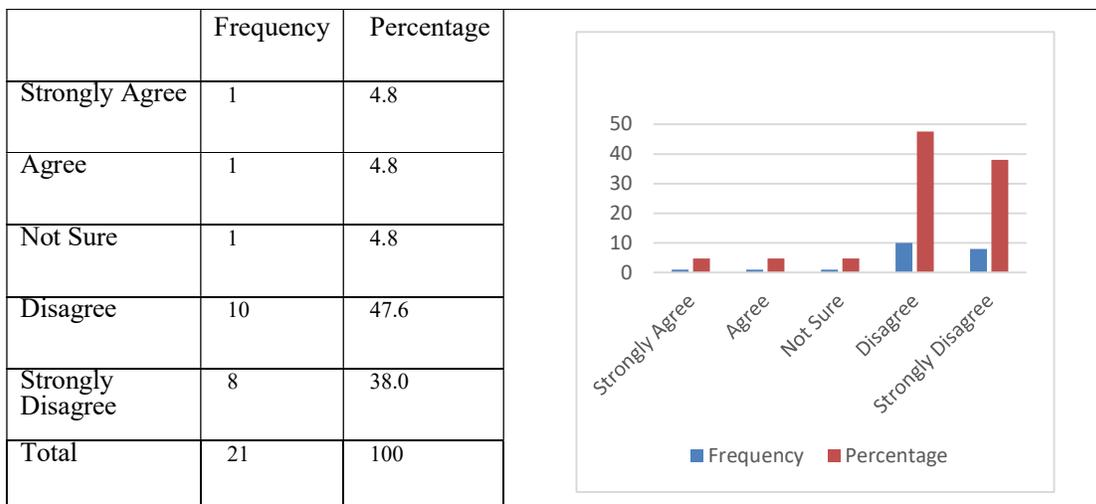
Table 6.18 and Figure 6.18



Only 1 respondent who constituted 4.8% *agreed* that the intervention strategies lead to sustainable land restitution projects. On the other hand, 76.2% of the total respondents *disagreed* that intervention strategies lead to giving of life to the inherited land restitution projects; 4 of the total sample respondents who constituted 19.0% *neither agreed nor disagreed* with the statement. This indicated that the majority of the respondents *disagree* that intervention strategies lead to sustainable economic development.

6.6.3 The intervention strategies prevent conflicts amongst the beneficiaries

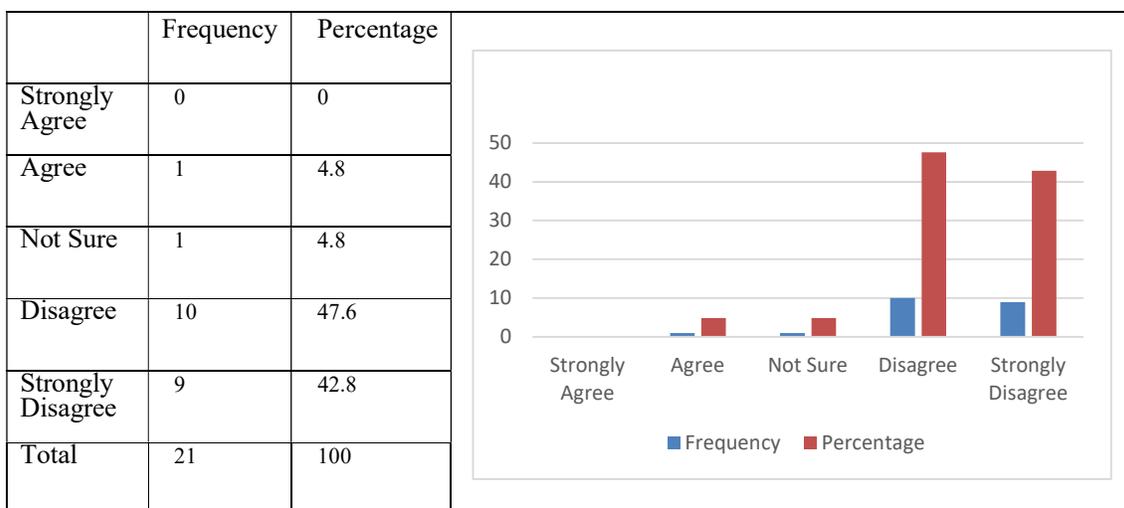
Table 6.19 and Figure 6.19



With regard to intervention strategies, 18 participants who constituted 85.6% *disagreed* that intervention strategies prevent conflicts amongst the beneficiaries, while 9.6% which constituted 2 respondents *agreed* that intervention strategies prevent conflict amongst the beneficiaries. One respondent at the percentage of 4.8 was *not sure*.

6.6.4 The municipalities include the issues of land reform in their idps for sustainable economic development

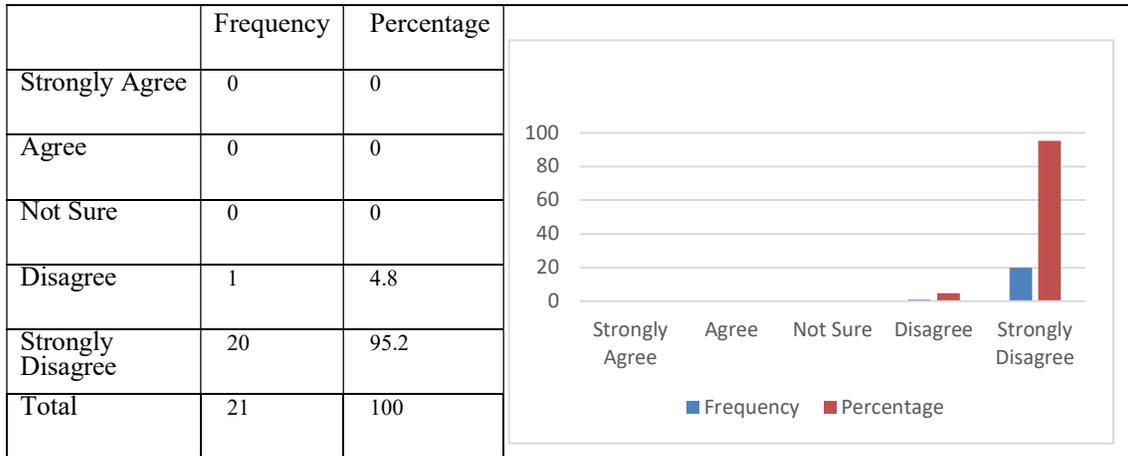
Table 6.20 and Figure 6.20



Many respondents, 19, at 90.4% *disagreed* with the statement that the municipalities include the issues of land reform in their IDPs for sustainable economic development, and 1 at 4.8% respondents *agreed* with the idea. On the other hand, 1 respondent at a total of 4.8% was *not sure* whether the municipalities include the issues of land reform in their IDPs for sustainable economic development. From the researcher's point of view, it can be suggested that the municipalities should include the issue of land reform in their IDPs so that the lives of the beneficiaries should become better since municipalities' primary role is to offer services to the communities and improve their lives through providing jobs and eradicating poverty.

6.6.5 There are enough strategies which cover all the stages of restitution

Table 6.21 and Figure 6.21



Respondents, 21, who constituted 100% of all the participants *disagreed* that there are enough strategies to cover all the stages of restitution. There was no single respondent who agree with the statement that there are enough strategies which cover all the stages of land restitution. According to the researcher there is no one size fits all; this means that strategies are dependent on different things, like the geographical situation and the behaviour of the beneficiaries. Lahiff (200:48) states that for land reform to meet its wider objectives, new ways of transferring land on a substantial scale will have to be found where support service will be provided to a much wider class of landowners.

6.6.6 Intervention strategies are communicated timeously to the land restitution beneficiaries Table 6.22 and Figure 6.22

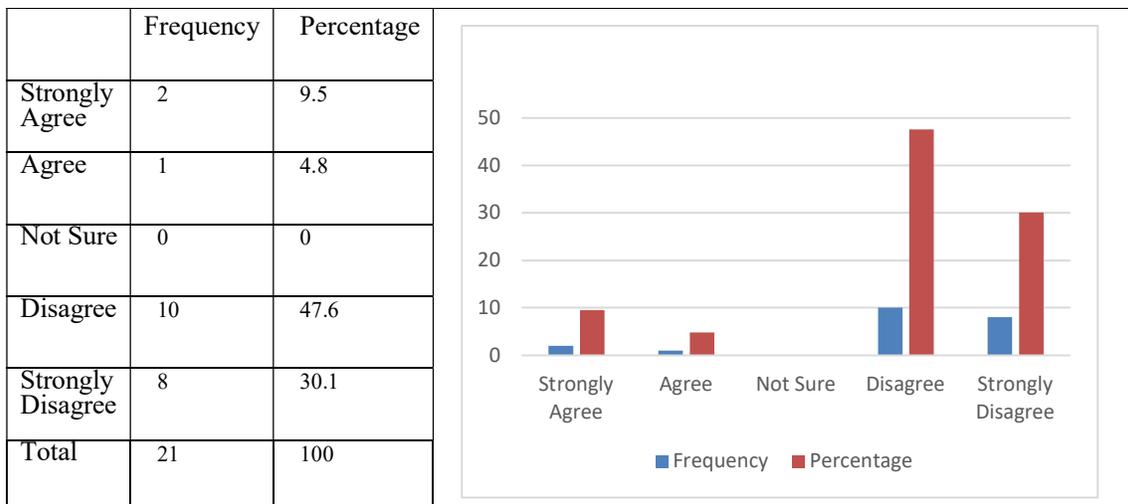


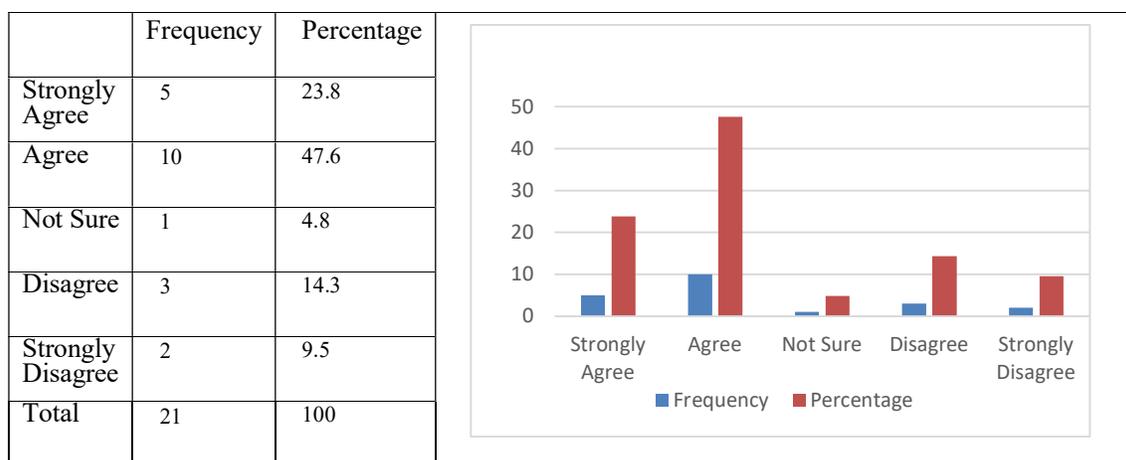
Table 6.22 above indicated that the response rate of 18 respondents which constituted 77.7% *disagreed* to the statement that intervention strategies are communicated timeously to the land restitution beneficiaries. It was also noted that 3 respondents who constituted 14.3% of the total sample *agreed* with the statement; these responses that could be based on the lack of knowledge.

The indication is that the majority of the respondents *disagreed* that intervention strategies are well communicated but as Cloete and Wissink (2000:78) state the primary task of government is to create optimal conditions for strategies for sustainable development.

6.7 SUPPORT PROVIDED TO LAND RESTITUTION BENEFICIARIES

6.7.1 The government gives support to the beneficiaries

Table 6.23 and Figure 6.23

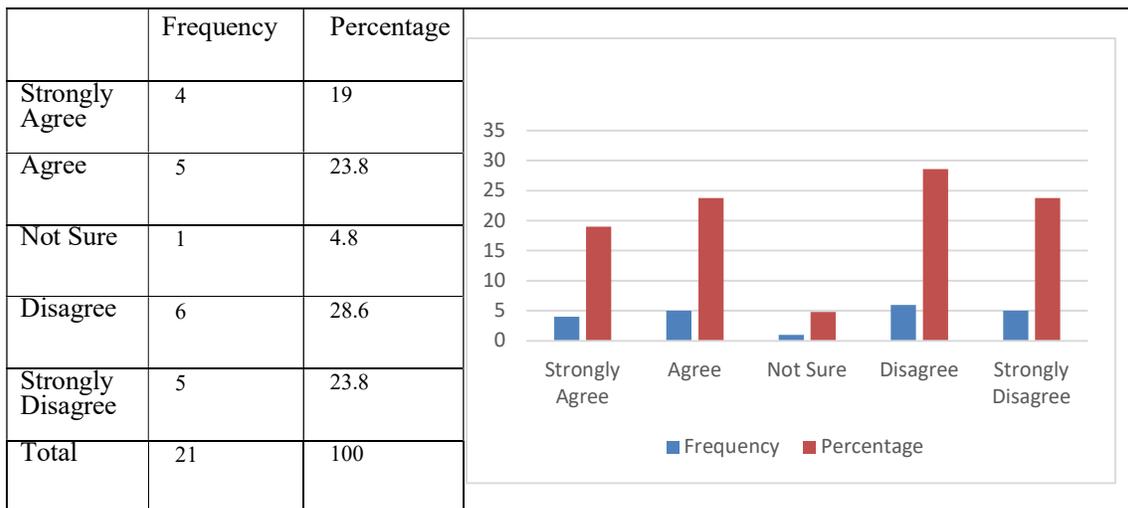


The statistics above revealed that the government gives support to the beneficiaries. The majority of the respondents *agreed* that the government gives support to the beneficiaries because 15 respondents which constituted 71.4% of the total sample *agreed* with the statement. This confirmed the view that the three layers of government and their officials should play their role of giving service delivery to the people based on the “Batho Pele” Principles. One respondent who constituted 4.8% of the total sample *neither agreed nor disagreed* with the statement; 5 respondents which constituted 23.8% *disagreed* that the government gives support to the beneficiaries, a response that could be attributed to lack of information and knowledge. It is evident from the above results that the government gives support to the beneficiaries when the majority of them need a support to run the land reform projects they have inherited. This is

inconsistent with Lahiff (200) as cited in Manenzhe (2007:04) who found that there is no consistent co-ordination of provision of government support offered to new land owners after resettling; similarly, Aliber and Maluleke (2010:11) found that there is very little support for diverse growing operation.

