



**EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF GOVERNMENT SUPPORT PROGRAMME ON  
THE DEVELOPMENT OF LAND REFORM FARMS IN SOUTH AFRICA**

by

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## DECLARATION

I, Ramakgodu Benjamin Mphahlele hereby declare that this thesis represents my own work for my submission of the PhD in Sustainable Agriculture at the University of the Free State, it has not been submitted previously to this or any other institution for other qualification/s.

I have read the University's current research ethics guidelines and accept responsibility in accordance with the University's Ethics Committee.

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Date

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## ABSTRACT

Concerns have been raised in various studies regarding the unproductive use of agricultural land acquired through land reform programme. Given the vital role of agriculture in creating jobs and ensuring food security, it is essential to make concerted efforts to promote the development of land reform farms for commercial purposes. This study aims to evaluate the initiatives undertaken by various stakeholders to facilitate the commercial use of land reform farms and contribute empirical evidence to shape support programs.

The study is guided by the development theory, which emphasises the importance of considering the actors and structural powers in the development process, as their influence plays a pivotal role in the relevance of policies. The researcher sought to demonstrate how the development theory has informed the existing policies related to the development of land reform farms. To gather comprehensive data, a mixed-method approach was employed, allowing for the triangulation of findings from various sources. Quantitative data was collected from 122 participants using survey questionnaires, while qualitative insights were obtained through three focus group discussions with farmers and four open-ended discussions with commodity organizations. For data analysis, Microsoft Software Package (Version 2020) was utilised, and a Pearson Correlation Coefficient approach was applied to examine the nature, strength, and direction of the key variables being measured. Additionally, a correlation coefficient was used to assess the frequency and direction of interactions between these variables.

The study indicates that most farmers gained income from farming due to land access and support. Partnership effectiveness was insufficient for enhancing most farmers' skill sets. Although Land Development Support (LDS) fulfilled most of farmers' desires for commercial farming, farm sustainability might suffer due to insufficient entrepreneurial aptitude. Additionally, comprehensive stakeholder consultation in policy development could enhance policy relevance for addressing potential challenges in farm sustainability. Land size and its utilisation ( $r = -0.2700$ ); Funding sufficiency for farm production ( $r = 0.1775$ ); Income derived after LDS ( $r = 0.5212$ ); Aspirations of farmers ( $r = 0.0757$ ); Partnership arrangement and sustainability of

production ( $r=0.0044$ ) emphasises the importance of remodelling the partnership arrangement to cub its current challenges.

In conclusion these findings underline the need for a more streamlined approach that involves the active participation of relevant stakeholders, a well-defined funding model, and the selection and capacity building of farmers involved in developing land reform farms. This holistic approach is essential to address the challenges associated with unproductive land use and to foster the successful development of land reform farms for commercial purposes, thereby contributing to enhanced food security and job creation.

**Keywords:** Land Reform, Commercialisation, Partnership, Entrepreneurship, Smallholder- commercial orientated

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ABSA	Amalgamated Bank of South Africa
AFS	Agri-food system
ANC	African National Congress
ARC	Agricultural Research Council
ASGISA	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa
BATAT	Broadening of Access to Agriculture Thrust
CASP	Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme
CIPC	Companies and Intellectual Property Commission
CRDP	Comprehensive Rural Development Programme
DALRRD	Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development
DBSA	Development Bank of Southern Africa
DGRV	German Cooperative and Raiffeisen Confederation
DLA	Department of Land Affairs
DPME	Department of Monitoring and Evaluation
DRDLR	Department of Rural Development and Land Reform
DWA	Department of Water and Sanitation
FNB	First National Bank
FSP	Farmer support programme
GATT	General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
HSRC	Human Science Research Council
IFC	International Finance Corporation
LDS	Land Development Support programme
KPMG	Klynveld Peat Marwick Goerdeler
LRAD	Land Redistribution and Agricultural Development
NAMC	National Agriculture Marketing Council

NDA	National Department of Agriculture
NT	National Treasury
MAFISA	Micro Agricultural Finance Institution of South Africa
PLAP	Proactive Land Acquisition Policy
PLAS	Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy
RADP	Recapitalization and Development Programme
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SEDA	Small Enterprise Development Agency
SETA	Sector education and Training Association
SLAG	Settlement Land Acquisition Grant
SLLDP	State Lease and Disposal Policy
STATSSA	Statistics South Africa
UKBI	United Kingdom Business Incubation
WB	World Bank
WTO	World Trade organisation
WPSALP	White Paper on South African Land Reform Programme

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

#### 1.1 BACKGROUND

A land audit conducted by the government and previous studies indicates that before the first democratic elections in South Africa in 1994, the government, large private companies, and white commercial farmers owned 87% of the country's agricultural land (DRDLR, 2017; Hall, 2010). This resulted from the extensive land dispossession that occurred after the colonisation of native black South Africans. Through coercive military, legal, administrative, and economic measures, black South Africans were excluded from access to and ownership of land and were either moved to or remained in what became known as native reserves (Hall, 2010). Rungasamy (2011) posits that expropriation and dispossession of land from indigenous peoples commenced with the arrival of Dutch settlers in 1652. In 1658, the Khoisan, who were the first indigenous people the European settlers encountered, were informed to relocate from the west of the Salt and Libesbeck Rivers, and from 1795 to 1910 the British occupied the Cape and Natal which were annexed as British colonies in 1843 (Rungasamy, 2011).

During the 1800s, the British and Boer governments enacted legislation restricting natives' residence and movement. Such legislation included the Native Location Act of 1879, the Glen Grey Act of 1894, and Squatters Law Act No. 21 of 1895 (Rungasamy, 2011). These statutes applied to the Cape Colony, Transvaal, and Transkei areas, restricting black families to occupying one plot with a maximum of five members, who were required to provide labour for a single white family (Rungasamy, 2011). Hall (2010) emphasised the 1894 Glen Grey Act's pivotal role in shaping the Cape land legislation. This Act defined land tenure, specified the size and types of holdings, outlined rules for succession, and imposed taxation on land and labour. It also limited rights and personal liberties, introducing individual tenure on four-morgen plots, aligning with the Afrikaner Bond's "hut and garden" proposal. This "one man, one plot" principle limited black farmers to small-scale farming in most Transkei areas (Hall, 2010).

The Union of South Africa was formed in 1910 and comprised four provinces: the Cape, Natal, Transvaal, and Free State. The government aimed to create a unified

land and labour dispensation for the country (Rungasamy, 2011). The Natives Land Act of 1913 marked a significant milestone, as it aimed to deprive the majority of black South Africans of the right to own land for their economic well-being and sustainability. This legislation, passed by the Union Parliament, became the foundation of apartheid and persisted until the 1990s when it was repealed in favour of the current land reform policy (Rungasamy, 2011; Modise and Mtshiselwa, 2013). Further legislation included the Natives (Urban Areas) Act of 1923, which was extended through the Black (Urban Areas) Act of 1945. These Acts intended to accommodate black people in separate urban residential areas (Rungasamy, 2011).

Other Acts included the Native Trust and Land Act of 1936, which was meant to extend the land set aside for native reserves from 7.3% (under the Natives Land Act of 1913) to almost 13% and assumed responsibility for the purchase and administration of all native reserve areas (Saunders, 2003). In 1937, the Natives Laws Amendment Act was implemented to prohibit black people from purchasing land in urban areas (Barber, 1987). The first Group Areas Act was passed in 1950, followed by a second in 1966. These Acts provided for segregated land areas where only individuals from a particular racial group were allowed to live. These Acts also regulated interracial property transactions, exacerbating the imbalance in land distribution in favour of white commercial farmers (Rungasamy, 2011). Moreover, a Betterment policy was also developed in the 1930s utilising three legislations; Land Act of 1913, Natives Administration Act of 1927 and Natives Trust and Land Act of 1936. This policy was meant to combat erosion, conserve the environment, and improve agricultural production in the black reserves but couldn't be fully implemented because of territorial separation of the races and a bureaucratic-technocratic style of thinking (De Wet, 1987).

After the 1994 democratic elections, land reform gained a central place in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), which envisioned a transfer of 30% of the country's agricultural land to emerging black farmers within five years (Van der Westhuizen, 2005). With the advent of democracy, the South African Government has given the land reform programme a greater political priority than other measures to promote agricultural development, which has resulted in two significant challenges. The first is the rate at which agricultural land is transferred to black farmers, and the

second is supporting the productive use of the transferred land for agriculture (Greenberg, 2010).

The land reform programme has been implemented across the nine provinces of South Africa since 1994, with land redistribution as one of its priorities since 1995 (DLA, 1997). The land redistribution programme is based on the Provision of Land and Assistance Act (Act 126 of 1993) and Section 25 (b)(5) of the Constitution of 1996 and aims to provide land for settlement purposes and financial assistance for agricultural purposes (DLA, 1997). The land redistribution programme has, since 2006, promoted a sub-programme known as the proactive land acquisition strategy (PLAS). PLAS's implementation commenced in earnest in 2008 (DLA, 2006). PLAS aims to acquire land for black people to promote agricultural development, economic growth, employment creation, and equity within the agricultural sector (DLA, 2006). According to the Department of Monitoring and Evaluation (DPME), PLAS acquired approximately 2.2 million hectares and made this land accessible to black farmers between 2008 and 2020 across the country's nine provinces (DPME, 2020).

Throughout the years and across South Africa, land reform farmers have also received support from various government initiatives, but despite such support, they continue to be unsuccessful as farmers (DPME, 2013; DPME, 2015). Since 2018 farmers allocated PLAS farms across the nine provinces of South Africa have benefitted from the land development support programme (LDS) (DRDLR, 2018). In 2018, the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) initiated a land development support programme aimed at assisting black farmers. This initiative collaborates with commodity organisations to ensure land reform farms' productivity. The government provides grant funding based on specific farm business plans covering infrastructure development, machinery and equipment acquisition, production inputs, workers' salaries, mentorship, and commodity organisations' management fees. Commodity organisations are required to develop business plans and provide technical expertise and market support (DRDLR, 2018; DRDLR, 2020). Grant funding is administered through a partnership between banking institutions, the department, and the farmers (DRDLR, 2018).

## **1.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM**

Land reform, specifically the land redistribution programme (LRP), provides for the designation of land for settlement purposes, and financial assistance to people acquiring land for agricultural purposes (DLA, 2006). Between 1995 and 2010, the LRP introduced various sub-programmes, including the Settlement for Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG), the Farm Equity Share Scheme (FES), the Commonage Scheme, Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD), and Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS) and all except PLAS have since been phased out because they failed to meet their objectives (Moeng, 2011; Kepe and Hall, 2016). Broadly the objectives of the sub-programmes were SLAG: To acquire land mainly for settlement, FES: To acquire shares in existing agribusiness for farmers, LRAD: To acquire land for agricultural production. Therefore, as a strategy to sustain land acquisition under the land redistribution programme, PLAS was launched in 2006, with its implementation commencing in earnest in 2008, serving as the sole mechanism for acquiring land and expediting the land acquisition process (DLA, 2007).

The PLAS approach to acquiring land was primarily aimed at the poor and was based on purchasing land either because of the property's location, its amenability to subdivision, its suitability for the agricultural activities the government wishes to promote, or because it is available at a bargain price (DLA, 2006). The DRDLR identifies land on the market, proactively acquires it, and stores it, eventually making the land available to farmers through leasehold agreements (DLA, 2006). Initially, PLAS was designed to lease farms to farmers for five years, with an option to purchase through the LRAD programme (DLA, 2007). However, due to the discontinuation of the LRAD programme during the initial stages of implementing PLAS as a land acquisition strategy, the DLA introduced an extended leasehold system without standardisation based on farmers' or beneficiaries' needs (DRDLR, 2013; Kepe and Hall, 2016). Nevertheless, since 2013, the former DRDLR (now the DALRRD) developed the State Lease and Disposal Policy (SLLDP) in 2013 (amended in 2019) and the Proactive Land Acquisition Policy (PLAP) in 2019. These policies aim to provide subsistence farmers with land through direct transfer or free leasehold, small-scale and medium to large-scale farmers to lease land for 30 years, standardise the implementation process, ensure uniformity in beneficiary selections, and align beneficiaries' needs with development interventions (DRDLR, 2013; DRDLR, 2019a).

Land reform's importance is widely acknowledged globally in Asian, Latin American and African continents. South Africa is not an exception in addressing land reform, as it has the potential to deal with social injustices, gender inequality, conflict prevention, job creation, and fluctuations in agricultural production (Van Zyl *et al.*, 1996; Quan, 2000; KPMG and SEDA, 2012; Kepe and Hall, 2016; Jacobs, 2014). The South African Government introduced various grant programmes to support agricultural development on redistributed farms. These programmes include the National Department of Agriculture's (NDA) Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) in 2004 (CASP, 2004) and the DRDLR's Recapitalisation and Development Programme (RADP) (RADP, 2011). However, evaluation reports on both programmes, commissioned by the Presidency of South Africa through the University of Pretoria, indicated, amongst other shortcomings, insufficient progress in promoting commercialisation, poor market access, limited employment opportunities, limited skills transfer, and limitations in achieving food security (DPME, 2013; DPME, 2015).

Due to persistent unproductive use of occupied PLAS farms by land reform farmers, the DRDLR, in collaboration with a consortium comprising the Agricultural Research Council (ARC) and Entsika Consulting Pty (Ltd), conducted a comprehensive scientific analysis of these farms. The primary objective was to determine the land's agricultural potential and provide the necessary support to the farmers (DRDLR, 2019b). In response to the report's findings and to promote accelerated inclusive growth and job creation, the department introduced the land development support (LDS) programme. LDS is a grant support initiative to assist black smallholder farmers in developing fully productive, sustainable, and viable commercial enterprises (DRDLR, 2018; National Treasury, 2019). Farms selected for support through LDS are chosen based on scientific analysis, with a focus on those with a potential income ranging from R350,000.00 to R700,000.00, termed "Category 2: medium scale commercial farms" (DRDLR, 2019b). The benchmarks and farms' categorisation were based on a study conducted by Hall, as cited by the DRDLR (2019b). Hall's research revealed that in 2002, 51% of commercial farmers earned an annual gross income of less than R300,000.00. This amount was adjusted for inflation to approximately R700,000.00 per annum in 2018 when farms were selected for the department's support (DRDLR, 2019b).

Prioritisation for support was based on the farm's commercial viability or potential net income, given optimal conditions. This prioritisation aligns with the LDS objectives of supporting agricultural enterprises in becoming productive and attaining viable commercial levels (DRDLR, 2018). However, the mechanisms adopted to support farms are primarily determined by the government. These include partnerships between farmers and commodity organisation aimed at facilitating farm development, such as business plan development, production and market facilitation, inputs and machinery procurement, training and mentorship, and infrastructure development. The department and farmers are also partnered with commercial banks for funds administration (DRDLR, 2018; DRDLR, 2020).

Various studies (Kirsten and Van Zyl, 1998; Weidemaan, 2004; Singini and Van Rooyen, 1995; Oettle *et al.*, 1998) have indicated the need for support services for smallholder or emerging farmers to produce at commercial levels, but they do not emphasize the importance of farmers partnering with experts in their field to ensure sustainable enterprises. Matiwane and Terblanche (2012) indicated that projects are often designed at the national level based on political considerations, technical concerns, and macroeconomic targets which are not aligned with farmers' needs, which could adversely affect these projects' success. According to Field (1997), projects often fail because their scope is not fully appreciated, and their needs are not fully understood. Gandidzanwa *et al.* (2021) indicate that in many countries, land reform failures can be attributed to flaws in implementation, poor post-settlement support, and poor beneficiary participation in project identification and design. Furthermore, a study conducted by the Human Science Research Council (HSRC, 2013) on agrarian reform and poverty reduction in South Africa recommended that resource-poor small farmers and landless farm workers directly participate in the policy formulation and development which affect them. Swanepoel and De Beer (2006) highlighted that people know their needs and will not be easily moved to action if they do not feel a need, irrespective of the reality and urgency of that need.

Various support mechanisms were previously offered to develop land reform farms with limited success. Government and non-government institutions' initiatives are important in providing much-needed support to land reform farms. However, there has been a limited investigation on the influence of integrated support initiatives'

development of land reform farms and farmers for the purpose of commercial production. This study aimed to evaluate government and non-government programmes' effects on land reform farms' development in South Africa.

### **1.3 RESEARCH AIM**

This study aimed to evaluate government support programmes' impact on land reform farms' development in South Africa and to propose an integrated support model which promotes their development.

#### **1.3.1 Objectives**

- To assess the governmental agricultural support programme' effectiveness in promoting land reform farms' development.
- To determine the potential role commodity organisations can perform in contributing towards land reform farms' success.
- To determine the extent of consideration of farmer's aspirations in LDS programme formulation.
- To propose an integrated support model which promotes land reform farms' development.
- To draw implications concerning support policy formulation, and programme design and implementation.

### **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The following list of research questions was formulated to achieve the above-mentioned objectives.

- How effective is the government's agricultural support programme in promoting land reform farms' development?
- What potential role can commodity organisations perform in contributing towards land reform farms' success?
- To what extent where land reform farmers' aspirations considered when the government develop support programme?
- What integrated support model can be designed to promote land reform farms' development?

- What implications can be drawn to support policy formulation and programme design and implementation?

## **1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

Land reform is important for social and economic justice in South Africa, and agricultural production is important for food security, economic growth, employment, and sustainable livelihoods, amongst other reasons. Therefore, it is of critical importance to implement a land reform programme which addresses social imperatives and promotes sustainable agricultural production. However, the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development and various research studies have indicated the lack of adequate and appropriate post-acquisition development support for land reform farms, which has resulted in agricultural production's collapse. Insignificant agricultural development has been recorded where agricultural development support was provided through various government programmes in the form of grants.

This study was necessary to investigate the insignificant progress in the development of land reform farms into commercial farms. This lack of progress might not solely be a result of a lack of support, as various grant support, for example, CASP and the RADP, were implemented previously. Therefore, this study challenged the assumption that land reform failures in the agricultural production context are mainly associated with a lack of post-settlement support. It is important to investigate the factors that contribute to this support's ineffectiveness in developing agricultural production and its impact on land reform farmers development.

## **1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

According to Babbie and Mouton (2005), the research design is a justified strategy or a design of how the researcher intends to conduct the study. This study adopted a mixed-method design comprising qualitative and quantitative research approaches within a realism paradigm. Realism is currently a prominent approach in philosophy science and gaining attention, as realism can constitute a productive stance for mixed-method research and its collaborations (Sayer, 2000; Maxwell and Mittapalli, 2010). The quantitative approach was utilised to quantify and correlate statistical data as a means of determining the impact of government and non-government (commodity

organisations) support programmes on the development of land reform farmers in South Africa. The researcher employed a qualitative approach to ascertain land reform farmers' perceptions of government institutions and commodity organisations' (herein referred to as non-government institutions) interventions and to investigate factors which were not considered when developing the support programmes. The qualitative approach was also employed to study the non-government institutions' perceptions of the support programmes. Integrating the two research methods allowed the researcher to triangulate the results to enhance the study's credibility and validity.

### **1.6.1 Target population and sampling**

Katz (2015) defines a population as an identifiable set of interests related to the phenomena under investigation. This study's population comprised 147 farms under PLAS and supported by the land development support programme (LDS), and seven commodity organisations supporting them. Sampling is a process whereby a group of individuals, households, or companies is selected from the population to participate in research, the results of which may be generalised to the entire population (Creswell, 2014).

### **1.6.2 Sample size**

A sample of 122 farms, registered as legal entities allocated under PLAS and supported through the LDS were included in the study, as well as four commodity organisations aligned with the 122 farms. The nine provinces, sample of farmers, and commodity organisations involved are indicated in the sampling frame presented below as Table 1.1.

**Table 1.1: Sampling frame**

Province	Population (Farms)	Sample (Farms)	No. of Commodity Organisations Involved
Eastern Cape	6	5	2
Free State	23	20	3
Gauteng	15	13	3
Kwazulu-Natal	5	4	2
Limpopo	12	8	3
Mpumalanga	25	19	5
Northern Cape	23	15	1
North West	33	33	5
Western Cape	5	5	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>147</b>	<b>122</b>	

### 1.6.3 Data collection

Both primary and secondary data were collected for this study. Primary data refers to data collected specifically for the current research project (Kinnear and Tailor, 2013). Delport (2002) supports utilising various types of questionnaires such as mailed questionnaires, telephonic questionnaires, personal questionnaires, questionnaires delivered by hand, and group questionnaires. Zikmund *et al.* (2010) describe secondary data as data sourced for unrelated research and made available for other purposes. Secondary data was collected from government policies, farmers' records, reports, and relevant literature.

Primary data was collected utilising structured questionnaires and face-to-face interviews or tele-interviews with 122 farmers selected as a representative sample. Furthermore, data collection involved unstructured questionnaires and face-to-face interviews with four commodity organisations, and three focus group discussions with farmers.

#### **1.6.4 Data analysis**

The data was coded; descriptive and correlation analysis of the variables was computed to determine the inter-relationships between the variables such as land allocation, support provided, technical and entrepreneurial skills, farm production, partnership arrangement, markets, experience, networking, education, innovation, cognitive ability, consultation, and commitment with agricultural production. The analyses were performed using Microsoft Excel (Version 2020). The method of data analysis selection was based on the source of data and method of data gathering.

#### **1.6.5 Output of the study**

The study's main output was empirical evidence gathered from farmers and commodity organisations; therefore, the recommendations are based on data collected country wide. This study's findings contribute towards policy and programme designs aimed at supporting agricultural development on land reform farms and the land reform programme's overall success.

#### **1.6.6 Area of study**

This study encompassed all nine provinces of the Republic of South Africa. Statistics South Africa's midyear population estimates indicated that the country's population increased to 60,60 million in 2022 (StatsSA, 2022). The Census of Commercial Agriculture Report indicates that the total number of farms and farming units involved in the commercial agriculture industry in 2017 was 40, 122 the largest proportion of which was involved in livestock farming (13, 639 or 33.9% of the total), followed by mixed farming (12, 458 or 31.1%), and field crops (8, 559 or 21.3%). Concerning land reform, between 1994 and 2019 approximately 5,081 million hectares of land were acquired through the land redistribution programme across the nine provinces of South Africa, of which approximately 1,8 million hectares were acquired through PLAS (DRDLR, 2019(b); DPME, 2020).

#### **1.6.7 Limitations of the study**

- At the time of this study, the COVID-19 pandemic meant that physical interactions were restricted.
- A lack of financial resources to physically cover all projects across the country.

- The land reform farms are often remote and difficult to access.

#### **1.6.8 Measures to overcome the study's limitations**

- Physical interactions were limited in favour of tele-interviews as a measure to restrict the chances of spreading the COVID-19 virus.
- Tele-interviews were useful in limiting the financial burden and difficulty in accessing several of the farms.

### **1.7 SCHEDULE OF RESEARCH ACTIVITIES**

**Activity 1: January 2022 – September 2022.** Draft and finalise Chapter 1, which is the research proposal and application for ethical clearance.

**Chapter 1:** Introduction and Orientation to the Study.

This chapter provides a background and justification for the study. It details the problem statement, the aim, and objectives and describes the study's overall structure.

**Activity 2: May 2022 – July 2022.** Develop a conceptual and logical framework.

**Chapter 2:** Conceptual and Logical Framework

This chapter presents a systematically studied situation and its evolution over time. The chapter also reflects on the available theories and logic utilised for the study.

**Activity 3: March 2022 – September 2022.** Review the literature.

**Chapter 3:** Literature Review

This chapter presents the current status of land reform in South Africa and reviews the related literature focusing on the support provided to land reform farmers by the government and various non-government institutions. Several support models are explored.

**Activity 4: April 2022 – May 2023.** Identify the study area and sample, design the data collection tools, collect data, and select the data analysis method.

#### **Chapter 4: Framework of Analysis and Research Methodology**

This chapter discusses research designs, research instruments, sampling, data collection, the study area, and data analysis.

**Activity 5: June 2023 – August 2023.** Present the results.

**Chapter 5:** This chapter focuses on presenting the findings regarding the effectiveness of government-provided agricultural development support programmes in promoting land reform farms' development. It also explores the potential role of non-government institutions in contributing to these farms' success. The chapter also investigates if land reform farmers' aspirations have been considered in the support programmes offered by both the government and commodity organisations for their development.

**Activity 6: September – October 2023.** Discuss, draw Conclusions and Implications of results.

**Chapter 6:** This chapter focuses on discussing the results that emerged concerning agricultural development support programmes' effectiveness in promoting land reform farms' development. It also explores non-government institutions' contributions to land reform farms' success. The chapter investigates whether or not land reform farmers' aspirations have been considered in the support programmes offered by the government and commodity organisations for their development. This study chapter also documents the proposed integrated support model which promotes land reform farms' development, draw conclusions and implication of the study.

**Activity 7: November 2023.** Submit the thesis for examination.

## CHAPTER 2

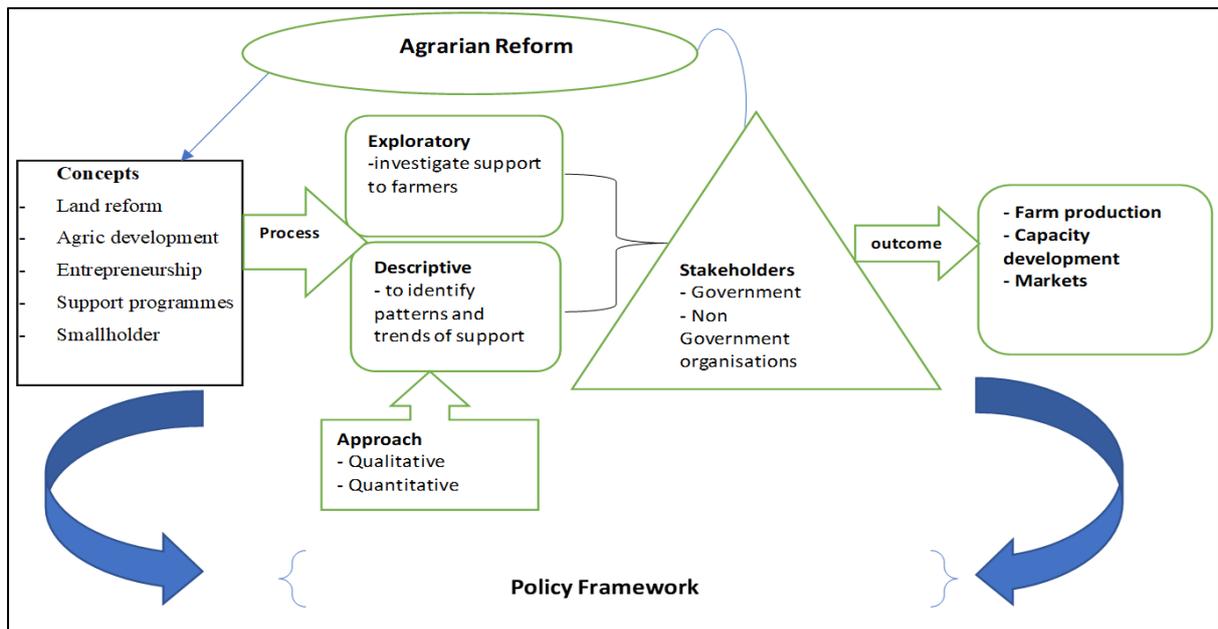
### CONCEPTUAL AND LOGICAL FRAMEWORK

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

A conceptual framework is defined as a structure that best explains the natural progression of a phenomenon to be studied; it is associated with the concepts, empirical research, and theories used in promoting and systemising the researcher's knowledge (Camp, 2001; Peshkin, 1993). A theoretical framework is regarded as the research's blueprint or guide and is based on an existing theory in a field of inquiry that is related to and reflects the study's hypothesis (Grant and Osanloo, 2014). Grant and Onsaloo (2014) posit that the theoretical framework provide a foundation for a literature review, methods, and analysis; therefore, without a theoretical framework, the study's structure and vision become unclear.

In this study, the researcher developed a conceptual framework by utilising key concepts to anchor the study. The primary concepts were support programmes, agricultural development, land reform, smallholder farmers, and entrepreneurs. The researcher utilised concept mapping, which Novak and Cañas (2006) define as a tool for representing and organising ideas using pictures; ideas are written in boxes and linked with arrows carrying explanatory legends to depict links between the ideas. These concepts emerge from experience, existing studies, and theories related to the main topic. In this study, the researcher developed a logical framework which maps the study's theoretical and methodological flow. Qwabe (2021) asserts that in developing the theoretical framework, researchers should immerse themselves in the pertinent research literature to determine the theories and models that are relevant to the research problem.

## 2.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK



Source: researcher, 2022

**Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework**

Figure 2.1 above depicts the conceptual framework utilised to provide a broad perspective on agrarian reform, towards which the study sought to contribute. In this study, agrarian reform was concerned with access to land through the land reform programme, support for smallholder farmers to enhance their agricultural production (financial and non-financial), marketing, and processing farmers' produce. Qualitative data was gathered through face-to-face interviews with participants from commodity organisations, who shared their perceptions concerning the model adopted to support farmers. Quantitative data was collected through electronic interviews with farmers concerning their perceptions of the support provided for their development. The concepts illustrated in Figure 2.1 guided the data collection instrument's design. The collected data facilitated descriptive, correlation, and regression analyses of various variables to determine their interrelationships. Theoretical analysis coupled with these statistical methods assisted in addressing the study's main objective.

## **2.3 CONTEXTUALISING THE MAIN CONCEPTS**

### **2.3.1 Agrarian reform**

The traditional definitions of agrarian and land reform belong to the developmental states' era, especially after the Second World War and decolonisation. During this time, it was assumed that the state and its policies could serve as the focus for societal development and restructuring. Agrarian reforms are one example of such developmentalist policies. The underlying premise was that the state would provide support services, and the redistribution of income and property would provide overall social benefits. The most notable examples occurred in South Korea and Taiwan. China also performed a developmental role, as did others such as the Mexican and Zimbabwean states before the late 1990s, and South Africa post-1994 (Jacobs, 2010).

In South Africa's land and agrarian reform conversations, post-settlement support is generally meant to include multiple forms of assistance provided to beneficiaries after they have taken ownership of the land, particularly appropriate agricultural support for resource-poor farmers (Jacobs *et al.*, 2013). Vink and van Rooyen (2009) and the World Bank (1994) assert that in the case of an agrarian reform structure, large commercial farms continue to produce almost all the marketed agricultural production and no substantial change has occurred since 1994, when they accounted for almost 90 per cent of the value added in agriculture.

### **2.3.2 Land reform**

Willy (2011) posits that land reform has various meanings in numerous countries, but the primary understanding is land consolidation, and redistribution of farmland to address landlessness and socioeconomic issues. In South Africa, land reform is the product of a political agreement which was also meant to foster social cohesion, create harmony among citizens, and promote economic growth (Kahn, 2007). The extent to which the indigenous people of South Africa were dispossessed by European colonists, mainly Dutch and British settlers, was disproportionate to any other country in Africa and continued for an extended period. The European settlement began around the Cape of Good Hope in the 1650s and progressed northward and eastward over 300 years. By the early 20th century, most of the county, including most of the best agricultural land, was reserved for the minority white population, with the black

majority confined to native reserves. These reserves were later known as African homelands or Bantustans, which encompassed 13 per cent of the country. This led to most African countries resisting colonisation starting from the 1960s, and South Africa transitioning from the race-based apartheid system to democracy in 1994 (Lahiff and Li, 2012). Therefore, land reform in South Africa aims to address more than 350 years of race-based colonisation and dispossession as part of the transition to a democratic society (Lahiff and Li, 2012).

In South Africa, the framework for land reform policy was set out in the White Paper on South African Land Policy in April 1997. However, the land reform debate facilitated by the World Bank gained momentum earlier in 1992 when various interested parties were brought together to determine a land reform trajectory for the country (DLA, 1997; Van Zyl *et al.*, 2000). The White Paper on Land Reform encompassed three programmes, namely land restitution, land redistribution, and tenure reform (DLA, 1997). *Land restitution* provides for restoring land to communities or individuals who were forcefully removed from their land using state laws prior to 1913; *land redistribution* involves the government acquiring land on the open market and making it accessible to black South Africans to address racial ownership imbalances and agricultural development; and *tenure reform* is meant to improve the security of tenure for a variety of vulnerable groups i.e. communal settings, farm dwellers, and labour tenants (DLA, 1997).