6.7.2 The NGOS, Private sector and Government work together giving support to the beneficiaries

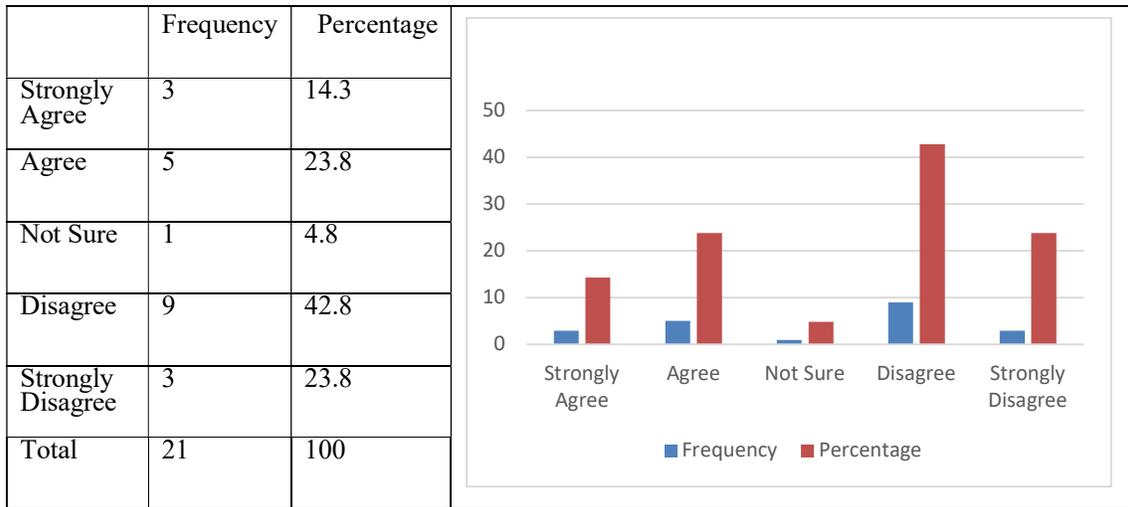
Table 6.24 and Figure 6.24



A total of 11 respondents who constituted 52.4% *disagreed* that the NGOs, private sector and the government work together giving support to the land restitution beneficiaries; 9 respondents who constituted 42.8% *agreed* that the NGOs, private sector and government work together giving support to the beneficiaries. A minority of respondents (4.8%) *neither agreed nor disagreed* with the statement. This can be attributed to the fact that most NGOs and Private sector offer support in exchange for benefits which further put the land restitution beneficiaries into poverty. It is evident from the results above that a clear synergy and working guidelines still need to be developed. This is consistent with Kuye *et al.*, (2002:194) who found that public institutions are basically corrupt because of personnel greed and dishonesty and this unethical behaviour prevents the smooth running of organizations. Matukane (2011:15) states that the perceived lack of support, from the state and NGOs, for land restitution beneficiaries, makes project non-profitable resulting in hardship for the new landowners.

6.7.3 The Government supports the CPAs in matters related to finance management

Table 6.25 and Figure 6.25

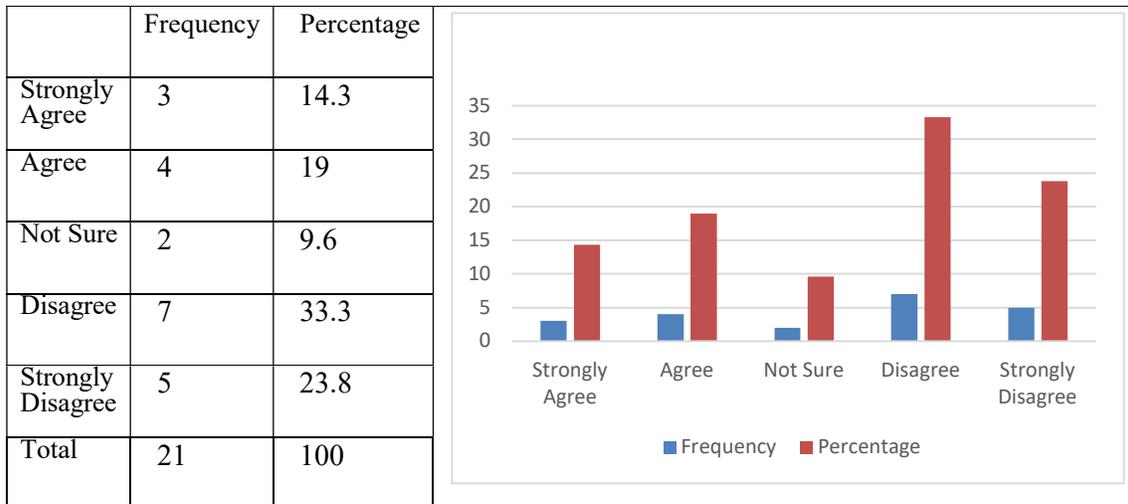


The Public Finance and Management Act No 1 of 1999 regulates the management of finances in government institutions. The Act sets out procedures for efficient and effective management of all revenues, expenditure, assets and liabilities.

Supporting the organisations in matters related to finance management is one fundamental aspect for the success of any organization, including the CPAs. Eight respondents constituting 38.1% of the total *agreed* that the government offers support to the CPAs on finance management; 12 respondents constituting 57.1% *disagreed* that the government offers support the CPAs on finance management. A mere 4.8% (1 respondent) *neither agreed nor disagreed*. It is evident that lack of finance management support leads to conflicts amongst the beneficiaries and the executive members of the CPAs. This is consistent with Makhado (2012:05) who found that the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform needs to partner with private sectors in order to leverage private funding and financial management skills.

6.7.4 The Government capacitates the CPAs on the management of projects and leadership roles

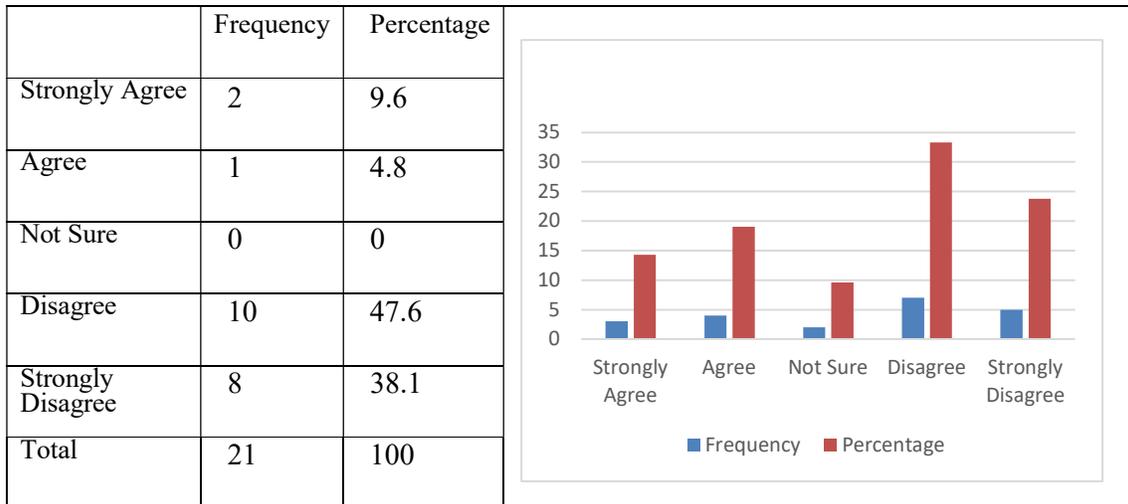
Table 6.26 and Figure 6.26



With regard to the government capacitating the CPAs on the management of projects and leadership roles, 7 of the respondents constituting 33.3% *agreed* with the statement, while 12 of the respondents constituting 57.1% *disagreed* with the idea and a mere 2 of the respondents constituting 9.8% *neither agreed nor disagreed* with the statement. The above statistics showed that the government needs to capacitate the CPAs on the management of projects because failure to capacitate the CPAs leads to the collapse of the projects. In some cases, the beneficiaries inherit functional and reproductive projects through the land restitution process but due to lack of leadership and management, the CPAs contribute to the collapse of these projects, and it leads to perpetual poverty for the disadvantaged black people. This is consistent with Ramutsindela (2016: 34) who stated that the common challenge facing CPAs is intergroup dynamics that arose from the inception of CPAs as role players in the implementation of a settlement plan. This usually happens when beneficiaries and leadership of the CPAs become embroiled in a conflict over conduct of the leadership of the CPA.

6.7.5 The Government capacitates the stakeholders on conflict management

Table 6.27 and Figure 6.27



Conflict is defined as a serious disagreement or argument, typically a protracted one; it is a clash between individuals arising out of a difference in thought process, attitudes, understanding, interests, requirements and even sometimes perceptions (<https://www.managementstudyguide.com> 31/10/2019). Only 2 respondents constituting 9.8% *strongly agreed* with the statement, whereas a mere 4.8% (one respondent) *agreed* with the statement. A total of 18 respondent constituting 85.7% of the total respondents *disagreed* that the government capacitates different stakeholders on conflict management. The respondents agreed that there are infighting amongst the beneficiaries due to lack of knowledge on how to manage conflict. It was also evident from the statistic above that failure of government to capacitate different stakeholders contributes negatively to the smooth running of CPAs. This is consistent with Ramutsindela (2016: 34) who concluded that one common challenge facing CPAs is intergroup dynamics that has been there since the inception of CPAs in the implementation of a settlement plan. This happens when beneficiaries and leadership of the CPAs become embroiled in a conflict over conduct of the leadership of the CPA.

6.8 PHASE 2. ANALYSIS OF DATA COLLECTED THROUGH INTERVIEWS

The analysis of data collected qualitatively was through in-depth interviews. The respondents were the land reform beneficiaries, CPAs chairpersons, District managers and the provincial

commissioner. The responses showed that, although they were all in charge of issues related to land restitution, they differed in the expectations, attitudes, understanding and interpretation of land restitution. Secondly the majority of the respondents were males and they understood the issue of land restitution from a patriarchal point of view and that indicated a need to redress gender equity and discrimination. Despite these concerns, the data provided were relevant to the research project.

Due to similarities in the results from the respondents, the results were combined and presented together, and this helps in further hiding respondents' identities. Responses from individual respondents were also combined for ethical reasons since this was a sensitive topic which required confidentiality as most of the respondents could be identified. Before presenting and discussing the data collected, three points must be made regarding the interpretation of data analysed in terms of biographic sub-groups:

- a. First, the biographical characteristics of beneficiaries and participants are not mutual independent, for example, the majority of participants interviewed are males.
- b. Secondly, the sample is drawn from a population of land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District; hence, the sample might include a disproportionate members of beneficiaries experiencing different levels of challenges in the management of challenges due to different factors
- c. Thirdly, older beneficiaries differ in not being only older but of a different generation as far as their expectations, attitudes and values go.

The data obtained through interviews revealed five major themes of challenges facing land restitution beneficiaries and how these challenges impact on sustainable economic development. The themes are:

- The post-settlement challenges of land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District;
- The impact of land restitution and post-settlement challenges on sustainable economic development;
- The intervention strategies that can be used to sustain the land restitution projects and eradicate beneficiaries' poverty and
- The support provided to land restitution beneficiaries.

Following is a comprehensive discussion of the themes relating to the post settlement challenges experienced by land restitution beneficiaries and their impact on sustainable economic development. These challenges were mainly due to the new political dispensation which dictated, through legislations, that there is a need to address land reform. Many challenges emanated from the introduction of the new role players in the management of projects or farms.

6.8.1 CPAs CHAIRPERSONS

Question 1: What are the post-settlement challenges of the land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe district?

According to the ten respondents interviewed the following challenges were identified: lack of the support from the department, lack of the resources, non-inclusion of the issue of land in the IDP of the municipalities as well as lack of management and leadership.

One of the respondents said: *“the day we got our land back we were so happy and we were promised training and funding by the department of Land reform and Rural Development but since that day we had never received anything and I wish we had opted for money rather than the land which is not benefiting us with anything”*

The 7th respondent interviewed raised the issue of the previous projects owners who had vandalized the equipment and left them in a bad state.

“when we got our farm, the previous owner had poisoned the soil and the boreholes were not working and how can we work on the soil which was poisoned, we got this information from the owner of the neighbouring farm”

The 10th respondent interviewed raised the issue of water scarcity which according to him was a major challenge

“when we grew up we used to work the land with no problems because the river was full of water but to my surprise now the river is dry whereas there used to be boreholes here and there, I don’t know what the previous owner did to those boreholes and to the small rivers that used to supply to the main river”

One of the respondents raised the issue of not getting anything from the local municipality because they had wanted to rezone their area to a settlement area because it is near the town:

“our forefathers used to live here and you can see that we are not far away from Makhado town, we wanted to move from ha-Kutama and come to live here but it is difficult because we cannot live here with no basic infrastructure including roads, sanitation, electricity etc, I wish they can listen to us and include us in their IDP”

One of the respondents said that when they got their farm on the Vivo road they had thought that the majority of them would go back and live there enjoying farming but now they have learnt that the new generation is no-more interested because they are now staying in towns.