It is evident from the foregoing discussion that land ownership and utilisation has been a central debate globally as it is anticipated to advance human and economic development and social justice. Broadly, South Africa's intention to undertake land reform was to change land ownership patterns which have historically favoured the white minority, settle citizens from congested areas, and develop the country's agricultural sector. Antwi and Nxumalo (2014) assert that one of land reform's main aims, especially redistributed farms, is to ensure that previously disadvantaged farmers develop into sustainable commercial farmers.

Land reform appears to be an appropriate strategy to ensure sustainable agriculture and alleviate poverty. Consequently, efforts continue to be made to support land reform farmers through both government and non-government programmes. Therefore, for South Africa to make substantial progress in achieving its land reform

objectives, it is important to learn from other countries, as highlighted by the five salient points outlined by Christiansen (1996). These five lessons drawn from international experience with land reform are outlined as follows.

- a) The speed of the programme's implementation. In the absence of fast-paced programmes, a combination of excessive bureaucracy, centralisation of the process, and legal challenges is likely to render the programme ineffective. The importance of this lesson is reflected by the recent farm invasions in Zimbabwe.
- b) Economic viability of the options. Before a reform programme is implemented, there must be a careful assessment of the models or livelihood options available to rural households. Further, in computing the costs and benefits, other assistance and infrastructure necessary to generate the income should be planned.
- c) The programme's political acceptability and legitimacy. There must be a consensus across the spectrum of political opinion that the programme is both necessary and the most acceptable way of achieving the stated goals. Land reform programmes are not irreversible, particularly where this consensus has not been achieved.
- d) A clear definition of the role that the public sector can and will perform. The proposed programme must be evaluated in light of an understanding and acceptance of the public and private sectors' (including NGOs) respective roles. Programmes that have relied entirely on the public sector in the belief that only the state can maintain integrity, deliver services, determine needs, and manage the process, have generally failed.
- e) Land reform is only one part of a comprehensive programme of economic reconstruction. The redistribution of land is necessary, but insufficient to guarantee a development programme's success. Additional services, including infrastructure, markets, incentives, social services etc. have to be provided as part of a comprehensive rural development programme. This is necessary both to sustain higher productivity after reform and to include others who may not benefit from the direct provision of land.

### **2.3.3 Agricultural development**

According to Machete, as cited by Mmbengwa *et al.* (2011), agricultural development encompasses, amongst others, farmers' access to resources, entrepreneurial development, commercial production, equitable participation in agriculture, competitive and profitable production, and food security. Therefore, in this study, agricultural development referred to commercial production, farmers' skills and participation, and access to resources with the ultimate goal of agrarian reform. According to Hall and Cliffe (2009), land reform projects, to date, can be categorised broadly into four main types, as described hereunder.

- a) Large groups obtain farms and farm collectively as a single commercial entity. This pattern is now officially discouraged but remains dominant in both restitution (due to community claims) and redistribution (due to the grant structure).
- b) Large groups obtain farms and farm individually or in smaller groups. This pattern has emerged by design but also by default when attempts at group-based production have collapsed.
- c) Individuals, families, or small groups obtain farms and farm them as a single commercial entity. This is usually possible only with substantial capital contributions or high levels of initial debt, and so is accessible in practice to only a small proportion of better-off applicants. This pattern is now encouraged.
- d) Joint ventures between land reform beneficiaries and either private sector or state institutions. This pattern, involving strategic partnerships, equity schemes, and contract farming, is now encouraged. These partnerships have evolved over time and now include commodity organisations. This study focused on this group of land reform farmers who have partnered with non-government organisations for their development.

### **2.3.4 Entrepreneurship**

Entrepreneurs are individuals who identify creative business opportunities, take the risk of establishing a business, and have the talent and skills to manage and grow a business; – in the process, they create wealth and employment. Entrepreneurs are also innovators who are constantly searching for more efficient and profitable ways to operate (Steyn, 1998). These are generally individuals with distinctive characteristics

which drive them to succeed in any business venture, including high-risk ventures such as agribusiness.

### **2.3.5 Support programmes**

These are either government or non-government institutions' initiatives encompassing systems and procedures for developing farmers. They are mostly tailor-made by the funder for a particular group or individuals to achieve a set goal. In this study, the researcher believed that these programmes have identified specific needs or challenges to achieving a certain goal, understand how such a challenge can be mitigated, and determine mechanisms to decisively address it.

### **2.3.6 Smallholder**

There is no single definition of smallholder farmers among academics, the government, agribusiness, and farmers. Carelse *et al.* (2021) suggest that smallholder farmers are not a homogeneous group of farmers who practice agriculture in the same fashion; instead, they have diverse farming needs according to their livelihood needs and this diversity makes it difficult to define smallholder farmers. The Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF) defines smallholder farmers as newly established producers who have settled on land either through the land reform programme or private acquisition. These farmers reside in communal areas, have not utilised their land for the past four (4) years, and are reintroduced into production without any government support to make their land productive. They can also be subsistence farmers who have advanced to the smallholder level due to the support they have received (DAFF, 2011). Cousins (2010) categorises smallholder farmers into two categories: emerging black market-oriented farmers who are located on private land (some transferred through land reform) and in communal areas. For these farmers, family labour on the farm and home consumption of the produce remain significant. They supply their produce within tightly controlled value chains. The second group are small-scale black capitalist farmers for whom the use of hired labour far outweighs household labour and home consumption is insignificant. Pienaar and Traub (2015) indicate that smallholder farmers are also referred to using various terms that include small, small-scale, family, subsistence, and emerging.

Cousins (2010) argues that the term “smallholder farmer” is problematic because it tends to obscure inequalities and significant class-based differences within the large population of households engaged in agricultural production on a relatively small scale. The term also implies that smallholders form a relatively homogenous group. However, the term “smallholder” does have a certain degree of descriptive power when it is qualified by adjectives such as “semi-subsistence”, “semi-commercial”, or “commercial-orientated “. These sub-categories indicate at least some key differences in how land, labour and capital are combined within different households and production units and their associated farming systems, if somewhat imprecisely. The key indicators implicit in these sub-categories are the scale of production and the extent of marketed surplus. This study adopted a smallholder typology utilised by the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development, which incorporates a potential income (DRDLR, 2018) with adjectives such as “semi-commercial or commercial-orientated” (Cousins, 2010).

## **2.4 ANCHOR THEORIES**

Qwabe (2021) suggests that although utilising theories is not common in the natural sciences, embracing them could be beneficial. This approach aligns with the logic used in social sciences, anchoring studies in theory to make informed decisions about the design. Grant and Osanloo (2014) agree with this perspective, asserting that the researcher’s choice of theory provides a structure for the overall study, as it allows a worldview from which to approach the problem and data analysis. This study adopted development theory to investigate an unexplored issue. It aims to establish multiple correlations between government and non-government support provided to farmers, traits for entrepreneurship, and farmer consultation to foster successful development. The study focused on the development of land reform farmers within land reform farms, and development theory assisted in creating a link between access to land through land reform programmes, agricultural development, and support for smallholder farmers.

### **2.4.1 Development theory**

The word “development” in the English language connotes ideas such as “unfolding,” “growth,” “the fuller working out of the details of anything,” and bringing out the latent potential in something. All these ideas are relevant to the concept of development that

has informed so much public policy over the last half-century and more, both in the “core” of industrialised countries and at the “periphery” of the erstwhile colonies that came to be described as the “less developed countries” (LDCs) of the “Third World” (Harris,1980). According to Harris (1980), theorising about development can be traced to contemporary development theories in the work of classical economists such as Adam Smith, Marx, and Engels, or in that of Friedrich List, who, writing in the 1840s, was critical of Smith and advocated for state intervention to ensure national prosperity. These development theories are about understanding how the processes of societal change occur. Moreover, academics from historically less developed parts of Europe and the colonial world also contributed to the construction of modern theories of development in the 1940s. They aligned their theories with Friedrich List by emphasising the role of state intervention in societal development (Harris, 1980).

Development theory has evolved since the 1950s because of development economists (Leys,1996). In the 1970s, development focused on poverty alleviation by developing smallholder agriculture and rural development, with majority of economists advocating for an “agriculture and food first strategy for economic development” (Chinery *et al.*, 1974; World Bank, 1975). Sen (1999) asserts that we should think about development in terms of people’s capability to achieve those things that they have reason to value. The literature pertaining to development theory is mostly divided into groups: instrumentalists and critical (Ferguson,1994).

### ***a. Instrumentalists***

Instrumentalists perceive development institutions as “machines” aimed at generating “policy” ... as a rational problem-solving instrument, and as a neutral, technical means to steer social processes (Gastel and Nuijten, 2005). Instrumentalists take into consideration the entities and actors involved in development to guide them on how to improve their operations and realise their goals (Ferguson,1994). Therefore, instrumentalists attribute development initiatives failure to achieve their goals to issues such as the “policy not being correct or not being properly implemented”, the inappropriate application of models, and operationalising complex, multi-dimensional socio-political factors as static variables (Li, 2007; Farooqi, 2012). While instrumentalist approaches offer valuable chronological insights into the evolution of development thinking and practice, they are inherently limited in their perspective.

Instrumentalists believe that failure to achieve goals is simply a reason to develop superior policy and enhance its implementation (Ferguson, 1994; Li, 2007). Essentially, instrumentalists are not concerned with the assumptions and premises underpinning development

### ***b. Critical approach***

Critical theorists analyse development bureaucracies and aid policies in the context of a hegemonic global order (Gastel and Nuijen, 2005). They argue that development practices are not undertaken to create an equitable global order but instead to maintain dominant relationships and the skewed distribution of resources and power (Escobar, 1995). Critical theorists consider development institutions and activities as being shaped by and ultimately serving the interests of “macro structures of power and control”. Their work aims to shed light on how development institutions, policies, and activities normalise, legitimise, and consolidate power (Gastel and Nuijen, 2005). Critical theorists’ perspectives on political and economic transformation can be traced back to Marxist, dependency, world systems, and neo-Marxist theories, which emphasise the mechanics of capital accumulation, uneven development, structural power relations, and hegemony in explaining prevailing socioeconomic conditions and transformation (Ferguson, 1994). These critical accounts correct instrumentalists’ view, which interprets development in a depoliticised, technoscientific manner without considering the realities of structural power and historical context (Farooqi, 2012).

### ***c. Researcher’s viewpoint: instrumentalists and critical approaches within development theory***

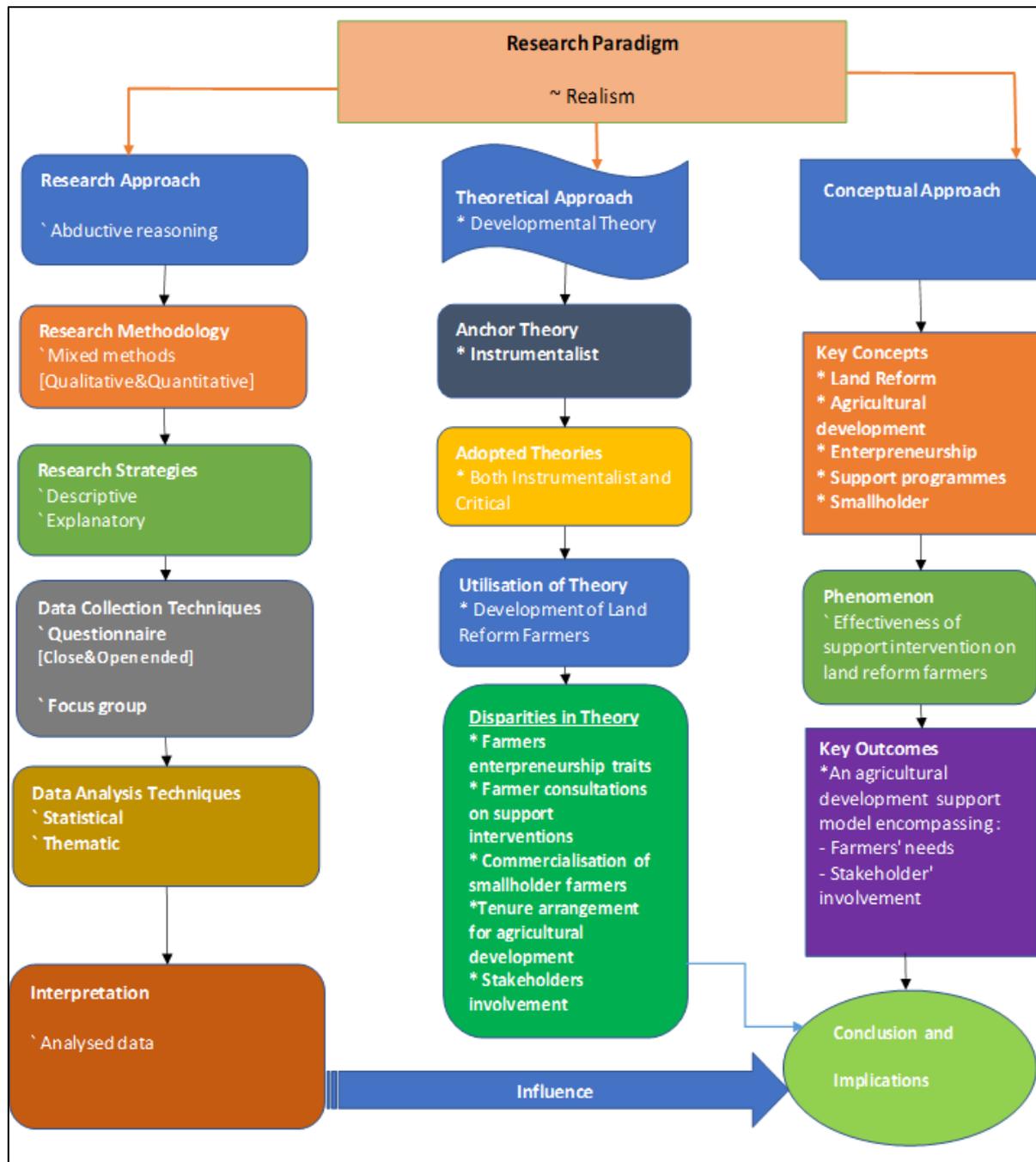
Critical theories argue that although instrumental approaches provide an accurate chronology of events in the development space, they either neglect to consider issues of power and history, or they do not adequately account for their highly complex and multidimensional nature. Significantly, instrumental explanations often fail to acknowledge that policymaking is deeply embedded in and strongly affected by structural power relations and historical context. Policymaking is not merely a technoscientific endeavour that occurs in a vacuum, and critical scholars, therefore, provide historical and power relations contexts for development (Shore and Wright, 1997; Gastela and Nuijten, 2005). Li (2007) attests that development practices need

to be studied empirically to investigate the processes that contribute to their failure to achieve set goals.

Therefore, it is the researcher's considered view that the discussed theory has limitations, as the variables can have various implications depending on the context. This study provides evidence that land reform can serve to achieve various objectives, including social justice, economic development, agricultural progress, farmers' development, equity, and poverty reduction. This study considered both instrumentalist and critical theories collaboratively and offered chronological details on how support for agricultural development is provided, exploring associated challenges and solutions, aligning with the instrumentalist approach. This study also contextualised this support within the historical and power relations framework in South Africa's land reform and agriculture, aligning with the critical approach.

The researcher emphasises the importance of utilising both theories because, while the study delves into sequential details and support models for farmers, it also acknowledges the broader context. This includes understanding land reform within the historical framework of dispossession, recognising the key actors in shaping land reform and agricultural development initiatives, and considering the commercial sector's involvement in uplifting smallholder farmers. The methodological approach, integrating the development theory and the two aforementioned approaches to foster agricultural development within land reform programmes and ultimately achieve agrarian reform, is presented in Figure 2.2.

## 2.5 DIAGRAMMATIC METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK?



Source: Modelled from Qwabe (2021)

**Figure 2.2: Methodological framework**

The methodological framework illustrated in Figure 2.2 depicts a comprehensive approach to the study, indicating a link between the methodology, theory, and conceptual approaches. The research adopted a realism paradigm – a philosophy utilised to explain and understand realities, and most importantly, enhance the given situation. Furthermore, within the realism paradigm, the study adopted critical realism,

which posits that humans experience perceived real-world sensations and images which can be deceptive, as they seldom portray the real world (Novikov *et al.*, 2013). Realism provides a philosophical position compatible with the crucial methodological characteristics of both qualitative and quantitative research and can facilitate communication and cooperation between the two (Mark, Henry and Julnes, 2000; Greene, 2002).