“ yes we got the land and we had wanted our children and grandchildren to come and live here, but they seem not interested because they now have houses in towns where they are working and we will end up leasing this land’

Another responded had this to say about their farm *“When we got this farm it was a tourist attraction with many animals but people started to come and shoot the animals for meat and now look at it, there is absolutely no one animal left and we are left with these dilapidated roundavels that used to house tourists”*

The 4th and 6th respondents identified in-fighting amongst the members of the CPAs and the interference of the local chiefs:

“the problem was when the local chief wanted to interfere because he wanted to benefit from their farms and because we were already divided with some members of the CPA not happy with certain things, everything collapsed and here we are with nothing for our children only a bush”

Another respondent raised the issue of markets: *“even if I can plough and harvest tons of tomatoes I don’t know where the market is, the tomatoes will get rotten in my house or car”*

Question 2: What are the impacts of the land restitution post-settlement challenges on sustainable economic development?

All the respondents agreed that when they got the land back they had wanted to use the land as a means to eradicate poverty through farming and agriculture but the challenges that they are experiencing are impacting negatively on sustainable economic development:

“Immediately getting our farms back I moved to one of the houses and started ploughing there but I had to move back to my home because things were tough”

One of the respondents said, *“we are now back to zero and those that opted for money instead of land are now laughing at us because we are neither ploughing nor farming”*

The other respondent said “yes we have the land but people are fighting for the funds we are getting from a lease we entered into with the previous owner and there is a serious mismanagement of funds and everybody is blaming the whole CPA”

One respondent said *“ if something is not done immediately either by the department of land reform and rural development or ourselves, we will die poor and our children will blame us for dying with the land in our hands and what makes the matter worse is that the majority of our children are not working”*

Question 3: Which intervention strategies can help to sustain the restitution projects and eradicate poverty for the beneficiaries?

All the respondents said that it is true that something needed to be done to save the projects that they found operating when they got the land.

One of the respondents said, *“to me collaboration is the way to go because it comes with training, transference of skills etc”*

The 3rd respondent said, *“ it will be better that when we get the land that was being used profitably by the previous owner we go for mentoring where the previous owner will be mentoring our own people for some time before he leaves, maybe that will also help that he doesn't poison the soil before he leaves”*

The 6th respondent said, *“I don't want headaches let us just lease these farms and get money that will assist us in addressing some of our day-to-day challenges”*

The 1st respondent gave a notable example of a farm in Makhado where the beneficiaries got a game farm with a guest house but because there was no visible plan in place, the game farm is now standing empty with no animals in sight; the guest house has also been vandalized because no-one was prepared to mentor beneficiaries in business management.

The 2nd interviewee argued that there will never been any strategies that can address the plight of the beneficiaries if they are not taught basic things, namely, *leadership, management, good governance and sound interpretation of prescripts and policies.*

The 5th respondent said “the biggest enemy of land reform in South Africa is the Strategic Partnership - it was a top-down approach which was implemented without deep research and reasoning around it-and the former landowners failed us dismally because their aim was to embezzle funds and ran away with at least R7 million from timber sale” (one of the CPA members).

Question 4: What is the support to be provided to the land restitution beneficiaries?

All the respondents said that the Department of Land Reform and Rural development should try and assist them with funding and training.

One of the respondents said “the department should manage transition because after they have paid the previous owner what he does he replaces machines with the old ones that are no more working and even selling some to their neighbours knowing that he is about to go and we inherit old things that are not working”

The 1st and 8th respondents stated that some members of the CPAs and the municipal managers use their status and education to suppress the views of the beneficiaries. They also use their authority for the improper advancement of their own personal interest and their corrupt activities result in deterioration of trust in the beneficiaries; this erodes the little faith and trust the beneficiaries have in the members. The interviewees further complained that secrecy allowed the chairpersons and municipal managers not to be accountable to the people they serve because they are not open in their activities and they take time to call meetings. The 8th respondent further stated that trust is strengthened when community members see their leaders as people who are honest, fair and trustworthy.

6.8.2 Provincial Land Commissioner

Question 1: What are the post-settlement challenges of the land restitution beneficiaries in the Limpopo Province?

According to the interviewee there are many challenges the beneficiaries come across based on different causes and situations.

“I have seen the beneficiaries struggling with the management of the resources, existing projects and serious infights amongst themselves and I believe that some of the beneficiaries get the land but they either don’t know what to do with the land or they have different opinions on what they should use the land for.”

Question 2: What are the impacts of the land restitution post-settlement challenges on the sustainable economic development?

The interviewee indicated that the challenges impact negatively on sustainable economic development if they are not immediately attended to:

“I have seen inherited projects with the potential of creating jobs and eradicate poverty destroyed because of conflicts amongst the members of the CPAs or the beneficiaries themselves.”

Question 3: Which intervention strategies can help sustain the restitution projects and eradicate poverty for the beneficiaries?

According to the interviewee there is no ‘one strategy fits all’.

“I believe that different CPAs and beneficiaries should use different strategies depending on the nature of their challenge and that people should not forget that the thread that holds them together should not be broken for the sake of sustainable economic development and the legacy that they should leave for the future generation should be supreme.”

Question 4: What is the support to be provided to the land restitution beneficiaries?

According to the interviewee the beneficiaries should get different training, like on financial management, leadership and management, team-building, team-work and how collaboration and mentoring work.

“the CPAs should have a clear crafted constitution and the organogram should have clear line functions to guide every member of the community.”

6.8.3 The Districts Land Commissioners

Question 1: What are the post-settlement challenges of the land restitution beneficiaries in the Limpopo Province?

All the interviewees agreed that there are serious challenges affecting the land restitution beneficiaries in all the districts and the majority of these challenges are the same. The interviewees identified water scarcity, lack of proper support from the municipalities, lack of leadership and management on the part of the CPAs as well as unnecessary conflicts that are

caused by misunderstanding amongst either the beneficiaries themselves or the members of the CPAs.

The 2nd respondent stated that most of the challenges affecting the land restitution beneficiaries stem from the fact that in most rural areas the chiefs claim that the land belongs to them and no one else, hence, communal land ownership is a major challenge.

The 4th interviewee stated that when one attends meetings, either at villages or the chiefs' kraal, people talk as they wish and they do not care about policies and transcripts; this delays any assistance the government is willing to offer. In addition, the composition of the CPAs, due to conflicts and in-fighting, keep on changing, hence, today you deal with this member and tomorrow it is a different person altogether.

Question 2: What are the impacts of the land restitution post-settlement challenges on the sustainable economic development?

All the interviewees identified slow development and lack of job creation. The 2nd interviewee said that challenges result in beneficiaries being stuck with a land with no productivity. The problem is that most of the youths are not willing to work on the land; they do not understand or appreciate the benefits of having land, instead they want fast cash and they can even go to the extent of selling the land they have acquired to get fast cash. This perpetuates the circle of poverty.

Question 3: Which intervention strategies can help sustain the restitution projects and eradicate poverty for the beneficiaries?

The 4th respondent said *“let us learn good practices from the Makuleke community where they opted for collaboration with unambiguous guidelines and that is why Makuleke’s model is one of the best models around and it is yielding dividends for the Makuleke community”*

The 1st responded stated that the CPAs must have a sound human resource policy and an open communication space where every beneficiary can voice his/her dissatisfaction or opinion without fear of victimization. The interviewee further stated that for any strategy to work, there needs to be unity, trust and honesty amongst the beneficiaries, including those who are leading them.

The 3rd responded stated that collaboration is the right way to go because you cannot expect an illiterate person who has just been voted into a chairpersonship, within a week to have all the

skills needed to run a multimillion project, hence, the majority of the inherited projects are now collapsing immediately after being handed to the community of beneficiaries.

Question 4: What is the support to be provided to the land restitution beneficiaries?

All the respondents agreed that the beneficiaries need vigorous training on different things, like, financial management, how to access markets, human relations, leadership and general management.

6.8.4 Community of beneficiaries

Question 1: What are the post-settlement challenges facing the land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe district?

Different beneficiaries raised different challenges affecting them. The 3rd respondent believed that their challenges stem from the fact that they are from different ethnic groups “ *there is always commotion between the Venda tribe and Tsonga tribe every time there is an issue.*” The respondent further indicated that the problem is so serious that even when people are in meetings, they would speak in different languages using idioms and proverbs that the other group would not even understand and they would not care to explain.

The 1st and 2nd interviewees stated that the government does not take them seriously because they just throw them in the “lion’s den” because they are unable to get the necessary support they deserve. They added that if one or two officials come, they come with empty stomach expecting the beneficiaries to give them something back in exchange for the support they are supposed to give them.

The 5th respondent blamed the local chief who wants to unduly benefit even if he is not one of the beneficiaries and he tries to paint them in a bad light to all the other ordinary members of the community. The respondent further stated that the Civic Association and the chiefs’ kraal committee would sometimes collaborate just to stop beneficiaries from developing and doing what is right as they make you feel like what you are doing is wrong.

All the respondents agreed that the Department of Land reform and Rural Development is not supporting them because they just give them the land and leave them to fend for themselves without properly training them.

Question 2: What are the impacts of the land restitution post-settlement challenges on the sustainable economic development?

The 7th respondent said *“to us it is not yet Uhuru because we are not enjoying the benefits of land restitution - we pray that things become better and see our children working the land”*

All the respondents said that they are getting frustrated and many end up quitting, hence, what used to be a productive farms are now a plots of bushes. They further indicated that poverty and lack of jobs would remain as long as all the role players are not taking their rightful positions and start walking the talk.

Question 3: Which intervention strategies can help sustain the restitution projects and eradicate poverty for the beneficiaries?

Most of the respondents were unable to come up with definite strategies, however, they felt that whatever the department of Land Reform and Rural Development can come up with to assist them would be fine with them.

The 4th respondent said *“if the department of Land Reform and Rural Development does not know what is good for us let them go to other countries where the issue of Land Reform was able to benefit the intended beneficiaries.”*

Question 4: What is the support to be provided to the land restitution beneficiaries?

All the respondents agreed that they need to be trained on how to run the projects so that they can have skills and that their CPAs should have constitutions that speak to the issues of sustainable economic development.

The 9th respondent said, “it is amazing how the government is treating us - we didn’t take the farms like what happened in Zimbabwe but still the government is not doing enough to help us sustain the land reform projects we inherited.”

The 7th respondent said, “I don’t care what support we get, to me it is already late I’m going to look for a job in Gauteng, I can even drive a taxi rather than to wait for nothing that is not forthcoming, let those who want to wait, wait but with me it is done and dry.”

Respondent 6 said “They told us that the government of the day told them that this land is not suitable for black people because it is fertile and we had to make way for white people to come

and stay in our land. "They came and loaded our grandparents into trucks and gave them a small piece of land very far from here and others were taken to Nzhelele."

6.9 Post-settlement challenges of land restitution beneficiaries

One of the objectives of the study was to explore the challenges faced by land restitution beneficiaries. The respondents identified seven main themes of the post-settlement challenges which are difficulties in accessing capital, entrepreneurial challenges, water scarcity, lack of support by key stakeholders, conflicts among beneficiaries, lack of basic business management skills and corruption. One of the main challenges faced by land restitution beneficiaries was difficulties in accessing capital. As reported by Ruhiiga (2011:34) and as well as Cousins (2016:169) most of these farmers who are the beneficiaries of the land restitution are faced with difficulties in acquiring capital to run their enterprises effectively. The farmers highlighted that banks and other financial institutions are reluctant to give out funds to newly-resettled farmers. Some of the reason advanced was that these financial institutions do not believe that these small-scale farmers would successfully run their enterprises and be able to pay back the loans. One of the respondents stated:

Every time we go to the banks they tell us we don't qualify and some give us very high interest rates. Only the grants we get from the governments and some NGOs is the ones that we use to do the little we can, given the available resources. (Respondent 4)

From the results it could be seen that capital is major challenge to the growth and development of the land restitution beneficiaries' business endeavours. Abdulsaleh and Worthington (2013) argued that there is lack of trust between the lenders and small businesses as the former lack confidence in the business acumen of the land restitution beneficiaries (Moro and Fink, 2013). Lack of experience in running a business by the beneficiaries is one the elements that lenders flags as the main reason for withholding funds. One of the key informants pointed out that:

Banks and other lenders lack trust in these land restitution beneficiaries and some have stated that due to their past experiences with many different small and medium businesses, they classify them as high risk. The truth around it is that there is bad history of small businesses not paying or struggling to settle their loans with the financial institutions. This has had negative impact to farmers accessing capital.

These sentiments resonate with the findings by Jonsson and Lindbergh (2013) who conclude that most small businesses including farmers, fail to succeed due problems associated with the absence and lack of capital.

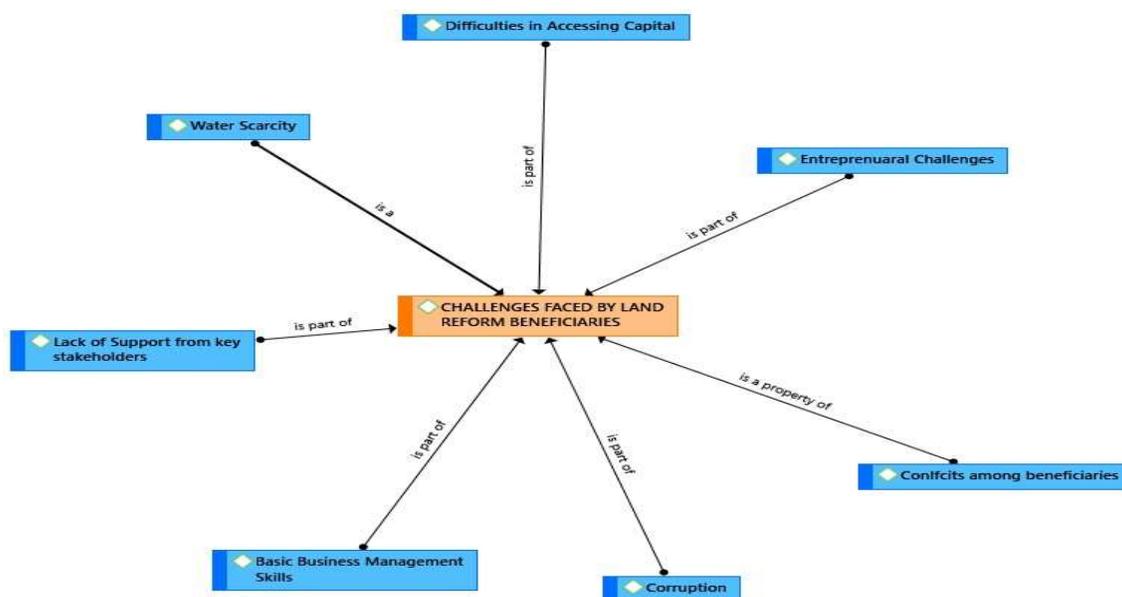


Figure 6.28: Challenges faced by land reform beneficiaries in Limpopo

Lack of support by key stakeholders and water scarcity have been flagged as major post-settlement challenges faced by the respondents. Participants alluded that they did not have get the much-needed supported from the stakeholders assigned to assist them, particularly, the CPAs and the Department of Land Restitution and Land Reform. According to Jonsson and Lindbergh (2013:682) supporting small farming businesses and upcoming ventures is key to ensuring their success. In a similar vein, Arasti, Zandi, and Bahmani, (2014) identified lack of support as one of the major reasons why land reform beneficiaries are failing. Moyo (2011:961) in Zimbabwe notes that land reform beneficiaries pointed that lack support by governments and other stakeholders is center to their failures. Lack of support, coupled with water scarcity have worsened the situation of the land restitution beneficiaries as they attempt to utilise their areas of land.