Several researchers who have adopted this philosophy indicate that it assumes a scientific approach to the development of knowledge based on unfolding realities (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). The researcher believed the realism paradigm to be the most suited philosophy to consider the impact of the current efforts made to develop land reform farms within the context of South Africa's history of dispossession and skewed development, and the continuing dualistic agriculture in South Africa, utilising both qualitative and quantitative methods.

The anchor theories, the instrumentalist and critical approaches, served as the philosophical foundation for this study and were significant in providing an insightful way of viewing development on a global scale and how it takes shape at the national level, pertaining to land reform and agricultural development. The researcher viewed a combination of the instrumentalist and critical approaches as useful for the study because instrumentalists provide a chronology of events and the models adopted, while the critical approach provides the historical context for such events. The framework was utilised to address theoretical discrepancies, including farmers' entrepreneurship traits, consultation concerning support interventions, smallholder commercialisation, tenure arrangements for agricultural development, and stakeholders' involvement in land reform and development.

The researcher asserts that there is a consensus that land reform farmers should be enabled to engage in sustainable commercial farming. Therefore, land reform farmers should be capacitated to direct their agricultural development. This position is informed by the researcher's exposure to land reform farms acquired by the South African Government and the farmers allocated such farms. Various scholars agree that farmers' capacitation is critical for land reform development's success. Consequently, a correlation can be drawn between agricultural support for farmers' development and

successful land reform. Therefore, this study advanced the notion that farmers' development is essential in ensuring agricultural success on land reform farms.

## **2.6 SUMMARY**

This chapter outlined the primary concepts guiding the study, with a focus on the development theory, adopted due to its relevance to development programmes. This chapter also explored the instrumentalist and critical approaches, and their combination, offering valuable insights into farms' development as the phenomenon under investigation. The theory also assists in contrasting the study's problem statement and objectives, providing answers to research questions. The researcher also shared a perspective on land reform and farms' development based on first-hand exposure and experience with the phenomenon under investigation. These concepts and theories culminated in a diagrammatic presentation of the methodological framework, providing a sequential flow of concepts, theories, and analyses utilised in the study. The ensuing chapter presents a review of relevant literature.

## CHAPTER 3

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reflects on land reform's global evolution and Africa in particular to provide context for South Africa's land reform programme. The chapter also documents details of various support mechanisms offered to commercial farmers before 1994, attempts to develop smallholder farmers before 1994, the support extended to land reform farmers, credit financing for commercial and smallholder farmers, partnerships pursued in land reform, and the importance of considering farmers' needs in agricultural development. Therefore, this chapter presents a detailed review of relevant literature focusing on the support provided to land reform farmers by both the government and various non-government institutions. This chapter explores several partnership models implemented on land reform farms by various scholars and the government.

In the first post war-decades (1950s to 1980s), various models of land and agrarian reform were implemented across the world. These models ranged from purely capitalist to purely socialist, with a variety of models in between. This differed from more recent decades in which a single, broadly neoliberal model dominated (White *et al.*, 2014).

#### 3.2 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF LAND REFORM ACROSS THE WORLD

Land ownership and use have been subjects of social, economic, and political disputes throughout human history (Ochieng and Sannie, 2021). The Roman Land Reform Law, Lex Sempronia Agraria, encapsulates many of the issues that continue to characterise current land reform debates. These concerns include the concentration of land in the hands of a few and the potential social and economic inefficiencies in this situation. They also involve considerations of land ceiling, minimum and maximum individual landholdings, and land appropriation and compensation (Lintott, 1992).

Land reform has various connotations depending on the country, but its central objective has typically been the redistribution of farmland to reduce landlessness and tenancy in feudal economies. Between 1917 and 1970, more than fifty (50)

governments launched “land to tiller” reforms (Wily, 2011). The key areas for consideration are listed hereunder.

- a) The abolition of private ownership and the creation of state collectives, e.g., Russia, China, Vietnam, and Cuba.
- b) The creation of citizen-owned collectives, e.g., Honduras, Mexico, and El Salvador.
- c) The setting of ceilings on landholdings, with the redistribution of the surplus to landlords’ tenants and workers, e.g., Egypt, Bangladesh, Nepal, and Afghanistan.
- d) The abolition of absentee landlordism.

Wily (2011) further emphasise that since 1990, land-tenure reform has been underway in approximately half of the world’s 207 independent nations. The predominant trends among land reformists are listed hereunder.

- a) Numerous reforms focus only on improving land administration, with privatisation retained as a target.
- b) Concerns persist regarding the ownership of formally traditional collective lands, such as forests and rangelands.
- c) Reforms have been triggered as part of post-conflict reconstruction, highlighting the significant role of land-related injustices in causing civil wars.
- d) Encouraging the registration of unoccupied land to address the concerns of millions of untenured occupants (“squatters”), especially in urban areas.
- e) Reforms that recognise indigenous people’s existence and authority, led to the incorporation of several hundred million hectares of native territories under native title.
- f) The emergence of land rights movements advocating for agrarian reform among peasants through the establishment of regional and global campaigns.

According to Lahiff (2007), experiences from countries such as China, the Soviet bloc, and their African, and Latin American satellites revealed inefficiencies in state-led land and agrarian reform, and collective farms. This observation led to the emergence of Market-Based Land Reform (MBLR). MBLR is rooted in the assertion that markets can enhance efficiency and equity benefits by transferring land from less to more

productive users, often from large to small-scale farmers. However, Van Zyl and Binswanger (1996) indicate that even neo-liberal economists acknowledge that markets alone are unlikely to bring about the anticipated restructuring of property relations. This is due to a range of imperfections, including vulnerable buyers' limited access to capital and information, and the tendency for land prices to exceed productive value. In countries such as Brazil and the Philippines, MBLR evolved from long-running processes of non-market-based land reform. This market-assisted land reform became the dominant model in several countries, not because of its inherent merits, but due to the conditionality or political pressure and the increasing political costs of state intervention (Hall, 2008).

### **3.3 PERSPECTIVE ON LAND REFORM IN AFRICA**

In broad terms, in Africa between 1960 and 1990, land reform meant either nationalisation or, more often, privatisation. A central issue in numerous Southern African countries is the repossession of land occupied by European settlers, a matter insufficiently addressed despite these countries gaining independence from their colonial past (Adams, 2000). Since 1990, at least thirty-two (63%) of sub-Saharan African states have initiated land reform processes. These initiatives vary widely and are not necessarily reformist in nature, but they highlight the importance that land-related matters hold in the region.

Nationalisation, to a degree, was the norm in sub-Saharan Africa during the first decades of independent regimes (Wily, 2011). Nationalisation granted presidents and governments ultimate power over these lands with limited restraints, fostering a system in which new landlords became increasingly exploitative over decades at their citizens' expense (Wily, 2011).

In Southern Africa, land reform is currently unfolding rapidly on continuously shifting ground as a long-term process aimed at enhancing agricultural production. Although not in itself a guarantee of economic development, land reform is a necessary condition for a more secure and balanced society (Manjengwa, 2006). There is a great deal of debate concerning the implementation of land reform in Southern Africa, but not to the same extent as the Fast Track Land Reform Programme in Zimbabwe. Sekhume (2004) indicates that during the Fast Track Land Reform Programme,

agricultural production fell by 22% in 2002 compared to the average annual growth rate of 4.7% between 1990 and 2000. This decline can also be attributed to the drought which occurred during the same period (Manjengwa, 2006).

In most African countries, the decision to implement land reform is made by the government and influenced by donors. Wily (2011) compiled the following list of trends.

- a) Land rights have become constitutional issues.
- b) The land is viewed as an exchangeable good, and the removal of structures preventing the sale of customary/untitled lands is being removed.
- c) Foreign nationals' rights to acquire land are being promoted, albeit as leaseholders.
- d) Tenancy is subject to stricter regulations, as are workers' rights on privately owned farms.
- e) Mechanisms for resolving land disputes resolutions are devolving into committees and tribunals, serving as an alternative to formal courts.
- f) Customary law is recognised as a legal resource for decision-making and property rights' delivery, although with variations and constraints.
- g) Support for women's rights to land is being entrenched.
- h) Public participation is often obligatory in land-related policymaking.
- i) Landlordism by chiefs is being curtailed through the adoption of democratic land governance institutions.

### **3.4 STATUS OF LAND REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA**

#### **3.4.1 Objectives of land reform**

Land reform in South Africa is an attempt to redress the wrongs of the past and provide an "equitable and sustainable land dispensation that promotes social and economic development" (Kahn, 2007). Land reform in South Africa was a product of a negotiated settlement and commitment to reconciliation. It is also the outcome of a political process reflecting the division of power within South Africa at the time and various interest groups' ability to influence the policy development process. The interest groups which have significantly influenced the land reform policy development process include the former National Party, World Bank and African National Congress (ANC),

white commercial agricultural sector representatives, and various rural and land-related non-governmental organisations (Weidemaan, 2004).

In 1992, the World Bank led the process of preparing a rural restructuring programme (RRP) for South Africa (Williams, 1993). The RRP focused on developing new agricultural policy and a programme for land reform which relies on market mechanisms to transfer land to black farmers (Williams, 1993). Lahiff (2005) indicates that the debate about land reform in South Africa is founded on the “willing seller, willing buyer” concept, which is market-based land reform. The importance of land is evident from the inclusion of provisions for its rectification in the Interim Constitution of 1993. Additionally, the need for land reform to address the historical legacy is outlined in Section 25 of the Constitution of 1996. The Constitution stipulates that “the State should take reasonable legislative and other measures within its available resources, to allow conditions which will enable citizens to access land equitably” (Moeng, 2011).

At the first conference on land redistribution in South Africa, held in Johannesburg in 1993, Cyril Ramaphosa, the then secretary general of the ANC, noted that South Africa is not unique in its unequal land distribution but rather in the policy measures that have led to this situation (ANC, 1993). At its first election manifesto in 1994, the ANC adopted a land reform policy encompassing three programmes, namely land restitution, land redistribution, and tenure reform as part of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) (Hall and Cousins, 2017). The RDP positioned land reform as “central to a vital driving force of a process of rural reconstruction and development” (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 1995). The five key RDP (1994) initiatives are meeting people’s basic needs, developing our human resources, building the economy, democratising the state and society, and implementing the RDP. These five key RDP initiatives intended to ensure equitable access to resources for all South Africans.

To comply with the Constitution’s provisions and implement the RDP, various acts, policies, and programmes were adopted. The Restitution of Land Rights Act, 1994 (Act No. 22 of 1994), was established to restore land rights for those dispossessed due to racially based policies (DLA, 1997). The Certain Land Rights for Settlement Act, 1993 (Act No. 126 of 1993) designates land for settlement purposes and provides

financial assistance to people acquiring land or redistributed land for agricultural use. Additionally, the Upgrading of Land Tenure Rights Act, 1993 (Act No. 112 of 1993) and the Labour Tenants Act, 1996 (Act No. 3 of 1996) ensure the security of tenure for beneficiaries residing and working on the land (DLA, 1997). These legislations later formed part of the White Paper on South African Land Policy (WPSALP) of 1997 (DLA, 1997). The WPSALP was introduced to integrate the three existing policies into programmes – redistribution, tenure reform, and restitution. These programmes were designed to address racially based land dispossession, promote economic growth, and provide tenure security for all (Moeng, 2011). Williams (1993) emphasise that the World Bank influenced the setting of targets for all these land reform programmes.

### **3.4.2 Land reform framework**

#### **3.4.2.1 *The land restitution programme***

The Land Restitution Programme is based on the Restitution of Land Rights Act, 1994 (Act No. 22 of 1994), which provides for the restitution of rights to land for those who disposed of land in terms of the racially based policies of the past. Settlement of land claims under this programme is in the form of restitution of whole or part of the original land, alternative land, monetary compensation, or other forms of reparation acceptable to both the government and claimants (RSA, 1994; Moeng, 2011).

This programme involves returning land or compensating citizens for the land lost due to racially discriminatory laws passed on 19 June 1913. Land obtained through this programme does not bind the claimants to any form of agricultural development. Its purpose is to address the rights of citizens displaced due to previous legislation. Therefore, the government does not prescribe how the land should be utilised; the use is determined by the needs and decisions of the land-holding legal entities, such as Trusts and Communal Property Associations (Moeng, 2011).

According to Platzky and Walker (1985), it is estimated that more than 3.5 million people and their descendants experienced racially based dispossession and forced removals during the years of segregation and apartheid. The rural removals comprised various categories, such as black spot removals, removal of labour tenants, removal from mission stations, removal based on forestry requirements, and internal removals in scheduled and released areas (Ranwedzi, 2013).

### **3.4.2.2 The land redistribution programme**

The Land Redistribution Programme is based on the Provision of Certain Rights for Settlement Act, 1993 (Act No. 126 of 1993). This programme provides for the designation of land for settlement purposes, and financial assistance to people acquiring land for agricultural purposes (DLA,1997). Land redistribution was complemented in 1994 by the ANC's agricultural policy which primarily aimed to ensure equitable access to and optimal use of agricultural resources. This policy's development was credited to the Land and Agricultural Policy Centre (LAPC) (ANC, 1994). Accordingly, the motivation for the redistribution of land worldwide is that it creates an environment for growth in agricultural production, which in turn supports broader economic growth and improved poverty reduction efforts (Boyce et al., 2005).

This programme's introduction was aimed at ensuring that initially, land is bought and transferred to groups, and later also to qualifying individuals. The programme introduced five (5) sub-programmes: The Settlement for Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG), Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD), the Farm Equity Share Scheme, the Commonage Scheme, and the Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS). The commonage, SLAG, and LRAD have since been discontinued, as has the Farm Equity Share Scheme (DLA, 1997; DRDLR, 2011).

#### **a. Settlement land acquisition grant (SLAG)**

The initial approach adopted by the government for redistributive land reform post-1994 was the Settlement Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG). This initiative targeted families with an income of less than R1 500 per month, with poverty alleviation as a main objective. Under this system, cash grants ranging from R15,000 to R16,000 per household were allocated to previously disadvantaged individuals for purchasing farmland. Coetzee and Jooste (2005) indicate that beneficiaries pooled funds to purchase unproductive land, often at high prices (Jacobs et al., 2003). This land was primarily purchased for settlement and small-scale or subsistence-level agricultural production (Ranwedzi,2013).

### ***b. Municipal commonages***

In some parts of South Africa, municipalities still own vast tracts of agricultural land, especially in rural towns in the Western Cape, Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, and Free State (Atkinson and Büscher, 2006). This situation prompted the DLA to introduce a Municipal Commonage sub-Programme in 1997. It aimed to encourage local authorities to develop conditions that would enable poor residents to access existing land or help the department acquire additional land for resource-poor municipalities (DLA, 1997). Similar to their utilisation in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the land was available to be utilised collectively, mostly by small-scale farmers through lease contracts between farmers and municipalities. The initial work began in 1996, with the first municipal commonage project in Pofadder, a town in the Northern Cape Province. The DLA agreed to buy out an existing commonage lease concluded with a commercial farmer on condition that the Pofadder Municipality ensured the commonage was available to members of a small farmers' association. The members of the association were both needy and previously disadvantaged (Anderson and Pienaar, 2003).

### ***c. Land redistribution for agricultural development (LRAD)***

LRAD is aimed at promoting access to land for the poor, labour tenants, farm workers, and women, as well as emergent farmers (DLA, 1997). The LRAD programme may be regarded as being of particular interest, as it is the only programme specifically aimed at transforming the racial patterns of land ownership for agricultural and sustainable development (Moeng, 2011).

The LRAD programme was introduced in 2001 to address several of the challenges experienced with SLAG's implementation. Based on the Provision of Certain Land Rights Act, 1993 (Act No. 126 of 1993), the main provisions were to provide land to individuals and small groups who could afford to contribute towards their land acquisition. The main approach employed in implementing this programme was reducing the number of people from large groups, as assisted by SLAG, to smaller, more manageable groups (Moeng, 2011).

To encourage farming activities' development, the LRAD sub-programme stipulates that the beneficiaries contribute their funds (either actual or in-kind) to the project. For contributions of R5,000 to R400,000 per person, the LRAD subsidies vary from

R20,000 to R100,000 (on a decreasing scale). The awarding of subsidies is thus not only based on equity principles but also on the project's viability (Ward and Mathebula, 2008). LRAD addressed the challenges encountered with SLAG by reducing large groups to smaller, more manageable groups of between 10 and 20 members per piece of land acquired (Moeng, 2011). One significant avenue through which LRAD began implementation was via an agency agreement between the Land Bank and the Department of Land Affairs in 2002, which meant that "the Land Bank has a portion of the budget to take care of the commercial sector". However, the first transfer occurred in August 2001 with the handover of the Nkomazi Sugar Cane Project in Mpumalanga Province (Hall, 2010).

#### ***d. Proactive land acquisition strategy (PLAS)***

PLAS was developed as reaffirmation during the National Land Summit of 2005 that one of the measures that need to be in place "to ensure that land and agrarian reform moves to the new trajectory that will contribute to the higher path of growth, employment and equity by 2014" is the "introduction of proactive land acquisition by the state for targeted groups in the land market." PLAS was approved "in principle" in July 2003, with a ministerial proviso that a management (implementation) plan be developed before the strategy's implementation. Its implementation began in 2008 and is ongoing. PLAS dealt with two possible approaches: a needs-based approach and a supply-led approach, essentially focusing on the state as the lead driver in land redistribution rather than the beneficiary-driven redistribution (DLA, 2006).

DLA (2006) specified that this approach's main objectives were to:

- a) accelerate the land redistribution process;
- b) ensure that the DLA can acquire land in the nodal areas and the identified agricultural corridors and other areas of high agricultural potential to meet Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA) objectives;
- c) improve the identification and selection of beneficiaries and the planning of land on which people would be settled; and
- d) ensure maximum productive use of the acquired land.

The approach was meant to be primarily pro-poor and based on purchasing advantageous land i.e. either because of the property's location, its amenability to subdivision, its suitability for a particular agricultural activity the government would like to promote vis-à-vis redistribution, or because it is an especially appealing bargain (DLA, 2006). The government proactively purchases land from owners rather than providing grants to applicants/beneficiaries to purchase land. This strategy aims to mitigate the problem of inflated land prices from certain landowners by appreciating that land is purchased for land reform purposes (Greenberg, 2010).

The purchased land is then leased to farmers to conduct agricultural development in line with the country's leasehold model governed by PLAS. Initially, farmers were provided with leasehold for three (3) to five (5) years with an option to purchase through LRAD after having proven themselves to be successful farmers (DLA, 2006; Hall and Kepe, 2017). Greenberg (2010) indicates that the intension was to lease land to black farmers for three years with an option to purchase after successfully engaging in agricultural production. However, due to several factors including non-payment of lease rentals, lack of criteria to measure successful farmers, and the re-selling of transferred land reform farms back to the market (which reverses the land reform gains), the granting of land titles was suspended. Coupled with the lack of relevant support for farmers, this made it almost impossible to engage in meaningful agricultural production (Greenberg, 2010). Therefore, since 2011, the government leasehold model has replaced grant-based land redistribution, discontinuing the option for ownership titles. This extended leasehold system was implemented without standardisation according to the farmers' or beneficiaries' needs (Hall and Kepe, 2017).

In 2013, the DRDLR (now the DALRRD), developed the State Lease and Disposal Policy (SLLDP) of 2013 (as amended in 2019) and the Proactive Land Acquisition Policy (PLAP) of 2019. These policies aimed, among other things, to provide subsistence farmers with land through direct transfer or free leasehold, allow small-scale and medium- to large-scale farmers to lease land for 30 years, standardise the implementation process, create uniformity in beneficiary selections, and align beneficiaries needs with development interventions (DRDLR, 2013; DRDLR, 2019). The amended SLLDP of 2013 created four (4) categories of farmers. Category 1:

households with no or limited access to land, even for subsistence farming; Category 2: small-scale farmers producing at the subsistence level; Category 3: medium-scale farmers operating commercially but constrained by land and other resources; and Category 4: large-scale commercial farmers constrained by various resources but with the potential to grow (DRDLR, 2013). Farmers in Categories 1 and 2 shall automatically qualify for a 30-year leasehold with an option for a 20-year extension without the option to purchase, whilst farmers in Categories 3 and 4 shall qualify for a 30-year leasehold renewable for 20 years with an option to purchase (DRDLR, 2013).

**Table 3.1: Policy shifts under land redistribution**

	<b>Acquisition</b>	<b>Tenure</b>	<b>Class agenda</b>	<b>Land use</b>
<b>SLAG (1995-2000)</b>	Market-based purchase	Transfer of title	Means-tested (ie. pro-poor)	Multiple livelihoods
<b>LRAD (2000-2010)</b>	Market-based purchase	Transfer of title	Not means-tested (unclear)	Agriculture only
<b>PLAS (2006-now)</b>	Market-based purchase	No transfer of title	Not means-tested (unclear)	Agriculture only

Source: Kepe and Hall (2016)

As discussed in this chapter, Table 3.1 summarises various policy regimes under redistribution since 1995. For approximately 15 years between 1995 and 2010, the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform acquired land through SLAG and later the LRAD programmes from the market employing the “willing buyer, willing seller” principle (DLA, 2007; DLA, 1997). Such land parcels were transferred with titles to beneficiaries or farmers, allowing for both multiple livelihoods in cases of SLAG and utilisation for agricultural production only in LRAD cases (DLA, 2007). PLAS is currently being implemented through a leasehold system, permitting farmers to utilise the land only for agricultural purposes (DLA, 2006).

### **3.4.2.3 *The land tenure reform***

This is the most complex of the land reform programmes. It aims to define and institutionalise every existing mode of land tenure. The objective is to grant precisely defined and more equal rights to landowners and land occupants. This programme is mainly concerned with managing 25,509,004 hectares of state-owned land, including 13,332,577 hectares comprising communal lands in the former reserves and Bantustans. The remainder is either rented out or informally occupied. It also addresses other problematic issues, such as farm workers who have worked for personal gain for several years on properties owned by others, mainly white farmers (Ward and Mathebula, 2008).

Bradstock (2005) asserts that until the 1990s government policy stipulated that black people should not own land, therefore, land rights in the homelands and townships were permit-based or held in trust. In most cases, land was registered as the government's or South African Development Trust's property. The result was that although households occupied the land for many years, they had no legal claim to that land. The process of developing legislation to address tenure in communal areas dragged on for years with limited progress until the Communal Land Rights Bill was gazetted in August 2002 (Government Gazette no. 23740). This bill was re-gazetted in October 2003 (Government Gazette no. 25562). Despite severe criticism from land activists and academics, this Bill was passed by Parliament in February 2004. The president signed the Communal Land Rights Act (Act No. 11 of 2004) into law on 14 July 2004 (Claassens, 2003; Cousins and Claassens, 2003). This Act was finally ruled "Unconstitutional and struck down in 2010 by the Constitutional Court after several contests by communities resisting having their land administered by traditional councils.

## **3.5 IMPLEMENTATION OF LAND REFORM**

According to the ANC, land redistribution aims to transfer 30% of agricultural land ownership to poor black South Africans within five years of the programme's implementation, later revised to 2014 (Hall, 2010). LRAD aimed to create 70,000 black commercial farmers within 15 years, in line with the policy objective of distributing 30% of agricultural land to previously disadvantaged persons by 2014 (DRDLR, 2011a).

However, by 2014, only 8% of commercial farmland had been transferred to black South Africans, falling short of the 30% target (Hall and Cousins, 2017).

The government's track record in delivering land and securing rights for black South Africans is poor, with many of the transferred lands underperforming in terms of production and rural livelihood enhancement (Hall and Cousins, 2017). According to Hall and Cousins (2017), this slow progress can be attributed to a lack of the ruling party's political will to address the land issue's complexities. This lack of commitment is evidenced by the fact that land reform has rarely constituted over 0.5% of the national budget (Hall and Cousins, 2017). On the other end of the spectrum, land reform critics base their arguments on the need to sustain agricultural production and the belief that land reform involves too radical an alteration of the production structure for output to be maintained (Weidemaan, 2004). Cousins and Walker (2015) posit that land reform is widely recognised as having failed to alter racially skewed inequalities in land holdings and thus serves as a powerful symbol of the lack of substantive transformation in democratic South Africa.

**Table 3.2: Land redistribution – hectares delivered per province**

Province	Years					
	1994 - 1998	1999 - 2003/03	2003/04 - 2007/08	2008/09 - 2012/13	2013/14 - 2017/18	2018/19 - 2019/20
EC	17,361	86,536	157,275	221,485	70,006	4,985
FS	44,056	54,491	110,239	164,608	52,699	3,889
GP	295	5,035	25,163	14,532	16,128	743
KZN	60,993	80,029	171,659	181,776	95,814	10,121
LP	9,841	26,148	27,980	69,949	45,694	12,980
MP	23,774	120,203	110,753	173,622	55,603	9,415
NC	132,654	333,056	321,472	540,906	216,034	69,511
NW	6,529	47,771	184,480	164,898	107,242	47,283
WC	68,542	15,536	373,971	64,929	31,744	19,052
<b>Sub-total</b>	364,044	768,803	1,482,991	1,596,705	690,963	177,977
<b>Total</b>						<b>5,081,486</b>

Source: DPME (2020)

Table 3.2 above indicates that between 1994 and 1998 approximately 364 thousand hectares of land were distributed through various sub-programmes i.e. Settlement for Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG), Settlement Planning Land Acquisition Grant (SPLAG), and Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD). Between 1999 and 2019 approximately 4,717,442 million hectares of land were acquired SLAG, LRAD, and PLAS. Since the democratic dispensation, from 1994 to 2019, a total of approximately 5,081 million hectares were acquired countrywide.

#### **a. Settlement land acquisition grant (SLAG)**

From 1995 to 1999, SLAG contributed to the redistribution of less than 1% of white-owned agricultural land. This slow pace is attributed to limited budgets allocations, overreliance on market forces, inflated prices for marginal land, and institutional weaknesses, including the government's complicated and drawn-out processes (Jacobs *et al.*, 2003; Ntsebeza and Hall 2007; Lahiff, 2007; Anseeuw and Mathebula, 2008) as cited by (Jacobs, 2014). Turner and Ibsen (2000) assert that the SLAG sub-programme is presumed to have failed mainly because of disputes emanating from overcrowded projects. The disputes were mainly disagreements over beneficiaries' access and benefits.

A variety of weaknesses in the execution and quality of the group projects initiated under SLAG were identified. These issues included inadequate grant sizes, which were insufficient to purchase and develop land. Consequently, beneficiaries tended to cluster into groups. The government acknowledged SLAG's weaknesses in a policy statement issued in 2000 (DLA, 2000). This policy statement outlined a new approach to redistribution, which was soon followed by the release of the first draft of the Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD) Programme, which was to become the primary mechanism for land redistribution by 2014 (DLA, 2000). Farm workers also qualified to apply for the R16,000 per household grant to finance or partially finance the purchase of equity shares in farms. However, only a few farm workers benefitted from the scheme; there is no reliable data to assess this scheme's success (Ranwedzi, 2013).

### ***b. Municipal commonages***

Municipal commonages were initiated at the time when towns were formally established in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century (DLA, 2002). In line with the regulations of that time, the state granted village or town councils significant tracts of land surrounding the residential settlement. The land was available for the towns' use: usually for white residents to keep animals for slaughter, draught animals, and milk cows. By the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century, white urban residents lost interest in small-scale agriculture, and commonages were gradually let to commercial farmers, similar to market-related rentals (Atkinson and Büscher, 2006). Municipalities benefited from this arrangement, as it involved low management costs while yielding significant rentals from land leases. After 1996, municipalities increasingly terminated their leases with commercial farmers and began making the land available to the new class of urban poor; mostly urban black and coloured residents (Atkinson and Büscher, 2006).

Scholars expressed differing views on how commonages should be utilised; Atkinson and Büscher (2006) argued that commonage may function as a “nursery” for potential commercial farmers, and that, by means of a “step-up” strategy, commonage users can “graduate” from commonage to individually utilised parcels of land. However, Anderson and Pienaar (2003) and Rohde (2003) argued that commonage use is primarily a survivalist activity and should remain so. Where municipal administration is effective, strict, and fair, it assists the commonage farmers significantly, even if higher rentals are levied. Moreover, where provincial departments of agriculture have strong local offices it has proven to be useful in assisting commonage users to improve their livestock quality and profitability (Atkinson, 2013). However, given governance and administration challenges associated with commonages, the department slowed down the programme in favour of individual farms. Although municipal commonage had the greatest number of transfers by 2003, its emphasis was minimised after the ministerial review process of land reform in 2000 (Anderson and Pienaar, 2003).

### ***c. Land redistribution for agricultural development (LRAD)***

The DLA's review of the SLAG policies between 1998 and 1999 revealed numerous weaknesses within the implementation process and the quality of the group projects SLAG had created (Wegerif, 2004). Contrary to SLAG, LRAD was designed to be

more market-friendly and closer to the original approach whose design was influenced by the World Bank (Wegerif, 2004). The LRAD programme was expected to improve commercial agricultural production rather than subsistence production (Andrew et al., 2003). Moeng (2011) asserts that LRAD was introduced to address several of the challenges experienced with the implementation of SLAG through provisions of land to individuals and small, manageable groups who could afford to contribute towards land acquisition.

The LRAD sub-programme was introduced in 2001. LRAD is based on the Provision of Certain Land Rights Act, 1993 (Act No. 126 of 1993) and aims to promote access to land for the poor, labour tenants, farm workers, women, and emergent farmers (DLA, 1997). The LRAD sub-programme may be regarded as particularly interesting, as it is the only sub-programme specifically aimed at transforming the racial patterns of land ownership to promote sustainable agricultural development (Moeng, 2011). Lyne and Darroch (2004) posit that this approach symbolizes a significant shift in the South African Government's land redistribution policy, as it adopts a different approach from poverty alleviation and group settlement rather than supporting prospective commercial farmers who own farms in the title.

The LRAD sub-programme stipulates that the beneficiaries contribute funds (either actual or in-kind) to the project to encourage the development of farming activities. For contributions of R5,000 to R400,000 per person, the LRAD subsidies vary from R20,000 to R100,000 (on a decreasing scale). The awarding of subsidies is thus not only based on the equity principles but also on the project's viability (Ward and Mathebula, 2008). LRAD addressed several of the challenges SLAG encountered by reducing large groups to between 10 and 20 members per parcel of land acquired (Moeng, 2011). One of the most significant avenues through which LRAD was implemented was via an agency agreement between the Land Bank and the Department of Land Affairs in 2002, because "the Land Bank has a portion of the budget to take care of the commercial sector". The first transfer occurred in August 2001 with the Nkomazi Sugar Cane Project in Mpumalanga Province (Hall, 2010).

SLAG and LRAD are both "willing buyer willing seller" driven, which means that the availability of land on the market depends on the owner's willingness to sell, as opposed to restitution where the dispossessed claim land. The "willing buyer willing

seller” principle was one of the core issues addressed in the 2005 Land Summit and received much criticism as it is perceived to have contributed to the slow progress in land redistribution (DLA, 2005, as *cited* in Ranwedzi, 2013). The criticism was attributed to white landowners’ lack of willingness to sell their land, and those who were willing to sell, inflated the price when the government was the buyer (DLA, 2005).

Another issue raised was that although land became available in the market on a “willing buyer willing seller” basis, the land in question was often not suitable for developmental needs, for example, it was far from the required resources (DLA, 2005). The LRAD model was discontinued in 2010 in favour of the state-driven Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy (DRDLR, 2010).

#### ***d. Proactive land acquisition strategy (PLAS)***

The 2005 land summit produced PLAS, which remains the only government redistribution model. The summit concluded that the “willing buyer willing seller” approach was ineffective in delivering land because landowners determine which land goes to the market. Both SLAG and LRAD were regarded as demand-driven land acquisition models, and a new supply-led approach was required. PLAS statistics across South Africa are presented in Table 3 below.

**Table 3.3: Number of hectares transferred per province (2008 - 2020)**

<b>Province</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Eastern Cape</b>	270,099
<b>Free State</b>	230,150
<b>Gauteng</b>	49,315
<b>KwaZulu Natal</b>	200,522
<b>Limpopo</b>	116,388
<b>Mpumalanga</b>	268,432
<b>Northern Cape</b>	704,929
<b>North West</b>	353,264
<b>Western Cape</b>	89,224
<b>Total</b>	<b>2,282,323</b>

Source: DPME (2020)

Table 3.3 above indicates the number of hectares transferred per province under the PLAS programme. The Northern Cape Province has the highest number of hectares transferred at 704,929 hectares, followed by North West Province with 353,264 thousand hectares acquired. The province with the least amount of land transferred is Gauteng, with 49,315 hectares.