Similar to these results, a study by Binswanger-Mkhize (2014:263) revealed that the majority of the newly-resettled land reform beneficiaries lacked basic business and entrepreneurial skills. These beneficiaries complained that they sometimes fail because of their inability to manage, plan and forecast. Planning and business management skills form part of the fundamentals to the success of any organisation and their absence leads to a business failure.

As reported in Cambodia by Un and So (2011:305) and in parts of Zimbabwe, as well as by Scoones, *et al.*, (2011:989) the beneficiaries of the land restitution asserted that one of the major challenges was corruption. Some land reform or restitution beneficiaries are said to benefit more in terms of support by government departments and other stakeholders. Respondent 13 was quoted as saying;

“Some of the beneficiaries’ in the area are favoured by the departments. They bribe and prioritises each other. You can see that farm over there is better than mine because they get better services and assistance from the officials. We are own our own””.

Respondent 6, “.... Yes, it’s true, some of the people whom we got land at the same time have grown so much because of selective support amongst the land reform beneficiaries. Now these farmers even fight amongst themselves because of this unfair treatment by government. In the beginning we used to share ideas and equipment as farmers but now, Aaahiii, we don’t talk and they think we want to benefit from them”

The results revealed that, corruption practiced by government departments and official has not only worsened the situation for the farmers but caused divisions and conflicts amongst the farmers. Hebinck, Fay, and Kondlo, (2011:236) stated that conflicts are invertible but if fuelled, can be a cause for concern and if left unattended can lead to loss of social capital in the area. Absence of social capital, facets such as trust and unity of purpose get lost in an environment where conflicts are the order of the day.

Table 6.28: On the post settlement challenges faced by the land restitution beneficiaries

CATERGORIES	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Communication amongst stakeholders	15	71.4
Planning meetings	12	57.1
CPA management	11	52.3
Assistance by the department of Land Restitution and Land Reform	5	23.8
Transparency by the Management Committee	15	71.4
State support and visibility	13	61.9

Table 6.29: Challenges faced by land reform beneficiaries

CHALLENGE	MEAN	STD. DEVIATION	RANKINGG
Communication amongst stakeholders	3.48	1.250	1

Planning meetings	3.14	1.195	2
CPA management	3.14	1.389	3
Assistance by the Department of Land Restitution and Land Reform	3.00	1.304	4
Transparency from the Management	2.95	1.203	5
State support and visibility	2.86	1.236	6

The perceived post-settlement challenges to land restitution in Vhembe District Municipality can be categorized into communication amongst the stakeholders, planning meetings, CPA management, and assistance from the Department of Land Restitution and Land Reform, transparency from the management committee, state support and visibility. Most of the land restitution beneficiaries, 71.4% (15) indicated that there is no proper communication among the stakeholders who are supposed to assist them. The stakeholders mentioned include the CPAs, government departments and other community development structures. The responses of the 6 perceptions relating to the post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries are presented below.

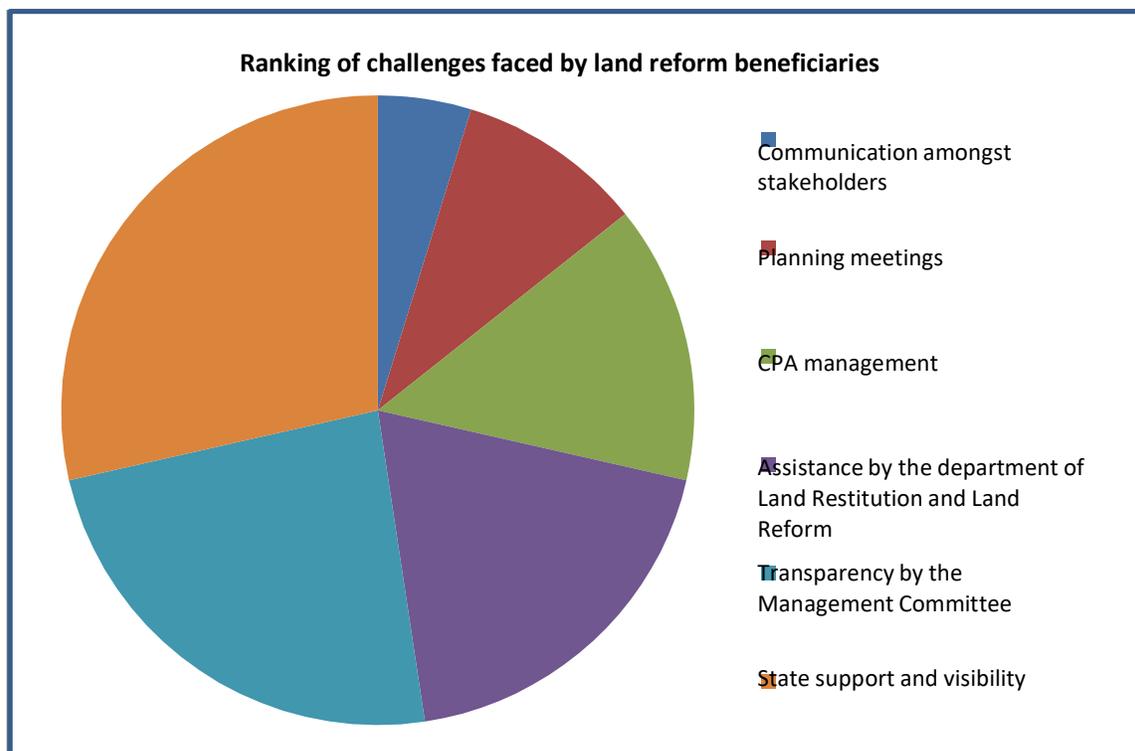


Figure 6.29: Challenges faced by land reform beneficiaries

A significant number of the land restitution beneficiaries (57.1% (12) who participated indicated that lack of effective participating and involvement in the planning of meetings as challenges. These meetings are meant to explain and assist the land restitution beneficiaries in

the challenges they face in the management and running of their agricultural business ventures. A considerable number of land restitution beneficiaries 52.3% (11) highlighted that one of their challenges was with the way in which CPAs conduct themselves in the management of the restituted land. More than half of the respondents disagreed with the fact that the Department of Land Restitution and Land Reform assists them effectively to realize their full potential. More than two-thirds of the beneficiaries 71.4% (15) highlighted that there is lack of transparency from the executive management committee. Lastly, a significant number of beneficiaries 38% (8) highlighted that there is lack of state visibility in support of their initiatives and growth.

As part of the challenges, a significant proportion of beneficiaries said that there is no proper communication amongst the involved stakeholders. The farmers alluded to the fact that sometimes information does not reach them and they hear of it when activities or events have passed. This was one of the reasons why farmers thought they are not successful in their agricultural ventures.

6.10 IMPACT OF POST-SETTLEMENT CHALLENGES TO LAND RESTITUTION BENEFICIARIES

The participants were asked to describe, based on their experiences, the perceived impact of the post-settlement challenges to sustainable development. These challenges could be summarised as – time- boundness of land restitution process, government departments' incapacity to assist farmers, unsustainability of land restitution projects, difficulties in understanding and implementing policies and laws, no poverty alleviation through land restitution programme and disunity among various stakeholders. The mean scores of six identified perceived impact of post-settlement challenges were ranked in Table 4. As illustrated in Table 4, the top ranked challenge was absence of timeous processing of documents of the land restitution beneficiaries and least ranked was the divisions and conflicts that have greatly affected the unity among the beneficiaries.

A considerable number of the respondents were of the view that lack of time-boundness of the land restitution process has affected their planning and general operations in their projects. Also, respondents stated that lack of government departments' capacity to assist beneficiaries has had a significant impact on the running of these agricultural projects/businesses. The inability to assist farmers comprehensively has had a huge impact on the productivity and

profitability of their activities. Low production impacts negatively on the chances of survival of any business venture (Lawton, 2017). Wilson and Wilson (2017) are of the view that low production is equal to low profits or losses and all things being equal, business failure.

Sustainability of the land restitution projects was viewed to be at risk in the current climate. Lack of understanding of laws and policies on land restitution has negatively impacted on the sustainability of these projects. Most farmers highlighted that the management committees of the CPAs and the beneficiaries do not fully understand how these laws and policies on management of land restitution should be implemented. This has fuelled conflicts and division perpetuating mistrust amongst farmers and trust is the cornerstone to community survival. Trust enables communities to harness resources together and protect each other against external forces and lack of it is detrimental to survival of any communities, including farming communities (Arasti, Zandi, & Bahmani, 2014:11).

These challenges mentioned above have also significantly affected the operations of these land restitution projects. The decreased production and inability by farmers to run these projects as business ventures has regressed efforts of poverty alleviation through ensuring food and nutrition security. Some scholars and commentators have come out hard against land restitution programme under the banner of fear of the potential food and nutrition insecurity threat to the republic (Hendriks, 2014). On the other hand, some scholars have viewed this programme as a step forward towards achieving land restoration justice and ultimately alleviating poverty (Hendriks, 2013; Holden & Ghebru, 2016).

Table 6.30: Impact of the post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries as per the Questionnaire Schedule

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
Time-boundness of land restitution process	3.29	1.146	1
Government departments' ability to deal with challenges facing farmers	3.10	1.338	2
Sustainability of land restitution projects	3.10	1.136	3
Easiness of understanding and implementation of policies and laws.	3.00	1.449	4
Poverty alleviation through land restitution programme.	2.62	1.322	5
Uniting of various stakeholders	2.57	1.165	6

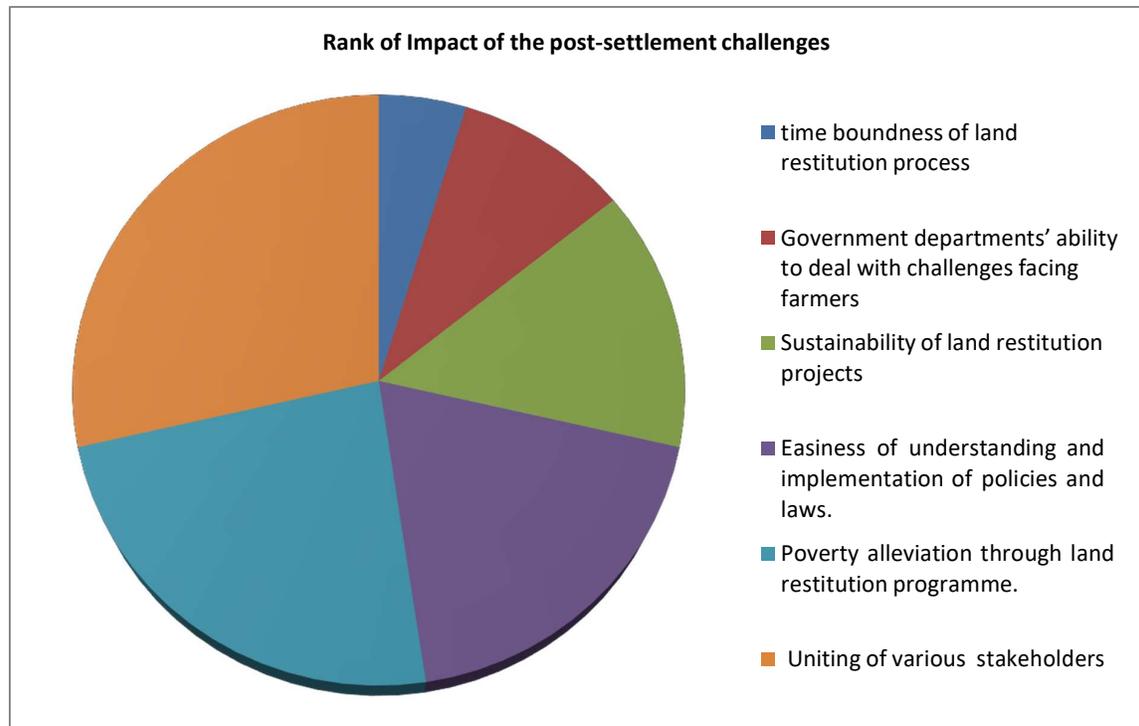


FIGURE 6.30: Impact of post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries

6.11 INTERVENTION STRATEGIES USED BY LAND REFORM BENEFICIARIES TO SUSTAIN THE LAND RESTITUTION PROJECTS AND ERADICATE POVERTY

The challenges faced by the land restitution beneficiaries are intense and negatively impact the production and operations of these agricultural projects. Farmers have employed a number of intervention measures to cope with these post-settlement challenges. To understand the intervention strategies used by land restitution beneficiaries, the beneficiaries were asked to identify the strategies they use to deal with their challenges. As shown in Figure 4, beneficiaries' intervention strategies can be categorized into - government grants, reduction in production, mentorship programmes, working with other new partners and formation of farmers association.