**Table 3.4: PLAS farms vs total agricultural land in South Africa**

	Total area	Farm land	%	Arable land	%	Grazing land	%	Other	%
Total SA agriculture	122,320,100	100,665,792	82.3	16,737,672	13.7	83,928,120	68.6	21,654,308	17.7
Total PLAS farms	1,858,587	1,858,587	100	240,965	13.0	1,591,750	85.6%	25,669	1.3
PLAS as % of National	1.5%	1.8%		1.44%		1.9%		0.12%	

Source: DRDLR (2019 a)

Table 3.4 above indicates PLAS farms in the context of the national land area at the end of 2018. PLAS farms represented 1.5 % of the total land area of South Africa. These statistics further indicate that PLAS farms represent 1.8% of the total agricultural land in South Africa, with arable land and grazing land constituting 1.44% and 1.9% respectively.

**Table 3.5: Number of projects per province**

Prov.	2009/ 2010	2010/ 2011	2011/ 2012	2012/ 2013	2013/ 2014	2014/ 2015	2015/ 2016	2016/ 2017	2017/ 2018	Total
EC	64	35	55	27	30	19	16	11	4	<b>261</b>
FS	55	21	41	28	9	14	14	7	10	<b>199</b>
GP	20	21	23	13	17	17	11	8	6	<b>136</b>
KZN	66	60	61	30	27	15	18	19	20	<b>316</b>
LP	77	18	24	12	8	13	11	10	8	<b>181</b>
MP	35	53	39	33	23	10	10	7	9	<b>219</b>
NC	14	28	19	10	8	14	13	11	7	<b>124</b>
NW	25	44	38	26	31	32	9	9	10	<b>224</b>
WC	18	11	11	6	2	10	2	3	1	64
Total	374	291	311	185	155	144	104	85	75	1 724

Source: DRDLR (2018a)

Table 3.5 above indicates the number of projects transferred through PLAS from 2009 to 2018. Farmers design these projects as formal structures, i.e., legal entities or as individuals (natural persons) to conduct agricultural development on various portions of acquired farms. As evident in Table 3.5 above, farmers created 1, 724 projects on PLAS farms between 2009 and 2018. Of these, 316 projects were transferred, which equates to 18% of the total PLAS land were initiated in KwaZulu-Natal, representing the highest number of projects, followed by the Eastern Cape with 261 projects, equating to 15% of the total. The Western Cape had the fewest projects at 64, accounting for 4% of the total percentage of PLAS projects created.

### **1) PLAS imperatives**

PLAS embraced two possible approaches: a needs-based approach and a supply-led approach. However, it essentially focuses on the state as the primary driver in land redistribution, rather than a beneficiary-driven model where farmers identify the land they wish to acquire. PLAS proposes that the government should initiate a process of land identification, acquisition, and warehousing, making it available to beneficiaries through leasehold agreements (DLA, 2006).

This approach's primary objectives were to accelerate the land redistribution process; ensure that the DLA can acquire land in nodal areas and identified agricultural corridors and other areas of high agricultural potential to meet Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa's objectives. The objectives are to; improve the identification and selection of beneficiaries, planning of land on which people would be settled and ensure maximum productive use of the acquired land (DLA, 2006).

In a broad sense, PLAS aimed at acquiring land to pursue agricultural development, economic growth, employment creation, and equity within the agricultural sector. Greenberg (2010) affirms the department's opinion that the government should proactively purchase land from owners rather than providing grants to applicants/beneficiaries. This approach aims to address the issue of inflated land prices caused by certain landowners.

## **2) PLAS execution**

PLAS was piloted in 2006 but its implementation only commenced in earnest in 2008 as the only mechanism to acquire land through the redistribution programme to hasten the pace of land acquisition (DLA, 2007). The implementation approach advocated adopting an area-based strategy, commencing at the district level in alignment with the municipal integrated development plans (IDPs). Utilising this strategy, municipalities could proactively identify suitable land and beneficiaries. These municipalities could then approach the DLA for assistance with funding for both planning and land acquisition. Conversely, the DLA could also embark on the process, collaborating with local or district agriculture departments and serving as lead agents alongside municipal and district councils in actively identifying needs, suitable land, and beneficiaries (DLA, 2006).

A study conducted by the DRDLR (2019a) established that approximately 1,8 million hectares of land acquired through the PLAS programme before 2018 is generally of good or fair quality and 98% of the farms have fair to good natural resources. Most of the farms (59%) are sufficient in size and have a natural resource base that can support viable enterprises. Several of the farms (15%) are doing well, despite limitations, an indication that PLAS can achieve its objectives. However, most PLAS farms' performance was disappointing. Such failure is attributed to poor beneficiary selection, inadequate support and infrastructure, and limitations in terms of access to information and capacity development and the prevalence of crime. More than half of the current beneficiaries are not reporting any substantial production, and more than half were evaluated as having a low capacity to achieve commercial status. Post-settlement support was found to be inadequate and support stakeholders are poorly monitored and not working in an integrated manner (DRDLR, 2019a).

## **3) Acquisition of land**

Beneficiaries identified at the district level are allowed to lease the land for a maximum trial period of five years, with the option to purchase. The decision to purchase and transfer the land title to beneficiaries is only considered once the trial lease has expired and the Department of Agriculture has assessed the beneficiary's ability to effectively utilise the farm. During the trial lease period, beneficiaries are expected to pay a lease rental determined according to the length of a specific agricultural enterprise's

production cycle (DLA, 2006). The amounts paid during the lease period and a “qualifying grant” based on the LRAD grant system are considered the beneficiary’s contribution and are discounted against the purchase price (DLA, 2006.) However, if grants and discounts do not cover the full purchase price, beneficiaries were encouraged to obtain additional financing from commercial financial and development financial institutions such as the Land Bank.

PLAS was designed to lease land to farmers for five (5) years with an option to purchase through the LRAD programme (DLA, 2007). However, due to various reasons such as the non-payment of lease rentals, lack of criteria to measure successful farmers, reselling of transferred land reform farms to the market (which reverses the land reform gains), and lack of relevant support to farmers, meaningful agricultural production became almost impossible. As a result, the transfer of land ownership through LRAD was suspended (Greenberg, 2010). The situation was also complicated by LRAD being phased out during the initial PLAS implementation, which led to the department utilising a perpetual leasehold system. Kepe and Hall (2017b) also noted that the challenge with the state leasehold model guided by a Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS) is that it is implemented in a variety of ways across the country.

Furthermore, the DRDLR established District Land Reform Committees (DLRCs) in line with the national development plan (NDP) in all district municipalities (DRDLR, 2018a). These DLRCs comprised farmer organisations, department officials, development banks, municipalities etc. The committees were meant to promote decentralised implementation and were tasked with identifying land for acquisition and beneficiary selection (DRDLR, 2018a).

#### ***4) Allocation of land***

In 2013 the DRDLR (now the DALRRD) developed the State Lease and Disposal Policy (SLLDP) of 2013 and in 2019, the Proactive Land Acquisition Policy (PLAP). These policies were developed to enable subsistence farmers to receive land through direct transfer or free leasehold. They also allow small-scale and medium to large-scale farmers to lease land for 30 years, aiming to standardise the implementation process, create uniformity in beneficiary selections, align beneficiaries’ needs with

development interventions (DRDLR, 2013; DRDLR, 2019b). The State Lease and Disposal Policy (SLLDP) of 2013 delineates four farmer categories. Category 1 comprises households with limited or no land access, while Category 2 includes small-scale subsistence farmers. Category 3 encompasses medium-scale commercial farmers facing resource constraints, and Category 4 comprises large-scale commercial farmers with growth potential (DRDLR, 2013). Farmers in Categories 1 and 2 qualify for a 30-year leasehold, extendable by 20 years without an option to purchase. Those in Categories 3 and 4 qualify for a 30-year leasehold, renewable for 20 years, with an option to purchase (DRDLR, 2013). This policy aims to address diverse farmer needs, promoting equitable access to land resources and fostering sustainable agricultural development.

To enhance implementation, the DRDLR introduced PLAP, which simplifies and strengthens PLAS and amended the SLLDP (DRDLR, 2019c; DRDLR, 2019b). These policy revisions resulted in farmers' reclassification into three categories, outlining envisaged support, and describing leasehold and disposal as follows: Category 1 includes households with limited or no access to land, even for subsistence production; Category 2 encompasses small-scale farmers engaged in subsistence farming and selling part of their produce at local markets; and Category 3 comprises medium to large-scale commercial farmers who have already been farming commercially on various scales but are disadvantaged by location, land size, , and resource and other circumstances, and have the potential to grow. This category includes small-scale farmers who have been farming at the subsistence level, selling parts of their produce at local markets, and have gained reasonable experience in farming commercially and who intend to graduate to Category 3 (DRDLR, 2019c).

Category 1 and Category 2 beneficiaries will receive a direct transfer of land or free leasehold, whilst those with tenure rights, i.e., labour tenants and farm dwellers, qualify for a direct transfer or full land title. Category 3 farmers will lease land for a maximum of 30 years, renewable for 20 years with an option to purchase, and the department will provide grant or guarantee loans from financial institutions to be utilised for either acquiring land or for production (DRDLR, 2018). During the lease period, the rental will be based on 1% of the land value and amounts paid will be discounted over four years i.e. 75% in year one to 0% in year four (DRDLR, 2019b).

### **3.6 HISTORY OF SUPPORT TO COMMERCIAL FARMERS BEFORE 1994**

Throughout the 19<sup>th</sup> century, successive white governments' policies contributed to developing the white commercial agricultural sector at the expense of black agriculture. These policies contained three central elements – dispossession, coercive labour legislation, and financial support (Weideman, 2004). The dispossession and coercive labour laws led to a rise in the overall value of agricultural output by white farmers, facilitated by the state's active participation in the labour market to ensure a constant supply of cheap labour (Weideman, 2004). conversely, substantial financial support was directed to the white commercial agricultural sector, encompassing administered prices through marketing boards, infrastructure provision, subsidies, guaranteed sales at artificially high prices, marketing facilities, agricultural research and credit, research and extension services, subsidised irrigation, transport, fencing, and training, all routinely provided to white farmers (Weideman, 2004; Vink and Van Rooyen, 2009).

Vink *et al.* (2012) assert that since 1913, a spatial economy of commercial agriculture has benefitted from various policies, but the most influential was most probably the Marketing Act of 1937. The Marketing Act No. 26 of 1937 established marketing boards, which included meat boards and maize boards which had far-ranging powers that included regulating production and prices for both internal consumption and export, and restricting imports (Kirsten and Van Zyl, 1996; Vink *et al.*, 2012; Bernstein, 1996). During this period, agriculture's contribution to the GDP was approximately 20% (Nel and Davies, 1999).

However, by the 1980s the economic and political crises of the apartheid regime led to increasing political pressure exerted by mining and industrial capital to reduce state support to agriculture and allow “market forces” freer rein (Bernstein, 1996). According to Jooste and Groenewald (2000), the gradual deregulation of agriculture began during the 1970s and 1980s but gained momentum during the 1990s, culminating in the repeal of the Marketing Act of 1937, as amended, and the promulgation of the Marketing of Agricultural Products Act of 1996. Greenberg (2010) posits that deregulation began in the 1980s. Furthermore, South Africa complied with the Marakesh Agreement reached under the auspices of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), now known as the World Trade Organisation (WTO). Hall

and Cousins (2017) also emphasized that agriculture's deregulation and liberalisation were initiated at that time but came to fruition only after the transition to democracy in 1994. These rapid changes caused unprecedented alterations to the agricultural structure and management in South Africa, while competition from overseas commodities increased substantially, while producers and agribusinesses in South Africa were seeking new markets (Jooste and Groenewald, 2000). Deregulation established the fundamental expectation that farmers, regardless of the resources they have or the size of their land, should be able to raise capital and production loans at market-related interest rates and repay such loans (Greenberg, 2010).

Deregulation, especially the closure of the marketing boards and the privatisation of sectoral cooperatives, facilitated a vertical integration in the agri-food system, leading to "Big Food" – the growing dominance of a handful powerful cooperations – in inputs, processing, retail, and to a lesser extent, primary production (Hall and Cousins, 2017). This was accompanied by increased financialisation, with a notable development being the creation of futures markets such as SAFEX in key commodities to respond to a wider range of opportunities and pressures in the global capitalist economy (Hall and Cousins, 2017). Bernstein (2013) indicates that the dismantling of the systems and institutions providing state support to agriculture was accompanied by agribusiness corporations' growing influence, both upstream and downstream of farming. This concentration has intensified since 1994, exacerbated by the entry of multinational seed, fertilizer, and agrochemical companies.

### **3.7 AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SUPPORT TO COMMERCIAL FARMERS BEFORE 1994**

In 1912, the Land Bank was established to provide a wide range of services to assist white agriculture, but with the advent of democracy, the bank provided similar services to black commercial farmers (Kahn, 2007). Currently, South Africa's financial sector is dominated by four large commercial banks, commonly known as the "big four": The Amalgamated Bank of Southern Africa (ABSA), First National Bank (FNB), Nedbank, and Standard Bank. These banks focus primarily on firms, large-scale commercial farmers, and households at the upper end of the income scale (De Klerk *et al.*, 2013).

There are no specific laws regulating agricultural finance, other than those governing the Land Bank's operations, which, amongst others, permit the bank to lend for most

standard agricultural purposes but not to accept deposits or operate current (cheque type) accounts. Consequently, the supply of and demand for financial services in South Africa's low-income rural communities, whether for productive or consumptive activities, needs to be located within the context of centuries of formal and informal racial division, the imprint of which remains evident in South Africa's agricultural sector (De Klerk *et al.*, 2013).

According to Zorgani (2014), South Africa's credit history indicates a division among borrowers. One group, comprising primarily white people, enjoys easy access to credit with low-interest charges in terms of the Usury Act of 1968 due to their high incomes. The second group comprising mainly black people with low incomes, encounter limited access to credit and, if they can access credit, the interest rates are high. The report commissioned in 2000 by the German Cooperative and Raiffeisen Confederation (DGRV) to study access to and use of rural financial services in South Africa noted that, between 1994 and 1996 (transition into democracy), the Commission of Inquiry into the Provision of Rural Finance Services, chaired by Dr Conrad Strauss (better known as the Strauss Commission), advanced recommendations to be considered in developing policy on agricultural and rural finance (De Klerk *et al.*, 2013).

Amongst the Strauss Commission's recommendations were that South Africa should establish special support services to enhance access to financial services in rural areas; harmonise legislation governing agriculture, banking, and land; ensure the Land Bank's focus is on the agricultural sector; and broaden and deepen state grants with a plan to phase out subsidies and grants in the long term. However, after the 1996 White Paper on Agriculture and the Strauss Commission's report, the DGRV study found that no clear statement on public policy on agricultural and rural finance had been made (De Klerk *et al.*, 2013).

### **3.8 AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT SUPPORT FOR SMALLHOLDER FARMERS**

The literature on the farmer support programme (FSP) targeting black farmers states that it was initiated in 1986 to assist small-scale farmers or rural households to improve their agricultural production in former homeland areas (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 1987; Singini and Van Rooyen, 1995). The Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA) introduced the FSP as an initiative to address constraints farmers encounter in rural

areas (Kirsten and Van Zyl, 1998). The FSP served as a government tool to alleviate poverty and improve economic development and growth (Net *et al.*, 1997; Nggangweni, 2000). The FSP was designed specifically to address inadequate support to smallholder /emerging producers by providing them with access to land, water, markets, finance, communications infrastructure, education, and skills development facilities (Sikwela, 2013).

The FSP introduced various initiatives aimed at strengthening agrarian transformation and household food security. These initiatives included a focus on the agrarian economy's growth in the former homelands (Timmer, 1997). Vink and Kirsten (2000) assert that this programme aimed to provide an alternative to the projects that dominated the agricultural sector in the 1970s that were capital-intensive, expensive to operate, often incurred losses, and rarely involved spillovers or linkages with the surrounding communities. Bromberger and Antonie (1993) referred to these projects as "Islands of prosperity amidst an ocean of poverty". The foregoing discussion serves as justification for the DBSA establishing the FSP in the 1980s.