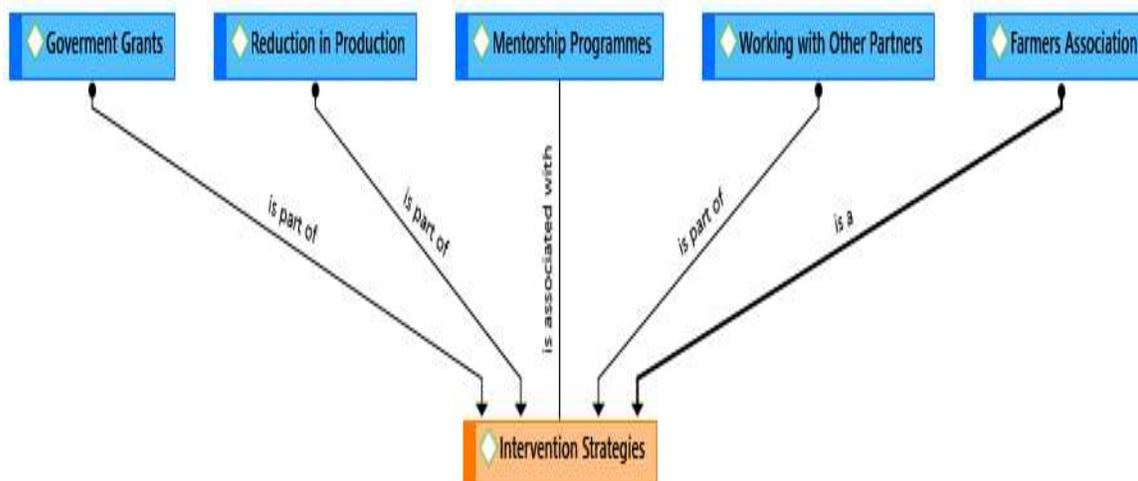


Figure 6.31: Intervention strategies used by land restitution beneficiaries.

As shown in Figure 4, beneficiaries stated that to cope with the challenge of lack of capital and access to financial resources, they survive at the mercy of the government through grants. The major source of capital for most of the land restitution beneficiaries are the grants from the government, particularly, the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform. Farmers highlighted that their survival and source of funding is almost entirely dependent on the government. This implies that if there are no funds or any form of financial assistance from the government, the survival of these agricultural projects as a business, is next to none.

“Banks do not want to give us loans and money and the only money we get if from the government. You see, the government is the only stakeholder that we rely on financial and sometimes the government takes time to disburse these funds. To make matters worse, this money is not enough”. (Respondent 7)

Shortage of capital has immensely affected the activities of the farmers and they have cut down on production due to lack of or inability to procure resources. The beneficiaries also indicated that if they had substantial capital, they will be able to buy equipment and drill boreholes to address water scarcity, however, lack of capital and water scarcity has forced farmers to cut down on production as an intervention strategy to their challenges. Water scarcity and capital challenges have prompted land restitution beneficiaries to reduce the operations on their farms as they are not able to purchase the much needed equipment to aid their operations.

“Only if we could get enough money and support from the government, we would be able to conduct researches on the crops that are suitable for our type of soil. Also, these funds could

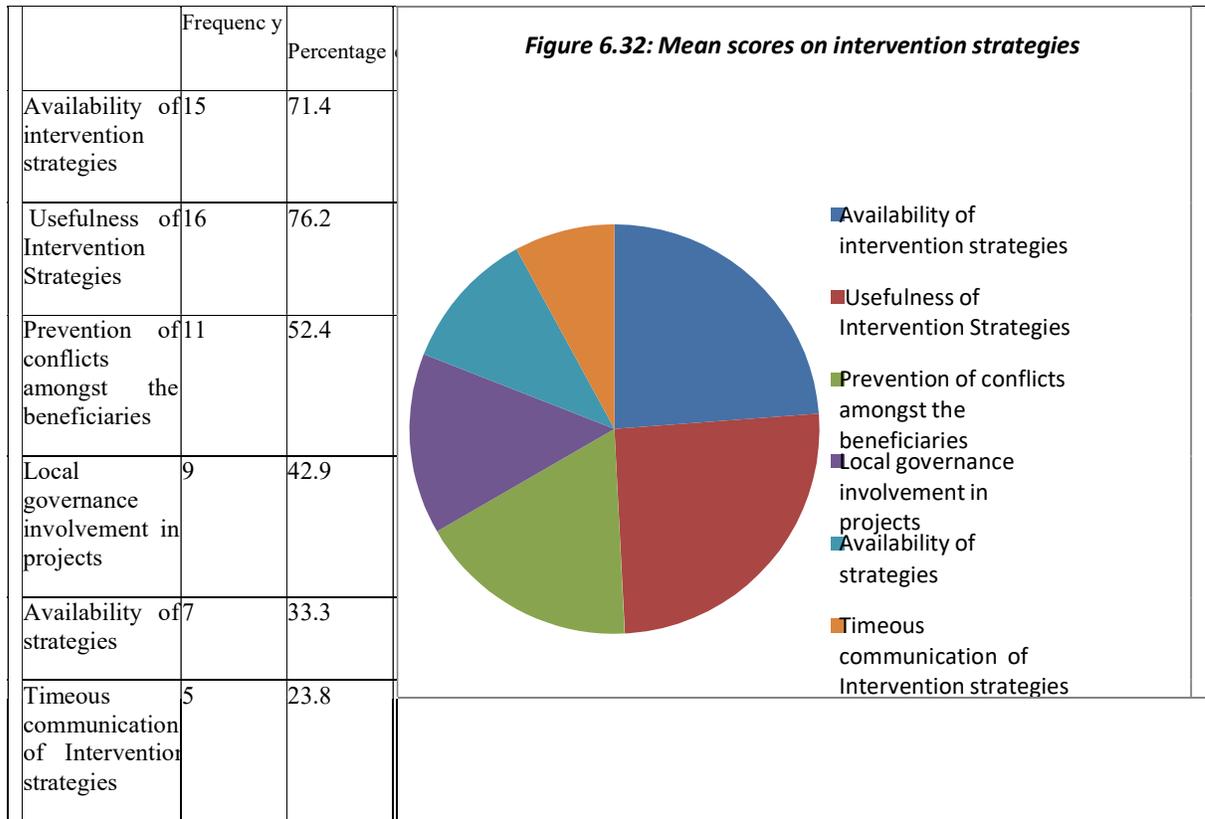
afford us a borehole or procurement of a drip irrigation system. The so called climate change effects are also severely felt in this part of the province. All the farmers in the areas are affected equally. However, some are better off as they have connection within the government department and other NGOs". (Respondent 9).

Drop or reduction in production due to shortages of capital and as well as water scarcity has been reported in many farming communities including those of the beneficiaries of the land restitution. Manyeruke, Hamauswa and Mhandara, (2013) similar to the results of this study, found that the Zimbabweans beneficiaries of land reform program after failing to cope with the challenges of water scarcity and capital shortages were forced to cut down on production. As a result, Zimbabwe experienced country-wide food shortages after the dawn of land reform as many resettled famers could not produce enough to cater for the country's food needs. This threatened food and nutrition security of Zimbabwe, therefore, there is a need to support farmers with more funding and training to enable a balance between land resettlement and food and nutrition security (Manyeruke, Hamauswa & Mhandara, 2013).

Moreover, the results revealed that farmers have resorted to attending training workshops to equip themselves with business and other entrepreneurial activities. Some commercial farmers in the area and NGOs organize training workshops where also the beneficiaries of land restitution programme are invited to learn and equipped themselves with farming and business skills. Farmer associations have also been given hints on coping strategies employed by other farmers as a way of assisting each other to find solutions to their challenges. The beneficiaries lauded the contributions of these associations or groups where they discuss ideas and find common solutions to the challenges confronting them.

"As farmers we meet regularly to discuss the challenges we are facing and how we can handle them. Many of the things we do are a product of these meetings and we sometimes apply for funding together. Also, some of these partnerships with NGOs were started as a result of these farmers associations". (Respondent 7)

Table 6.31: Mean scores on intervention strategies



The participants were further asked to reflect on their views and perceptions on the intervention strategies available. Thus, they were asked to indicate the impact and the extent of assistance of the available intervention strategies. As shown in Table 4, a significant number of participants 71.4% (15) and 72.2% (16) agreed on the availability and usefulness of the available intervention strategies to their problems, respectively. A considerable proportion of the beneficiaries, 52.4 % (11) stated that these intervention strategies assisted in fighting or reduction conflicts amongst the farmers. Furthermore, when asked on the timeous communication of these intervention strategies by the external stakeholders, only 23.8% (5) agreed that the communication happens on time. This indicates that there are still huge problems and delays in communication between farmers and key stakeholders. Bureaucracy could be the reason why most beneficiaries are of the view that there is lack of timeous communication of these intervention strategies. This is true, mainly, with government departments and organs; Rap and Wester (2013) argued that the many levels in decision-making that characterizes government and its departments, is centre to the reasons there are delays in dispatching of critical information to those who need it.

6.12 SUPPORT PROVIDED TO LAND RESTITUTION BENEFICIARIES

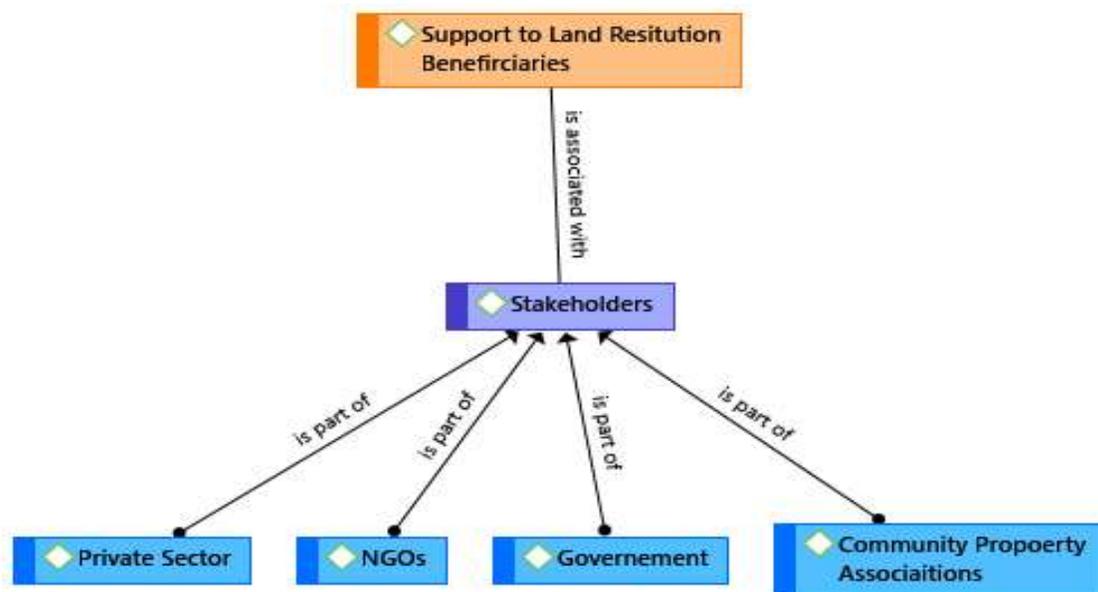


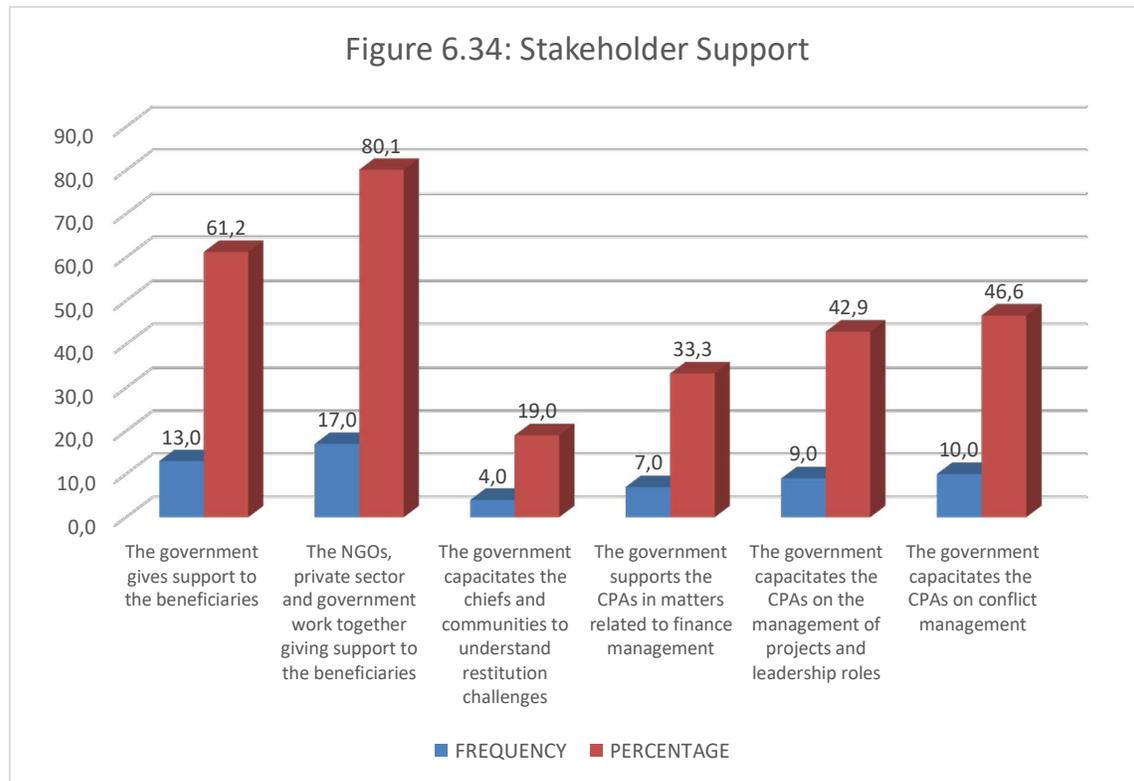
Figure 6.33: Stakeholders involved in supporting land restitution beneficiaries

Land restitution beneficiaries were asked to map the stakeholders who provide support to them. The stakeholders as described by the beneficiaries could be categorized into - private sector, NGOs, government and CPAs as shown in Figure 5 above. In addition, the beneficiaries were asked to indicate the extent of the support from these stakeholders and as well as the support by the government given to CPAs. These results are shown in the Table 35. More than half, 61.2% (13) of the respondents agreed that government is supportive while 80% agreed that NGOs and private sector are of assistance to their businesses. This indicates that government's presences and assistance to land restitution beneficiaries is significant, however, the private sector and the NOGs combined are more visible than the government. The results show that there are significant steps taken by the government and all critical stakeholders in the community, such as NGOs and the private sector to support and help land reform beneficiaries in their agricultural businesses. Stakeholder involvement is key to the success of any business, particularly, the small and medium business as they are still new in business. It has been documented that many small-scale farmers and businesses fail due to lack of support by government and other community organizations. Stakeholder participation is paramount to the success of any organizations and without it, it is difficult for any business to survive, therefore, it stands to reason that to ensure the sustainability and productivity among the beneficiaries of land restitution programme, support and participation of all the key stakeholders are necessary.

In South Africa, CPAs are entrusted by the government to manage restituted land. The CPAs are responsible for running and supporting the beneficiaries of the land restitution, thus, their ability to manage restituted land is important. Since they are government trustee and assigned to manage resulted land, it follows that the government has the responsibility to train and capacitate these beneficiaries. In this study, the land restitution beneficiaries were asked to share their perception on the level of support which should be given to CPAs to help them to manage the restituted land effectively. The findings from the participants are presented Table 5. Seventy-seven percent (77%) of the farmers opposed the notion that CPAs get adequate training on financial management. On the other hand, only 19% (4) of the beneficiaries feel that CPAs are capacitated on the management of these projects and general leadership. The results show that the beneficiaries of the land reform programme are of the view that CPAs are not well grounded on the overall management of restituted land, therefore, there is a need for intervention. As most farmers expressed numerous challenges including inability to manage their enterprises, it might indicate that CPAs are incapacitated when it comes to managing and supporting the beneficiaries.

Table 6.32: Extent of stakeholder support to land restitution beneficiaries

	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
The government gives support to the beneficiaries	13	61.2
The NGOs, private sector and government work together giving support to the beneficiaries	17	80.1
The government capacitates the chiefs and communities to understand restitution challenges	4	19.0
The government supports the CPAs in matters related to finance management	7	33.3
The government capacitates the CPAs on the management of projects and leadership roles	9	42.9
The government capacitates the CPAs on conflict management	10	46.6



6.13 CONCLUSION

This chapter highlighted some key issues for South Africa’s land reform programme. It argued that post-settlement support is critical to improving the livelihoods of the intended beneficiaries, and that failure to provide this undermines the developmental potential of land reform. This thesis, therefore, argues that access to land should be complemented with the building of sound institutions at the local level to enable land reform beneficiaries to use their land and other resources efficiently and effectively; as well as the provision of support services such as extension advice, access to credit and access to affordable inputs. These case studies have shown that despite the absence of post- settlement support in the form of grants, extension advice and proper planning, land reform beneficiaries will only embark on those land use initiatives with which they are most familiar. Interventions from the State - when it decides to become more involved – should not eradicate those initiatives but rather find ways to enhance them and increase productivity. While overall targets and total amounts of land delivered is important, improved quality, stronger local institutions and more appropriate development plans are even more important. The challenge is meeting the wider expectations of land reform.

To conclude my thesis, I share a view with Lahiff (2003: 48) that if land reform is to meet its wider objectives, new ways will have to be found to transfer land on a substantial scale and to provide necessary support services to a much wider class of land owners. The next chapter presents the findings conclusion and recommendations of the thesis.

CHAPTER 7

FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the focus was on data presentation, interpretation and analysis. This chapter presents the conclusions deduced from the results and discussions articulated in the previous chapter. Furthermore, the conclusions of the study will pave the way for the recommendations to policy-makers, researchers, stakeholders and the land restitution beneficiaries. The research findings would inform strategies that could be implemented to enhance sustainable economic development.

7.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The overview of the study is presented taking into consideration the research problems as articulated in section 1.7 in chapter 1. In this research study the prevalence of post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District and their impact on sustainable economic development on land restitution projects were clearly documented. In the process there were indications on how such challenges affect sustainable economic development on the part of land restitution beneficiaries. This study was motivated by the high rise of land restitution projects that are collapsing in the hands of the beneficiaries.

7.3 SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The findings of both qualitative and quantitative studies as presented are synthesized in this section. Significant findings which emerged from qualitative and quantitative studies are interpreted in relation to the research questions and the aims of the study. In interpreting, the findings are then compared with those from previous studies as reviewed in the literature and recommendations for future research are also made.

The main aim of the study was to investigate the post-settlement challenges for land restitution beneficiaries and their impact on sustainable economic development with special reference to Vhembe District land restitution projects, with the intention to:

- find out the post-settlement challenges of land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe district;

- establish the impact of post-settlement challenges facing the land restitution beneficiaries;
- determine the intervention strategies that can be used to sustain the land restitution projects and eradicate poverty on the beneficiaries and
- determine the support that can be provided to land restitution beneficiaries.

The analysis of the data collected revealed that land restitution beneficiaries are confronted by many challenges - ranging from inability to access capital, conflicts among the farmers, lack of adequate support from key stakeholders and corruption mainly by the government departments. Among the challenges confronting land reform beneficiaries, lack of communication and planning by and amongst the stakeholders, respectively, was the ranked top of the mean scores, thus farmers see communication as one of the reasons they are failing to make it in the industry. The least ranked challenge was state support. The major key stakeholders identified by farmers were government, NGOs, private sector and government trustees, such as CPAs who are appointed by the Department of Rural Development and Reform programme. These were said to be the major stakeholders and are visible in supporting the endeavours of the land restitution beneficiaries.

Furthermore, the farmers were asked to state the impact of the challenges on their operations. The analysis revealed that government is unable to give adequate support and lack or delays in communication has great adverse impact on the running of their businesses and operations. These challenges have caused much harm to the survival of these agricultural projects in the rural areas. One of the devastating effects of these challenges according to the beneficiaries was the reduction in production as a coping strategy. This shows that there is a need to support and capacitate the land restitution beneficiaries to be able to run and manage their businesses productively and reduce over-dependence on government for survival. Farmers also stated that the challenges they encounter, which are mainly caused by poor communication and government's inability to deal with the challenges, have forced them to resort to make-shift solutions such as farmers associations and proposal writing. These make-shift intervention strategies, farmers admit, are key to their survival and most of their activities are based on these self-crafted solutions, such as farmers associations and attendance of mentorship programmes where they received training on various aspects of farming and running a business.

7.4 KEY CONCLUSIONS FROM THIS STUDY

This section presents the major findings which are based from the specific objectives, which are: to determine the post-settlement challenges facing land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District Municipality area, assess the effects of post-settlement challenges on sustainable economic development in the area and to design strategies to curb the challenges facing land restitution beneficiaries. This study has used ten case studies from Vhembe District to investigate what could happen when people acquire land through the South African Government's land reform programme. The study has identified that challenges for post settlement lie in three broad areas, namely, project design and implementation, project continuity and the provision of post-settlement support. The main finding of the thesis is that the provision of land alone is not enough to ensure productive use of that land and to make a positive difference in people's livelihoods.

7.4.1. Secure access to land and provision of complementary support services is a critical aspect in securing improved standard of living of the poor people

Access to land is an important step in redressing the injustices of apartheid in South Africa, however, if land is to contribute to improving people's lives, especially those of the very poor, complementary support services are a critical intervention. Such services are widely expected to come from the State or/and other organs of the state because the majority of land reform beneficiaries are poor people, impoverished through the land dispossession of the previous apartheid government.

In all ten case studies presented here, land reform beneficiaries who are using the restored land reported that their greatest satisfaction to date was regaining land that they could call their own. In the case of Shimange, where the majority have not returned to the land, the emphasis was more on the symbolic return of the land. At Munzhedzi, where people had resettled on their land, the highest degree of satisfaction was found. This is because the people have acquired material benefits in the form of land for housing and ploughing, and this has been accessed by the majority of community members. In Kruger National Park there is a high degree of land use because of the collaboration strategy that was adopted. In Ndouvhada the land is not in use, except two houses rented by the white people who are staying there. In Getrudsberg the land which was supposed to be used for relocation is now rented to farmers who are using the farm for their cattle. In Kranspoort nothing is happening except few cattle that are grazing there

and in Manavhela Ben Lavin, which was a game reserve with accommodation, the land is lying idle with no animals and with dilapidated rooms that were used for accommodation.

In Shimange, the minority of members who have gained access to the land to date, similarly expressed happiness that they are back on their ancestral land and using it for grazing their livestock, ploughing and some are returning to stay, particularly at Mavungeni. The majority of the people, however, have not yet returned to the land, and do not have plans so far because of lack of resources to make use of the land. A major problem cited by the people is the distances between the farm and their places of residence. Many of the people have expressed disappointment because they expected government to help them relocate to their new land, but so far, no progress has been made. Community members at Shimange were found to be producing at a very small scale and could not expand due to lack of access to credit and affordable inputs. This situation is made worse by the fact that the development support grants owed to the community by the Commission on Restitution of Land Rights have not yet been released to them.

Nonetheless, food production, even on a small scale does make a significant contribution to household well-being. One of the farmers said “I am able to complement my salary with additional income from the farm produce; I am able to feed my family with fresh produce from the farm for three to four months a year”. Food security of some households at Shimange and Munzhedzi has certainly been improved through access to productive land, which is of much better quality than the land to which they had access in their previous places of residence.

This study suggests that many rural people, especially the poor and unemployed, are able and willing to farm on a small scale if they are given the opportunity. For them farming is largely driven by food needs, lack of alternative employment possibilities and the desire to alleviate poverty. Production of food crops can make a significant contribution to household food needs, even without cash sales. This suggests that access to land is indeed important for poverty alleviation in South Africa.

Unlike Munzhedzi and Makuleka where benefits from the use of land are enjoyed by most members, in the other eight places benefits are limited to a few households who have been willing to move onto the land without waiting for direction from the wider community, however, limited numbers of people who have worked the farm, have found satisfaction with being able to produce from those fields. Both of these communities have been tied up for lengthy periods in debates about how to use the farms as collective entities, but the examples

from other such farms in the area suggests that these plans are unlikely to ever get off the ground. In the absence of any clear decision or direction, a minority of individual household are producing for themselves without reference to the wider community. There is little doubt that many more members of these communities would benefit if the land was subdivided and individual production was more widely encouraged. Munzhedzi and Makuleka stand out as some of the few land reform projects in the country where the idea of group production and collaboration was discouraged at an early stage, resulting in clear benefits for its members.

7.4.2 Local Coordination for Service Delivery is a critical gap in post settlement support

In South Africa, land reform is the core responsibility of the Department of Rural Development and Land reform (including the Commission on Restitution of Land Rights and the Provincial Land Reform Offices) whereas the Provincial Departments of Agriculture deal with matters of agricultural support. Local Government, which is legally responsible for co-ordination of local development, typically does not see land reform as part of its mandate, and virtually no municipalities have included support to land reform in their Integrated Development Plans (IDPs). There is, therefore, a critical absence of co-ordination of services for land reform beneficiaries at a local level. The Commission on Restitution of Land Rights has tried to adopt the concept of ‘developmental restitution’ by setting up Settlement, Support and Development Units (SSDU) in each province, but major challenges remain regarding local co-ordination. Local municipalities, where land reform is implemented, are struggling to include the issue of land reform in their IDPs but if they can be made to understand their role and offered the necessary resources, they could play an important role which can help the beneficiaries.

In Limpopo, the RLCC and the Department of Agriculture have recently started a closer working relationship to provide support for land reform. This relationship has, however, yet to be strengthened at a local level through the inclusion of local municipalities. The experiences of Shimange and Gertrudsberg illustrate the problematic relationship with local Government. When representatives of Shimange and Gertrudsberg approached the Makhado municipality requesting that they be provided with water and electricity, the municipality responded by saying that it does not deal with land reform projects and that they do not have any allocation for that in their IDP, suggesting that their application should instead be directed to the Departments of Rural Development and Land Reform, Public Works and Water and Sanitation.

On the other hand, the role of DRDLR's Provincial Land Reform Office in land restitution still has to be well defined. Clarity needs to exist in many areas, including institutional support to communal property institutions and ongoing Monitoring and Evaluation of project performance, but these are not being carried out by any of the existing government bodies. The Local Municipality has shown no interest and great uncertainty in terms of establishing its role in restitution or other land reform programmes still exists.

Despite numerous efforts to get the local municipality to provide services like offering electricity and safe drinking water, the land reform beneficiaries are still struggling to get such. The land reform beneficiaries are told that land reform is not in the competency of the local municipality. Likewise, the higher level District Municipality, has not played any role, like providing support to land reform. Land reform beneficiaries are left without support from any direction and are made to fend for themselves. As the local government is where service delivery is supposed to happen, the issue of land reform could be best located at the local municipality, as the lowest form of government. This could be the most accessible because it is based in the locality of the land reform beneficiaries rather than in some distant provincial office.

Local Economic Development and IDP units within municipalities could be appropriate vehicles for provision of support to land reform, in terms of offering advice on credit and inputs for farmers and training CPAs on leadership and management. Lack of inter-governmental coordination has had a negative impact on the development of local areas. In this study it has been found that when land reform beneficiaries visit local municipality in order to request services, such as water, they are told that it is not the mandate of the local municipality. This has affected not only development in the settlements of the land reform beneficiaries and the sustainability of the inherited projects but also affected their livelihood.

7.4.3 Absence of Support Services limits productivity of farms acquired by large groups through the land reform programme

In most resettlement projects, under both restitution and redistribution, groups of beneficiaries have – under pressure from state officials who advocate the unitary farming system - opted to hold the land in common and to work the land as a group. The majority of the beneficiaries of land reform in rural area are poor, therefore, they remain heavily dependent on state support, both financially and otherwise. Particular needs of land reform beneficiaries include access to credits, supply of farm inputs and assistance with marketing, extension services among others.