The FSP's underlying assumption was that if the emerging and smallholder farmers received the same resources, and assistance from extension officers, and were taught productivity-enhancing skills, they could perform at the same level as commercial farmers (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 1995). Numerous scholars have defended the FSP's approach, considering it "a paradigm shift in the DBSA", promoting smallholder farming. Experiences from countries such as Zimbabwe, Kenya, and Malawi have implied that a broad-based farmer support strategy is a more effective way of promoting agricultural development (Sikwela, 2013). A study conducted by Kirsten and Van Zyl (1998) in Zimbabwe on smallholder farmers' support highlighted that implementing this strategy improved production. The same results were observed in Malawi and Kenya when implementing farmer support programmes. The consensus is that the FSP provides complementary, coordinated, and timely services to farmers (DBSA, 1986).

According to Kirsten and Van Zyl (1998) and Van Rooyen *et al.* (1995), the constraints faced by farmers supported through the FSP were addressed according to six elements: production inputs and capital, mechanisation services, marketing support, extension services, demonstration, research, training, and education, and policy

formulation. Vink *et al.* (2012) posit that during the early 1990s, the DBSA conducted an evaluation of the FSPs it had financed, and the results were published in 1995 (Singini and Van Rooyen, 1995). The primary lessons that emerged from the aforementioned evaluation were that farmers' support services had to be comprehensive, i.e., they had to be available and accessible for all farmers across the country; the provision of farmers' support services had to be coordinated, i.e., the various government agencies and private and non-profit sectors had to work together to provide effective support services; the support services had to focus on particular areas and groups of farmers' needs (Singini and Van Rooyen, 1995).

One must understand the history and nature of South Africa's agricultural sector, as well as the policy debates concerning agrarian reform (i.e. large-scale versus small-scale agricultural production), which considers social and economic factors to determine a land reform programme's effects on agricultural production (Weidemaan, 2004). As commercial farmers are already established, agriculture's economic role can be improved if more effort is exerted in supporting emerging farmers (Sikwela, 2013).

Table 3.6 below indicates that post-1994 there is still a skewed agrarian structure in South Africa which favours white large-scale commercial farmers. This table supports the arguments various authors advance about the need to promote agrarian reform with land reform farmers at various production levels. (Cousins, 2015).

**Table 3.6: The agrarian structure of South Africa in 2014**

Farmers	Numbers	Key features
The top 20 per cent of all large-scale commercial farmers on private land are predominantly white.	7,000	Sophisticated, specialist, capital-intensive farmers, producing for export or agro-processing and large retailers; produce perhaps as much as 80 per cent of the total produce.
Almost all medium- to large-scale commercial farmers on private land are white.	9,000	Some farmers succeed, some struggle, and some are unable to earn a living from farming alone.
The small- to medium-scale commercial farmers on private land are mostly white, with some blacks.	19,000	Many cannot survive from farming alone; this includes hobby farmers.
Small-scale black capitalist farmers in communal areas and land reform contexts.	5,000 -10,000	Many farmers earn an income from off-farm activities and businesses in addition to farming.
Market-oriented black smallholder farmers in communal areas and land reform contexts, supplying tight value chains (e.g., under contract).	5,000 -10,000	Many grow fresh produce under irrigation, while others are livestock producers, and a few engage in dryland cropping.
Market-oriented black smallholder farmers in communal areas and land reform contexts, supplying loose value chains.	200,000 - 250,000	Many grow fresh produce under irrigation, and others are livestock producers. A few depend wholly on farming.
Subsistence-oriented smallholder farmers grow food for themselves and occasionally sell the surplus.	2 - 2.5 million	Most crop production takes place in homestead gardens, some of which are quite large. Occasional livestock sales by some.

Source: Cousins (2015)

### **3.9 STATE INTERVENTION IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF SMALLHOLDER FARMERS WITHIN LAND REFORM**

Since 1994, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) has positioned land reform as “central to a vital driving force of a process of rural reconstruction and development” (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 1994). This choice to place land reform at the center of rural reconstruction and development recognised that land reform has the potential to fluctuate agricultural production (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 1994). The Broadening of

Access to Agriculture Thrust (BATAT), also established around 1994, focused on agricultural development in the RDP context. BATAT aimed to kick-start a shift away from white dominance in agriculture, assess existing and new black farmers' needs, and identify development priorities and strategies to improve their access to agriculture (Oettle *et al.*, 1998). However, when it became evident that BATAT was not working in line with its objectives of supporting black farmers with production loans, remedial action in the form of the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) was proposed "To enhance the provision of support services to promote and facilitate agricultural development targeting beneficiaries of land reform and agrarian reform programme" (NDA, 2004). BATAT, as is evident from these quotes, was aimed at "black farmers" in general, while CASP mainly targeted land reform beneficiaries (Vink *et al.*, 2012). CASP has six pillars, aiming to deliver comprehensive services to subsistence, smallholder, and previously disadvantaged commercial farmers. These pillars are listed hereunder; (i) Information, knowledge, and management; (ii) Technical and advisory assistance, and regulatory services; (iii) Marketing and business development; (iv) Training and capacity-building; (v) On- and off-farm infrastructure and production inputs; (iv) Financial support through South Africa's micro-agricultural financial institutions (MAFISA).

A University of Pretoria's impact evaluation of CASP (DPME, 2015), found that the programme has made progress towards achieving several of its objectives (e.g., enhancing agricultural support, and increasing production, etc.), but insufficient progress has been made in promoting commercialisation, market access, and employment, and achieving food security.

To mitigate the land reform and rural development failures in general, the Cabinet approved the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) in August 2009 (CRDP Framework, 2009). The CRDP was based on three pillars: an improved land reform programme, a coordinated and integrated broad-based agrarian transformation, and well-positioned investments in economic and social infrastructure for rural areas (CRDP Framework, 2009). Initiatives such as the CRDP, which emphasise growth and development, fundamentally re-reinforce the RDP (1994), WPSALP (1997), the South African Constitution (1996), and the BBBEEE Act's (2003) original prescripts (Moeng, 2011).

The DRDLR introduced the Recapitalisation and Development Programme (RADP) as part of the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) to deal with the challenges related to supporting land reform farmers. However, it too was found to be inadequate in supporting land reform farmers (DRDLR, 2011; DPME, 2013). According to the DRDLR, the RADP is in line with Outcome 7, Output 1 and the sub-output requires the number of smallholder producers to be increased and others to be newly established (DRDLR, 2011). The RADP's strategic objectives are to ensure that land reform farms are 100% productive; revive the class of emerging black commercial farmers, which was destroyed by the 1913 Natives Act; and significantly reduce the rural-to-urban migration. These objectives are supported through a recapitalisation and development grants which catered for production, machinery, equipment, infrastructure and mentorship/strategic partnerships support. These partnerships encompass private or commercial farmers and utilize four strategies: mentorship, co-management, share equity arrangements, and contract farming and concessions (DRDLR, 2011).

Despite the DRDLR's continuous support for agricultural land reform farmers, there are weaknesses in the land reform programme making it ineffective in promoting agricultural development. Several of those weaknesses are highlighted in the implementation evaluation programme undertaken by the DPME (DPME, 2013). These shortcomings include an insufficient budget, particularly per province, insufficient capacity to implement and monitor the programme, the RADP project cycle is not aligned to farming operations, weak market linkages, limited employment generating capacity, limited skills transfer, strategic interventions (strategic partnership/mentor) not achieving the RADP's intended objectives. Moreover, the grant funding approach has encouraged inflated budgets, over capitalisation and a lack of beneficiaries' commitment, and the RADP is implemented in isolation from other government departments.

The DPME's findings were also aligned with a study undertaken by Ntlou (2016), who evaluated the economic sustainability of land reform projects supported under RADP across the six provinces of South Africa. The findings revealed that, of the 98 projects evaluated, only 21 were found to be viable (making a gross income of R500,000 per annum) whilst 71 were considered non-viable (gross income of less than R500,000

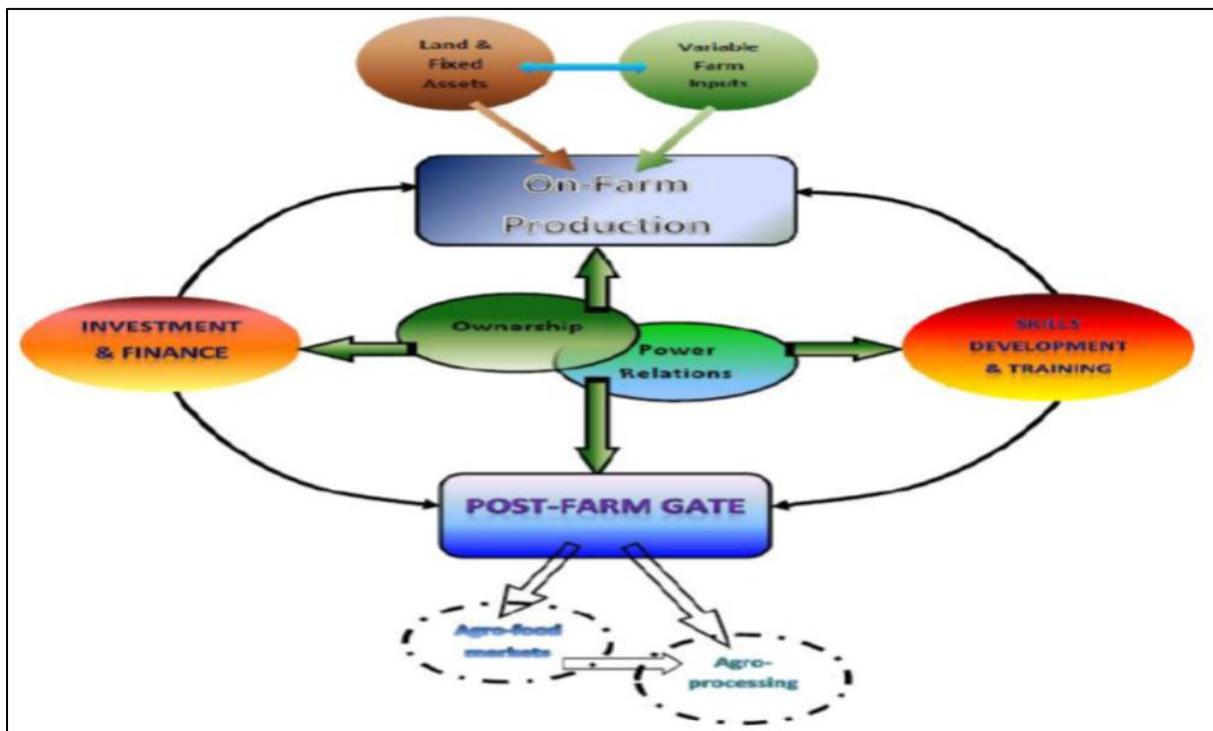
per annum). The primary challenges identified in the study were a lack of access to markets, lack of coordination amongst stakeholders to sustain the project's development, infeasibility of utilising the government as a sole funder for the projects, and a lack of tailormade training for farmers.

A preliminary finding from a small sample researched by Kepe and Hall indicated that production levels on PLAS farms are generally low, except where private sector partners operate and manage crops such as citrus and chicory (Kepe and Hall, 2016). Similarly, a scientific analysis study commissioned by the DRDLR to evaluate the performance of the PLAS portfolio including PLAS farms funded under RADP, reached similar conclusions to other studies. It revealed that the current performance and support provided to land reform farmers is inadequate, but there is potential for improvement through coordinated efforts and integrated support from public and private stakeholders within the agricultural sector (DRDLR, 2019). To address the challenges identified in various studies related to PLAS farms, the department introduced a Land Development Policy in 2018 (amended in 2020). Broadly, the LDS programme aims to provide grant funding for developing infrastructure, acquiring production inputs, equipment and machinery, ensuring capacity development, and integrating black smallholder farmers into value chains (DRDLR, 2018).

There is little doubt about South Africa's land reform programme's failure, and there is even less doubt about the main cause of this failure. Amongst the most important of these is that the policies which have succeeded in transferring land have not been supplemented with appropriate support for the beneficiaries to enable them to make productive use of the land, despite the government's numerous plans, i.e., WPSALP, RDP, BATAT, CASP, and RADP (Vink *et al.*, 2012; DPME, 2015; DPME, 2013).

Figure 3.1 below indicates the agricultural value chains with funded land reform projects. This government intervention is most often implemented in collaboration with various stakeholders within the agricultural sector. The government provides most of the investment and finance through a grant system for land access and acquisition of farm inputs to ensure adequate agricultural production. Various stakeholders are meant to provide skills development and training for farmers who have assumed ownership of their development, whilst power relations among stakeholders are

managed by the government. Farm produce is supposed to be marketed directly through multiple channels or various agro-processing units (HSRC, 2013).



Source: HSRC (2013)

**Figure 3.1: Overview of agricultural development on land reform-funded projects**

### 3.10 CREDIT FINANCING FOR SMALLHOLDER FARMERS

The formal rural financial markets comprise commercial banks, NGOs, microfinance institutions, the Land and Agricultural Bank of South Africa (regularly referred to as the Land Bank), and agricultural cooperatives (Chisasa, 2015). Du Randt and Makina (2012) assert that since 1980, the role of commercial banks in agricultural financing has been on an upward trend. Around 1978, the commercial banks provided just over 20% of the total credit to the sector and that increased substantially to over 67% in 2008. The Land Bank's role increased in the same period until 2002 when it provided 28% of the total credit to the agricultural sector but experienced a sharp decline after 2002 until 2008 by offering only 7% of the total credit to the sector (Du Randt and Makina, 2012). In the same period, until 1990, agricultural cooperatives were on an upward trend and had 23% of the agricultural credit market. This declined by half and has stabilised at the same level. Agricultural cooperatives' declining role in providing

credit was mainly due to the dismantling of their control of the marketing boards which regulated processes in the agricultural sector (Du Randt and Makina, 2012).

Since 1994, the government has prioritised developing small and large black-owned agricultural enterprises, in part by increasing such farms' access to financial services and adjusting these services to their needs and resources (De Klerk *et al.*, 2013). Greenberg (2010) opines that since the advent of democracy, the government has attempted to improve access to credit by retaining or creating new institutions to provide credit, and by encouraging the private sector to extend loans to black farmers. The Land Bank was identified to play a significant role in this regard but not in the same way as during the apartheid regime. Aliber and Maluleke (2010) posit that access to land and financial support are priorities in developing black farmers in South Africa. In land reform space, since the introduction of LRAD, the government commenced playing a role in rural financing through grants for land acquisition and a "balance of grants" for agricultural development (DLA, 2001). However, these grants were insufficient to initiate any meaningful agricultural development. CASP was developed in 2008 to address this limitation by providing effective agricultural support. LRAD's failures have been well documented by various researchers, including Antwi and Nxumalo (2014), who reported that, like SLAG, LRAD did not assist or promote the achievement of agricultural success. Consequently, numerous projects collapsed due to the lack of access to sufficient capital for meaningful agricultural development, and the lack of mentorship, and markets.

While land redistribution programmes such as the Proactive Land Acquisition strategy (PLAS) aim to offer land access to black farmers, these farmers often struggle with undeveloped agricultural projects which frequently fail, primarily due to a lack of financial support (Aliber and Maluleke, 2010; Hart and Aliber, 2012). Chisasa (2015, noted, drawing from existing literature (Moyo, 2002; Kirsten and van Zyl, 2003; Chisasa and Makina, 2012), that farmers in South Africa face credit constraints, resulting in poor performance. This challenge is not unique to South Africa but extends to sub-Saharan Africa, significantly compromising Africans' ability to sustain themselves economically through agricultural projects (International Finance Corporation, 2013).

Presently in South Africa, agricultural development funding models are categorised as grant and loan funding. Grant funding is non-recoverable funding mostly offered through government departments, whilst loans are recoverable funding primarily offered by government agencies and commercial banks (Sebola, 2018). Grants aim to promote emerging black farmers and smallholders, empowering them for the future sustainability of their projects or agribusinesses (Olubode-Awusola and Van Schalkwyk, 2006). Various grants are offered through programmes such as LRAD's "balance of grant", CASP, RADP, Ilima-Letsema, LDS etc. Meanwhile, loans, which are recoverable funding, are primarily provided by government-funded banks such as the Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA), the Land Bank, financial agencies, and the Independent Development Corporation (Sebola, 2018; Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, 2013).