Support for land reform beneficiaries differs according to their needs and aspirations. The needs of small plot-holders and large-scale commercial farmers are not the same, thus, group and individual projects have unique needs, similarly, their farming methods and strategies cannot be the same. Relevant support is needed for the different categories of beneficiaries at different settings. There is little prospect of land reform beneficiaries engaging in production for the market, without substantial assistance in all areas, from inputs to marketing. Small-holder production with appropriate support from state and NGOs can make a significant contribution to livelihoods of the rural poor, and their empowerment through the support which builds on the existing skills and knowledge they possess.

The case studies were all community-based initiatives that were, in the minds of officials, intended to lead to large-scale collective forms of production. In practice, the only land uses that have emerged have been based on individuals and households, largely against the wishes of official planners. These cases are thus characterised by small-holders producing on a very small scale, largely for household food purposes. Land reform policy needs to give adequate attention to the needs of smallholders, instead of concentrating on large, collective, 'commercial' projects. The needs of smallholders do not need a lot of organization and resources to get moving, and deliver the expected benefits. For the groups in this study, agricultural production could probably be improved by appropriate extension service and support in training, advice, ploughing, access to inputs, small scale irrigation and marketing.

The examples of Shimange reveal major difficulties with farm inputs, extension support and credit. Smallholders have struggled to expand their production on these farms because of lack of irrigation and fencing to ward off stray livestock. Individuals have applied for assistance under the Department of Agriculture but they never got any response from the extension officers or the Department. Considering what they have managed to produce so far without any support but relying on only the most rudimentary forms of irrigation, it is possible that they could have produced more if they were given appropriate support.

Kinsey and Binswanger (1993: 88) argue that smallholder agricultural growth cannot be achieved without access to farmer support services, such as grant funding as well as credit, finance and others. International experiences have shown that with adequate support services, smallholder farmers can significantly increase agricultural productivity and production. For example, in Zimbabwe, smallholder farmers doubled maize and cotton production when extension and marketing services were provided. Similar results were seen in South-East Asia

when access to farmer support services was provided. Simply providing land claimants with land in the absence of support services is unlikely to make a significant difference to their livelihoods.

7.4.4 Managerial deficiency

Managerial deficiency was identified as a serious concern on the day-to-day operation of the CPAs due to lack of proper planning, capacity and skills transfer and forecasting creates serious problems in relation to job and economic security of the employees. Irrelevant and poor planning is among the causes of failures and collapse of Land Reform projects.

In the case studies presented here, the RLCC has been the lead organization regarding planning for the land use and development of the acquired land. Both the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform and the RLCC require beneficiaries to compile land use and development plans culminating in business plans. This phase in the project cycle allows the state to release grants to the community, beneficiaries are, thus, compelled to draw up such plans so as to conform to official thinking. These formal plans are in most cases dictated by private consultants hired by the State to assist communities and tend to focus narrowly on agricultural production, with the neglect of alternative land uses, including housing. For example, the land use and development plan for Shimange completely rules out the possibility of resettling the community on the farm, despite the fact that the majority of the members currently reside between 20 and 70 kilometres away from the farm, making it difficult for them to farm the land under these conditions. The land use and development patterns drawn by the private sector made the Munzhedzi community to insist on the popular demand for resettlement on claimed land, and they refused to accept the state-imposed planning process; they ended up resettling themselves in defiance of official wishes. This has in turn implied that they could not get any grants because no formal planning has been done. Their priority was housing in a location that provided access to transport routes, and land for small-scale farming. This has now been achieved in an egalitarian way, which has provided direct benefits to most members of the community.

Planning for land reform needs to be more participatory, more flexible and more realistic, and to be properly linked to post-planning implementation. The evidence of most case studies suggests that plans often lack clarity in terms of who will provide what support to the land reform beneficiaries. In most cases, there are dissenting views within the communities about

how such plans were actually developed and approved, as most members appear not to have been part of planning and had not even been consulted. The officials fail to realize that the land reform beneficiaries do not need land support which promotes the idea of running a single commercial farm entity. They believe in access to individual plots for their own production rather than a collective enterprise within which they would have to compete for the limited employment opportunities. The imposition of inappropriate and unrealistic models of commercial farming which rely on huge loans and high expertise of farm management and marketing, and the exclusion of beneficiaries in participating in the planning process will result in changing the livelihood and poverty eradication status of the beneficiaries. McMillan, Nana and Savadogo (1992: 80) argues that successful settlements depend on the cumulative results of decisions made by settler families; those decisions will result from their perception of risk opportunities and constraints and the extent to which their potential interest are promoted. Without their interest and commitment, without their empowered participation in planning and implementation, settlement cannot succeed.

To be successful, projects require the support of various government departments, with a key role for the local municipality. In most cases, municipalities are brought into the process at the end of the planning cycle and are only then asked to provide a budget to support the project, hence, none of these projects appear in the IDP or LED plans of the local municipalities. This is not an issue peculiar to Makhado but to the whole country. A survey by Hall (2003) indicates that in 2002/3 none of the rural claims settled by the RLCC featured in the IDP of their respective municipalities. The land reform beneficiaries are in most cases called to participate at the implementation stage of the land reform policy, and this results in resistance, conflicts and infighting.

7.4.5 Institutional development and support forms a critical base for sustainable settlements

The potential for land reform projects, particularly group projects, to impact positively on the welfare of the poor is closely related to the nature of the institutions formed for purposes of land transfer and service provision. Such institutions include CPIs and trusts, local municipalities and traditional leadership institutions (insofar as they are located in the local areas where land reform beneficiaries are found). All these institutions have a role to play in support for the intended beneficiaries of land reform, but without a clear demarcation of roles

and responsibilities, conflicts and tensions often arise, affecting the viability of the land reform projects.

The CPAs and Trusts require extensive external support in the short term while they endeavour to establish themselves. This is partly because in most cases such external support are foreign to the land reform beneficiaries and take time for people to learn new ways of administration of land which are completely different from the customary ways in which decision are made about land allocation and use in tribal areas. Many CPAs do not receive any guidance or training in how to interpret and manage their affairs, including drawing their constitutions, financial matters, dispute resolution or even the specific rights of members to the land they have been allocated. This leads to particular problems, for example, where there is a dispute around how to divide the benefits arising from group activities among the community members. Clear systems need to be included in their constitution including the distribution of opportunities and benefits among members.

Within CPAs, the rights of individuals is a critical issue that needs to be attended to without compromise because without clearly spelling out rights of individuals, only a few people in the leadership will benefit from land reform. The rights of individuals within the large group need to be clear and understood by everyone. Such rights include rights to share in the wealth of the Association, including dividends (if there are any) and access to land. Productive activities clearly need to be decentralized to individuals and small groups of members, and not all run through the main CPA committee, which has effectively collapsed in most of the case studies.

7.4.6 Financial challenges

Like other farms in South Africa, most restitution farms in the Limpopo Province are also affected by perennial shortage of money which negatively affected the activities of the CPAs. Study participants indicated that the land reform was not followed by adequate funding from the government and this posed a serious challenge to the CPAs and their quest to make the beneficiaries secure, especially regarding employment, income and food. Most of the projects failed to kick off because of lack of money and workers are retrenched as the farms are not growing and do not have enough revenue to be sustainable.

7.5 POLICY IMPLICATIONS FOR POST SETTLEMENT SUPPORT AND ISSUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study was conducted at a time when government, different political parties and civil society in South Africa were concerned about the pace of land redistribution, and were arguing for acceleration of land delivery and some suggesting land expropriation without compensation. For instance, a presidential directive that all restitution claims be finalized has led to proposals for expropriation. A mammoth task remains in checking land that has already been claimed and restored to the claimants, how things are unfolding with them and how best the government can provide the necessary support to the large number of people who will take over as owners of the farms acquired through land restitution or other land reform programmes. The government should explore alternatives for post-settlement support as an important issue for land reform in South Africa. Some alternatives that may work in land reform include elements of a more proactive and integrated people-driven area-based approaches in dealing with land reform, including post-settlement support. Such approaches have been put to the test in the Makhado area by the NGO Nkuzi Development Association, under the heading of Area Land Reform Initiative (ALRI) but the question remains if these approaches are working and assisting the larger community of land reform beneficiaries, to benefit conclusively. Lack of commitment of the local sphere of governance and a commitment of resources, means that an area-based approach will not function. A critical issue in post-settlement is the vision held by the claimants about that particular land claim and area. The claimants should anonymously know and agree on what they want to do with their land and the results thereof; their objectives need to be clear. These issues need to be clearly dealt with because it has been shown that small-scale family farms can contribute to improved livelihoods of the poor, however, most land reform planning seem to favour large scale commercial farming, without taking into account the number of people involved in the process and their interests. With a supportive policy environment, it is likely that small scale family farms will be able to provide more benefits to more people than large-scale commercial farms run by committees.

There has recently been a move to involve private sector companies in post-settlement support through what is called “Strategic Partnerships”. This implies the formation of joint venture companies, bringing in workers, CPA and private sector companies, whereby the strategic partners effectively manage the farm on behalf of the owners in return for a management fee and the sharing of profits among the various shareholders (Derman *et al.*, 2006). Although such

initiatives are intended to support the beneficiaries, by maintaining large farms without giving options for direct participation by the small-scale farmers, the danger is that they overlook the actual land needs of the people by assuming that what they need is cash and this creates confusion, conflicts and at some stage unnecessary fights.

The CRLR does not have a strategy for post-settlement support in restitution cases, and this has resulted in confusion, conflict and the collapse of many projects that have been productive and contributing to the economy of the country before the land was restored to the claimants. The findings of the case studies presented here suggest that a solution to the lack of strategy must be found immediately so that co-ordination of support services and their location within institutions are more effective. Particular attention needs to be paid to institutional support, credits, inputs, extension, and farmer training. A holistic approach is required that co-ordinates the contribution of a wide range of state actors in the provision of support for land reform and which will include both small and large scale farmers.

7.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the findings, certain recommendations have been suggested. It has been proved by other researchers that lack of support to the land restitution beneficiaries is the main cause of poverty and unsustainable economic development and the collapse of the inherited projects under the land reform programmes, therefore, effective and efficient mechanisms should be put in place to address these serious challenges. The recommendations are therefore based on the themes of the research findings. Based on the results and findings of the study the following recommendations are made:

- The land restitution beneficiaries indicated that the majority of the members elected to the CPAs do not have capacity to run and manage restituted land or projects in the area, therefore, it is recommended that CPAs are trained and capacitated on land management and basic agriculture practices. This will give them the ability to manage and give the much needed and appropriate agriculture support to the land restitution beneficiaries. In order to promote good governance, the CPAs should be transparent and accountable to the beneficiaries who entrusted them with the responsibility to lead and manage and the executive members mandated to lead and manage should be held legally accountable as individuals for their actions in issues pertaining to the projects. A well-communicated code of conduct and constitutions should be developed and everyone should follow them. The CPAs should plan for land restitution that satisfies the needs

of the beneficiaries. If the CPAs are capacitated or trained, they will be able to solve many challenges without assistance. There is a need for different stakeholders and government structures to avail and introduce annual training on different skills, such as basic business management and project management. If and when this is done timeously, the beneficiaries will be able to run their projects without any difficulties. Capacitation and training of the beneficiaries is also recommended.

- As most beneficiaries stated that one of the major challenges to their post-settlement was lack of adequate support, it is, therefore, recommended that more support by the government be considered, especially, for the development of farmers and sourcing funding for them. At local level, there is a need for the municipalities to practically include issues related to land reform in their IDPs. Land reform does not encourage a range of settlement options, like small family farms, and instead promotes more commercially-oriented single-entity farms which in most cases address the needs of small minorities within the CPAs. Complementary support services for land reform are not being adequately planned or implemented, and no clear role has been allocated to municipalities. There is a pressing need to augment the current land reform efforts with services such as affordable credit, extension support, affordable inputs and agricultural training relevant to new entrants to the farming industry.
- Poor and absence of timely communication amongst various stakeholders was ranked among the top, it is therefore recommended that CPAs, private sectors and government departments improve or develop a communication strategy that will enable the easy flow of communication amongst the beneficiaries and other stakeholders.
- The results showed that farmers have adopted a number of measures and intervention strategies to cope with the challenges they are facing. The analysis further indicated that some of the strategies introduced by farmers such as writing proposals and forming farmers association were more responsive to their needs and sustainability. Based on this, it is, therefore, recommended that farmers be more proactive and find solutions as a collective. This will contribute to self-reliance and long-term survival of these projects. Land reform beneficiaries must also be skilled on applicable skills related to categorizing, crop production, irrigation, sorting, packaging and marketing of produce. Formal and informal training must be introduced to support the projects, community members and beneficiaries.

- Land restitution beneficiaries typically lack the necessary skills and capacity to sustain, manage and operate commercial farms. As a result of past failures, the land restitution beneficiaries should recognize the value of strategic partnerships between them and commercial farmers. Leading officials have spoken about ‘public-private partnerships’ as an ‘innovative’ approach (Gwanya, 2004). These enterprise partnerships not only ensure the commercial viability of the restituted land, but can potentially create new income streams for the community from land rental, shareholding in the agri-business entity and investment in other income-generating ventures such as tourism. In a number of cases, the partnership approach has enabled the land reform beneficiaries to gain ownership of the most profitable aspects of agriculture, namely marketing and value-adding and hence benefit from the continued productivity of the farms. Partnerships have resulted in the revival of the enterprise and new investments, highlighting their potential to achieve a ‘win-win’ outcome for beneficiaries and the commercial partner. Scholars have argued that although these partnerships make sense in situations in high-value commercial agriculture, it is important that the resulting enterprise develops multiple income streams to off-set the high expectation for employment among beneficiaries. One scholar has observed that the settlement of claims appears to be conditional on partnerships’ outcome (Hall, 2004: 20). The strategic partnerships forged in the case of the Makuleka and Ratombo communities are examples of success stories. The factors determining the success of these cases have been “the communities’ effective transition to land ownership through profitable joint venture partnerships, continued effective land use (for example, farming and eco-tourism) and the communities’ ability to generate tangible (financial, skills transfer and land use) benefits after the land was restituted. The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform should organize workshops and training on these different kinds of partnership for the beneficiaries.
- The case of the Makuleke Community on the border of the Kruger National Park shows that forging partnerships with strategic partners to manage restituted land can have a positive developmental outcome (Robins & Van der Waal, 2008). The Makuleke community has benefited from various income streams and job opportunities, whilst the outcome has itself attracted NGOs to support the community in a range of development projects. Writers report that the success is attributable to the role of the

CPA, which established an early strong and supportive relationship with the Traditional Authority.

The move to involve private sector companies in post-settlement support through what is called “Strategic Partnerships”, implies the formation of joint venture companies, bringing in workers, CPA and private sector companies, whereby the strategic partner will effectively manage the farm on behalf of the owners in return for a management fee and the sharing of profits among the various shareholders (Derman *et al.*, 2006). Although such initiatives are intended to support the beneficiaries, by maintaining large farms without giving options for direct participation by small-scale farmers, the danger is that they will overlook the actual land needs of the people by assuming that what they need is cash (Manenzhe,2007:111).

- Man-made challenges like corruption, nepotism, mismanagement and the infighting which affect the day-to-day running of the farms, should be dealt with. Failure to call meetings by the leadership as outlined in the CPAs’ constitution is a major challenge because the majority of the beneficiaries end up not knowing what is happening with their projects and their right to have a voice in the management of their projects is ignored. There should be a body in place to root out corrupt practices.

7.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Every research has limitations which should be taken into consideration to understand the context. The study focused on the land restitution beneficiaries and their projects in the Limpopo Province. Other beneficiaries and projects were not considered and included for the purpose of this study. The study, therefore, obtained a restricted set of data which might negatively impacted generalization of the findings.

No attempt was made to put forward hypotheses to be tested since the research study was exploratory and descriptive in nature. An attempt was only made to establish patterns, trends and relationships between variables in the quantitative part of the study and also to understand and describe prevalence in the qualitative section. The sample was predominantly black in accordance with the beneficiaries of most land reform programmes.

In order to have a thorough understanding of the basis of the analysis, challenges that were encountered during data collection are now briefly discussed. Three main challenges were experienced during data collection. The first challenge was in relation to obtaining permission to conduct research from Vhembe District Municipality, local municipalities and CPAs. Letters

to request permission were written and directed to the municipal managers and secretaries of the CPAs as the administrative authorities responsible for the day-to-day activities of the municipalities and the CPAs. There was a long delay before the permission was granted. The secretaries of the CPAs would request time for them to have the CPAs meeting or the beneficiaries' meetings before they could grant a permission to conduct interviews. These delays affected the time of finishing and submitting the research project.

Another challenge was on the unwillingness of respondents to participate. Some of the respondents were unwilling to participate because of the sensitivity of the topic, however, the respondents were assured of their anonymity. Research participants were also required to sign informed consent form to indicate their voluntary participation in the research project. This confirmed that the process was voluntary and no participant was forced to participate; this encouraged respondents to participate. Despite these challenges, the researcher was of the opinion that data collected represented the real situation.

7.8 SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER STUDY

The research project was only conducted in the Vhembe District in the Limpopo Province, therefore the findings of this research project are only applicable to Vhembe District in the Limpopo Province. The research project was directed to the beneficiaries of the land reform programmes without getting a word from the previous beneficiaries, before land reform programmes. Further research attempts could also include other beneficiaries from the other districts in the Limpopo Province and provinces in the Republic of South Africa and also the previous beneficiaries during the previous governments from 1913. There is therefore an urgent need for in-depth research on this topic to determine what the challenges and lessons from local government are in their attempts or lack thereof, to incorporate land reform into their local development plans.

7.9 CONCLUSION

The objective of this final chapter was to provide a brief summary of the research question which guided this study. Successful attempts to provide answers to these questions were provided. It is the view of the researcher that focus on the prevalence of challenges facing the land restitution beneficiaries In the Vhembe district was aimed at finding intervention strategies to deal with the fate of the land restitution beneficiaries. The researcher is of the opinion that the study indeed achieved the objectives as articulated in chapter 1. This study served as an

effort to expand the frontiers of knowledge with regard to existing literature concerning the post-settlement challenges faced by land restitution beneficiaries and their impact on sustainable economic development.

This chapter has highlighted some key challenges for South Africa's land reform programme like poor management, inadequate skills and know-how among beneficiaries and weak institutional capacity to provide resources and technical services which contribute to multiple land reform failures. It has argued that post-settlement support is critical to improving the livelihoods of the intended beneficiaries, and that failure to provide it undermines the developmental potential of land reform. Access to land should, therefore, be complemented with the building of sound institutions at the local level with capacity to enable land reform beneficiaries to use their land and other resources efficiently and effectively; there should also be a provision of support services, such as extension advice, access to credit and access to land reform.

This research has shown that despite the absence of post-settlement support in the form of grants, extension advice and proper planning, land reform beneficiaries will embark on those land use initiatives which they are most familiar with. Interventions from the State - when it decides to become more involved – should not eradicate those initiatives but rather find ways to enhance them and increase productivity (Manenzhe, 2007: 112). Lahiff (2003: 48) states that if land reform is to meet its wider objectives, new ways will have to be found to transfer land on a substantial scale and to provide necessary support services to a much wider class of landowners.

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ANNEXURE A

LETTER FOR ASKING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

ENQ: Tshigomana T.S

P.O Box 3354

Cell: 082 050 6969

Louis Trichardt

Email: tstshigomana@gmail.com

0920

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a registered student for a Doctoral Degree in Philosophy at the University of Venda. In accordance with the requirements for this degree, I am conducting a study on ‘**Post-settlement challenges on Land Restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District**’.

I would be most grateful if you would help me with this part of my research project by completing the interview schedule. I assure you that the information will be confidential and used for educational purpose only.

Thanking you in advance.

Yours faithfully

.....

TSHIGOMANA TSHIFULARO SAMUEL

Student Number: 11576285

ANNEXURE B

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION AND INFORMED CONSENT

Study Title: Post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District. Before agreeing to participate in this research, I strongly encourage you to read the following explanation of this study: This statement describes the purposes and procedures of the study. Also described your right to withdraw from the study at any time. The study has been approved by the Research Ethics Board of University of Venda.

Explanation of procedures

This study is designed to investigate Post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District Municipality of Limpopo Province. I conduct this study to learn more about this question since its findings can contribute much in addressing management of resources and projects for the benefit of the land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District. Participation in this study is by completion of questionnaire and face-to-face interview which will last between 30 minutes to an hour. The interview is conducted by me, audio-taped and later transcribed for the purpose of data analysis.

isks and Discomforts

There are no risks or discomfort that is anticipated from your participation in the study. Potential risks or discomfort include possible feelings of sadness when asked questions during the interview.

Benefits

The anticipated benefit of participating is the opportunity to discuss feelings, perceptions, and concerns related to the post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District; and contribute to sustainable economic development through job creation and poverty alleviation

Confidentiality

The information gathered during the study will remain confidential in secure premises during this project. Only the researcher will have access to the study data and information. There will not be any identifying names on the surveys or interview transcripts; they will be coded and the key to the code will be kept locked away. Your names and any other identifying details will never be revealed in any publication of the results of this study. The tapes will be destroyed at the completion of this study. The results of the research will be published in the form of a research paper and may be published in a professional journal or presented at professional meetings. It may only be published in book form. The knowledge obtained from this study is of great value in guiding the government, Political structures, Private sector and land restitution beneficiaries in policy development, implementation and evaluation for the success of land reform in general.

Withdrawal without Prejudices

Participation in this study is voluntary; refusal to participate will incur no penalty. You are free to withdraw consent and discontinue participation in this project at any time without prejudice or penalty. You are also free to refuse to answer any question I might ask you.

Further questions and follow-up

You are welcome to ask the researcher any question that occurs to you during the survey or interview. If you have further questions once the interview is completed, you are encouraged to contact the researcher using the contact information given below.

If you have further questions or concerns about the study please contact myself at 082 050 6969 or via e-mail at tstshigomana@gmail.com

I, (name, please print clearly),
have read the above information. I freely agree to participate in this study. I understand that I am free to refuse to answer any question and to withdraw from the study at any time. I understand that my responses will be kept anonymous.

.....

.....

Participant Signature

Date

If.

- (a) You would like a copy of your interview transcripts once it is available
- (b) You are interested in information about the study results as a whole and/or
- (c) If you are willing to be contacted again in the future for a possible follow-up interview, please provide contact information below:

Check those that apply

- I would like a copy of interview transcript
- I would like information about study result
- I would like to be contacted in the future for a possible follow-up interview.

Write your address clearly below. Please also provide an email address if you have one.

Mail address

Email address:

Researcher contact information: TSHIGOMANA TSHIFULARO SAMUEL

Student No: 11576285

Cell: 082 050 6969

E-mail: tstshigomana@gmail.com

Enq: Mr Maliaga
082 074 7029

NDOUVHADA CPA
MIDORONI VILLAGE
HA-KUTAMA
2019/08/05

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

On behalf of the Ndouvhada Communal Property Association, I hereby give you permission to conduct interviews on the topic: **Post-settlement challenges in the Vhembe District Municipality as per your request.**

Thanking you in advance.

.....

Mr Maliaga H.P
Secretary

GERTRUDSBURG CPA

Enq: Mr Mabila N

ZAMEKOMSTE

076 744 1296

2019/03/15

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN.

REQUEST: CONDUCTING INTERVIEWS

We hereby give you permission to interview the secretary and/or chairperson on your topic:

Post-settlement challenges in the Vhembe District Municipality.

We hope that your findings will also assist us in a better management of our projects.

Thank you.

.....

Mr Mabila N

KRANSPOORT CPA

Enq: Mr Munyai

071 522 4585

VIVO ROAD

0920

22 NOVEMBER 2019

REQUEST i.r.o CONDUCTING INTERVIEWS.

The Kraansport Communal Property Association has approved your request to conducting interviews.

Thank you

.....

Mr Munyai

ANNEXURE D: INSTRUMENT: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District Municipality?

1. What are the post-settlement challenges of the land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe district Municipality?

2. What are the impacts of the land restitution post-settlement challenges on the sustainable economic development?

3. Which intervention strategies can help sustain the restitution projects and eradicate poverty of the beneficiaries?

4. What are the supports to be provided to the land restitution beneficiaries?

5. What are the challenges impacting on the Land restitution projects?

6. How is the CPA contributing to the success or failure of the land restitution projects?

Thank you for your contribution

ANNEXTURE E: INSTRUMENT: QUESTIONNAIRE

This study is about post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries in the Vhembe District Municipality. This is an opportunity for you to provide understanding on post-settlement challenges on land restitution beneficiaries and their impact on sustainable economic development in the Vhembe district Municipality. There is no right or wrong answer.

Please put **(X)** where you find it is appropriate.

SECTION A: Biographical details of respondent

1. Gender of respondent

Male	
Female	

2. Age of respondent

Less than 20 years	
21 - 30	
31 - 40	
41-50	
51 years and above	

3. Position of respondent

Provincial manager: Agriculture	
Provincial manager: Local Economic Development, Environment and Tourism	
LED manager: Local Municipality	
CPA Secretary	
Nkuzi Development Association representative	

SECTION B: POST-SETTLEMENT CHALLENGES

	CHALLENGES	Place an X in the box that applies to you				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
4	The Department of Land Restitution and Land reform assists the beneficiaries of land restitution	1	2	3	4	5
5	The state's participation is visible	1	2	3	4	5
6	The Executive committee is transparent	1	2	3	4	5
7	The Communal Property Association manages well	1	2	3	4	5
8	The Communal Property Association holds meetings with the beneficiaries	1	2	3	4	5
9	There is good communication amongst the stakeholders.	1	2	3	4	5

	IMPACT	Place an X in the box that applies to you

		Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
10	Land restitution helps in eradicating poverty	1	2	3	4	5
11	Land restitution unites all the stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5
12	The implementation of laws, policies and strategies are easy to understand	1	2	3	4	5
13	The land restitution projects are sustainable	1	2	3	4	5
14	The land restitution process is time bound	1	2	3	4	5
15	Government departments have strong capacity to deal with challenges	1	2	3	4	5

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	INTERVENTION STRATEGIES	Place an X in the box that applies to you				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
16	There are enough intervention strategies which bring economic development	1	2	3	4	5
17	The intervention strategies lead to sustainable land restitution projects	1	2	3	4	5
18	The intervention strategies prevent conflicts amongst the beneficiaries	1	2	3	4	5
19	The municipalities include the issues of land reform in their IDPs for sustainable economic development	1	2	3	4	5
20	There are enough strategies which cover all the stages of restitution	1	2	3	4	5
21	Intervention strategies are communicated timeously to the land restitution beneficiaries	1	2	3	4	5

	SUPPORT	Place an X in the box that applies to you				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

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22	The government gives support to the beneficiaries	1	2	3	4	5
23	The NGOs, private sector and government work together giving support to the beneficiaries	1	2	3	4	5
24	The government capacitates the chiefs and communities to understand restitution challenges	1	2	3	4	5
25	The government supports the CPAs in matters related to finance management	1	2	3	4	5
26	The government capacitates the CPAs on the management of projects and leadership roles	1	2	3	4	5
27	The government capacitates the stakeholders on conflict management	1	2	3	4	5

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Thank you for your contribution

EDITORIAL LETTER

13 January, 2021

This is to certify that I, Dr P Kaburise, of the English Department, University of Venda, have proofread the research report, titled - POST-SETTLEMENT CHALLENGES ON LAND RESTITUTION BENEFICIARIES IN THE VHEMBE DISTRICT - by Tshigomana Tshifularo Samuel (student number: 11576285). I have indicated some amendments which the student has undertaken to effect, before the final report is submitted.

Dr P Kaburise (0794927451; email: phyllis.kaburise@gmail.com)

Dr P Kaburise: BA (Hons) University of Ghana (Legon, Ghana); MEd University of East Anglia (Cambridge/East Anglia, United Kingdom); Cert. English Second Language Teaching, (Wellington, New Zealand); PhD University of Pretoria (South Africa)