While grant requirements generally make finance accessible to most aspiring black commercial farmers, Sebola (2018) argues that specific criteria, such as prioritising only unemployed black South Africans and ignoring employed black South Africans no matter how keen they are to become commercial farmers, result in the selection of financially constrained individuals who are unlikely to access loans for project sustainability. According to Sebola (2018), potential workers cannot access the significant loans required for sustainable production, whereas the accessibility of grants, supplemented by their income, can assist them in securing the necessary loan amount to sustain their commercial enterprises.

Commercial banks such as FNB, ABSA, NEDBANK, and Standard Bank of South Africa have created dedicated agribusiness units and offer short- to long-term loans to potential commercial farmers (DAFF, 2013). However, their eligibility criteria for accessing loans – such as a deposit of up to 30% of the loan – are impossible for smallholder or emerging black farmers (Sebola, 2018). Vink *et al.* (2012) assert that access to land ownership remains problematic for emerging black farmers despite the promise of post-apartheid land reforms, to the extent that secured tenure (in the form of land ownership), is one of the key requirements to access loans for production from commercial banks. De Klerk *et al.* (2013) that land reform beneficiaries, especially PLAS farmers, inability to use land they are already farming as collateral for bank

loans, makes lending more difficult, as alternative sources of physical and financial security are generally limited or non-existent.

Given that both funding models – grants through government departments and loans through commercial banks/government-funded banks, and subsidiaries – operate independently with difficult-to-satisfy criteria, Sebola (2018) concluded that neither funding method appears to have benefited aspiring black commercial farmers, especially land reform farmers in successfully developing agricultural projects. Ntlou (2016), in a study conducted on land reform farmers funded through grants under RADP, indicated that black farmers could be successful if project funding was based on both grants and loans. Bank credit has a significantly positive impact on agricultural output. With other factors kept constant, a 1% increase in credit results in a 0.6% increase in agricultural output. Similarly, capital accumulation, which can be a result of a successful operation, culminates in increased output. Therefore, if all factors are kept constant, the combined effect of credit and capital accumulation provides a constant return on scale, which implies doubling the two inputs will double agricultural output (Chisasa, 2015).

### **3.11 PARTNERSHIP MODELS FOR LAND REFORM DEVELOPMENT**

To ensure coordinated and integrated support from public and private stakeholders within the agricultural sector in the interest of land reform's agricultural development, the erstwhile Department of Land Affairs introduced a strategic partnership arrangement model within restitution farms. This model involves a collaborative joint venture between a claimant community and an established commercial firm (Basu, 2015). This partnership approach has also been implemented in other land redistribution programmes such as LRAD, PLAS, and irrigation schemes developed on communal land (DPME, 2013; Ranwedzi, 2013; Tapela, 2012; Maepa *et al.*, 2014; Mphahlele *et al.*, 2010). Studies have indicated that similar initiatives between white and black farmers in South Africa have been in place for several decades. These partnerships include collaborations between communal small cane growers and sugar mills and partnerships in the timber industry in communal areas supplying logs to sawmills (Kane-Berman, 2016).

It should be noted that the trend in South African land and agrarian reform to overly rely on strategic partnerships or joint ventures mirrors global trends. Numerous governments and international organisations encourage inclusive business models (Vermeulen and Cotula, 2010; IFAD, 2012; Haralambous *et al.*, 2009, as cited by Bunce 2018). Scholars are currently debating appropriate models for agricultural development while there is growing criticism of global land grabs as a result of the intense acceleration of land-based investments since 2007 in Africa (Hall *et al.*, 2015).

This strategic partnership, or inclusive business model, includes a range of different models, for example, joint ventures, contract farming, sharecropping, tenant farming, lease contracts, farm worker share-equity schemes, management contracts, and other upstream and downstream business links (Vermeulen and Cotula, 2010; Cotula and Buxton, 2010; IFAD, 2012, as *cited* by Bunce, 2018). According to Bitzer and Bijman (2014), the term “strategic partnership” is most often used to refer to joint ventures, management contracts, and lease agreements, which are usually “government-facilitated arrangements”. The strategic partnership is mostly presented as an agreement between farmers and private investors wherein the farmers avail their land for production while the private investor is responsible for all project administration, including the provision of production inputs such as seeds, pesticides and fertilizer, skills training, crop harvesting, processing, and marketing, and payment of farmers’ labour costs and profits (Tapela, 2012). Mayson (2003) identified three types of partnerships within land reform in South Africa: joint ventures, strategic partnerships, and co-management, which involve partnerships between land reform beneficiaries and either government or private entities. Vermeulen and Cotula (2010) confirm that these various models are not neatly separated; it is common for them to overlap and be combined into hybrid forms. However, the fundamental aspect of all partnership models is that they involve partnering with smallholder farmers inclined to conduct commercial farming, sharing obligations, government facilitation, and a mutual aspiration to benefit from development.

In the land reform context, farmers supported through the LDS programme have formed partnerships with commodity organisations. These organisations are formed by interest groups, including farmers, to promote their interests in a particular commodity. In this arrangement, the government and farmers are partnered with

commodity organisations to develop farms into commercial enterprises. This partnership is conducted in line with the grant support programme's primary objective, which is to develop sustainable production and commercialise land reform farmers (DRDLR, 2018). Accordingly, commodity organisations are responsible for spearheading farms' development by developing business plans and infrastructure, acquiring the required machinery and equipment, facilitating production and markets, and providing mentorship (DRDLR, 2018). These initiatives between the government and commodity organisations were conceptualised as part of the 27 Operation Phakisa initiatives to develop a dynamic business model for producer support. The initiative fosters a partnership between the government, commodity organisations, and other stakeholders to develop and provide a commodity-specific, comprehensive, producer support package for each black producer (Government of South Africa, 2017).

Partnerships with commodity organisations, research, and academic institutions are encouraged in the delivery of agricultural extension and advisory services due to the challenges and constraints the government encounters in delivering such services (Ngaka and Zwane, 2018). Parallels can be drawn between the strategic partnership and dynamic models for producer support in that they both require multistakeholder arrangements, equal power dynamics among partners, legal agreements, sharing of responsibilities, and consultation with smallholder farmers.

Therefore, in terms of market-led land reform, beneficiaries should not rely exclusively on the state for post-settlement support services but should be able to access services from a range of public and private providers similar to large commercial farmers who generally have access to a range of commercial and cooperative services. This will ensure that land reform beneficiaries and other small-scale farmers are not largely left to fend for themselves (Vink and Kirsten, 2003, as *cited* by Lahiff, 2009). Jacobs *et al.*, (2013) posit that moves should be made to persuade the private sector to redirect resources towards previously neglected areas thereby empowering farmers' organisations and emerging black entrepreneurs to run their services.

### 3.11.1 Dissection of the strategic partnership model

Joint ventures typically involve complicated governance and financial arrangements, which is noted as an inherent challenge in much of the literature documenting case studies. Community beneficiaries are often incapable of comprehending these complex and often perplexing arrangements. Hence, it is common that they express difficulty in navigating governance structures to allow for their full participation and to monitor accountability (Davies, 2014; Lahiff *et al.*, 2012; Hall *et al.*, 2015). Vermeulen and Cotula (2010) mention that the strategic partnership, by its very nature, connects two sets of stakeholders: smallholders and agribusiness, who meet at the table with radically unequal negotiating power.

Numerous studies highlight discrepancies in the negotiating power between local communities and agribusiness firms, in favour of the latter, who are often not genuinely interested in an equal partnership (Makhathini, 2010; Cotula and Buxton, 2010, as *cited* by Bunce 2018). The DPME (2013), in an evaluation study on land reform projects funded under the RADP, also indicated that there were unequal power relationships between farmers and their strategic partners. In their national study of joint ventures in communal areas, Cousins and Gumede (2017) emphasised that strategic partnership arrangements were characterised by “tensions and conflicts” arising from issues regarding accountability, decision-making, and the fair, equal, and transparent distribution of benefits.

Other issues perceived as shortcomings in this type of partnership include insufficient focus on training and skills transfer to beneficiaries resulting in a feeling that original expectations had failed to materialise, and raising expectations, which at some level are unrealistically high, about what benefits these projects can deliver. These issues create distrust among communities (Cotula and Buxton, 2010, as *cited* by Bunce, 2018). Cousins and Gumede (2017) also emphasise that in several of these partnerships, livelihoods, land rights, and land use are adversely affected. In a study of Livhubu Farms in Limpopo Province, Manenzhe (2018) noted similar challenges, reporting that “severe tensions and conflicts have arisen within CPAs, manifested in different forms of identity politics and competing modes of belonging”.

The strategic partners also blame the model for imposing a high level of dependence on state funding, while they carry most of the risks (Davies, 2019). To some extent, certain communities on land reform farms in Limpopo Province, such as Moletele and Levubu, have either reinforced existing models or developed alternative models to the government's strategic partnership model. The reinforced strategic partnership and alternative models include "community-private partnerships", which involve a long-term lease combined with other social benefits and a "management contract", which also involves a commercial partner leasing land. However, even the "revised models" contain challenges, such as the deterioration of natural resources over time when partners push for higher profits (Lahiff *et al.*, 2012; Bunce, 2018).

Notwithstanding the challenges with the strategic partnership model, one of the key benefits derived from joint ventures is employment opportunities created for local people and customary landowners. However, such jobs are normally low-paid, unskilled, and either seasonal or short-term, without the added benefit of social security (Vermeulen and Cotula, 2010; Lahiff *et al.*, 2012; Oya, 2012). The DPME (2013) found that land reform farms supported through the RADP were effective in enhancing skills development and production. Maepa *et al.* (2014) conducted a study on the revitalisation of irrigation schemes on communal land in Limpopo Province. Their research indicated that over 74% of the participants acknowledged strategic partners' instrumental role in skills development for a variety of crops. This learning component is critical for projects' long-term sustainability.

### **3.11.2 Multistakeholder arrangements for agricultural development**

The global agri-food system faces increasingly volatile, uncertain, complex challenges that require a cross-sectoral and holistic approach involving a combination of resources, knowledge, and multiple stakeholders' skills (High-level panel of experts, 2018; Breeman, Dijkman and Termeer, 2015). Consequently, the agricultural sector has witnessed an increased number of multistakeholder partnerships, with numerous agribusinesses across the world attempting to create cooperation between a much broader set of stakeholders, including value chain actors, the government, investors – which include strategic partners –academic and research institutions, and civil society (Breeman, Dijkman and Termeer, 2015; Kilelu *et al.*, 2017). The exchange of knowledge, skills, and resources results in a competitive economic advantage for all

the multistakeholder partners (Denoti *et al.*, 2016; Kilelu *et al.*, 2017). Carroll and Buchholtz (1989) defined these stakeholders as “individuals or groups with which business interacts who have a stake or vested interest in a form or business operation”. In a study on the impact of the commercialisation of irrigation schemes in the Olifants river catchment area of Limpopo Province, Tapela (2012) documented a multistakeholder arrangement. This arrangement was institutionalised as a decision-making structure, bringing together large and small-scale commercial farmers, communal farmers, local government officials, NGOs, the agri-business sector, and local and district municipalities. Similar to claims made by Denoti *et al.* (2016) and Kilelu *et al.* (2017), this structure aimed to enhance the partners’ competitive economic advantage by developing value-adding facilities to improve market access for smallholder farmers (Tapela, 2012). However, for multistakeholder arrangements to succeed without hindrance, issues concerning power relations and effective planning systems need to be enhanced.

The World Bank (2013) emphasises that smallholders find it difficult to participate in industries in which demanding standards prevail. Such industries are often labour-intensive and create much-needed jobs in developing countries. In numerous developing countries, the government fails to provide comprehensive agricultural services to support smallholders’ participation in such industries. Simultaneously, there is a lack of market depth to encourage agricultural investments, creating opportunities for agribusinesses to enter into contractual and other types of partnerships with smallholders for agricultural development (World Bank, 2013). The private sector plays a vital role in advancing agrifood system (AFS) development by supplementing public sector finance, which is insufficient for the necessary investments in agricultural development or AFS growth.

### **3.12 IMPORTANCE OF NEEDS ASSESSMENT FOR FARMER DEVELOPMENT**

#### **3.12.1 Consultation**

Modiselle *et al.* (2005), as quoted by Zantsi (2019), emphasise the importance of considering all relevant factors when making production and investment decisions in smallholder farming. These decisions are influenced not only by economic factors and natural resources’ availability, but also by various social, economic, biological, and institutional factors within which the farmer operates. The farmer’s background in terms of

production and aspirations plays a significant role in decision-making and, consequently, affects production outcomes (Chipfupa and Wale, 2018). In the Land Redistribution Programme context, policymakers often overlook these factors, opting for a top-down approach.

Lahiff (2009) noted that South African land reform has been shaped by the type of farm (or project) planning it has adopted. on the model's planning tends to be about the farm, not about the beneficiaries thereof. The focus is on the land's physical features, recent history, and agricultural potential, as seen through the eyes of the commercially oriented consultants appointed by the DLA. Little or no attention is paid to the beneficiaries' resources, skills, and expressed wishes. Honadle and Rosengard (1988) indicate that consultants develop numerous business plans, none of which consider the size of the group concerned. It is evident with this type of planning that beneficiaries must adapt to the farm's needs, and not the other way around. According to scholars and state institutions, it appears that the conceptualisation of project support, including the formation of partnerships within land reform farms, is initiated through government processes with the end goal of ensuring sustainable or at least maintained production on newly acquired commercial farms (Lahiff *et al.*, 2012; Bunce, 2018). However, during such conceptualisation, farmers' needs are rarely considered, which are crucial for ensuring farms' sustainability (Matiwane and Terblanche, 2012; Field, 1997).

The national-level decisions project designers make can sometimes conflict with the factors influencing villagers' behaviour, which in turn affects rural development projects' overall success (Wood, 1981). Hebinck *et al.* (2011) criticise the top-down expert-knowledge approach to land redistribution for its failure to consider the beneficiaries' reality and aspirations. Aliber and Cousins (2013) argue that the capital-intensive agribusiness model, which fails to consider rural dwellers and aspiring farmers' social realities, abilities, and aspirations, results in land reform projects that are intrinsically unworkable and prone to collapse. Therefore, encouraging participation from all stakeholders within a project is essential for ensuring its success.

### 3.12.2 Aspirations

In the land reform context, beneficiaries' aspirations have been raised as an important factor in ensuring that the land reform efforts match their realities (Cousins *et al.*, 2020). Similarly, Brown (2000) and Groenewald (2004) argue that land reform beneficiaries' aspirations have profound implications for a land reform programme's success. The study conducted by Düvel (2002) on a comparative evaluation of several participatory needs assessment methods in extension revealed that need appraisals are important and time specific. This finding highlights the importance of remaining sensitive to changing needs as situations evolve. Additionally, needs can be altered or perhaps manipulated, making them a potentially valuable tool in creating consensus, which is often a precondition for programmes and projects' successful development (Düvel, 2002). According to Swanepoel and De Beer (2006), the starting point of any project is identifying a need, and people must own their situation. They must recognise a specific need and decide to act, thereby taking full ownership of the action and the need.

It appears that one of the most significant shortcomings the PLAS study identified is the incorrect selection of beneficiaries, which is associated with farmers' aspirations not being aligned with the proposed farm development. This poor selection has resulted in numerous unsuitable beneficiaries who manage their farms poorly with little chance of achieving commercial success (DRDLR, 2019). The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform indicates that the important criteria when evaluating a beneficiary include entrepreneurial aptitude; resilience and ability to handle risk; ability to manage; and technical ability (as determined by experience, education and support). Future behaviour is best predicted by past behaviour, and it is, therefore, important to evaluate potential farmers by taking their history, experience, proven skills, and resilience into consideration. Experience in management and entrepreneurial endeavour is critical, especially for beneficiaries considered for multi-enterprise, commercial farms. Aspiring farmers should be willing to invest their capital, physical labour, and knowledge into the farming business. They must also be able to plan and manage under difficult conditions (resilience), as this indicates farmers' willingness and aptitude to establish linkages and utilise existing support systems to ensure that the farm is integrated into the production value chains. Social skills are

also important, as they relate to an ability to share information and contribute positively to a network, whilst age is often key to creating social capital (DRDLR, 2019).

### **3.12.3 Entrepreneurs' characteristics**

Brandstatter (2011) asserts that commencing a life of autonomy, self-determination, and independence requires emotional stability. Finding new opportunities or prospects and structuring and developing a business requires openness to experience, hard work, and tenacity. Motivation to achieve goals requires achievement motivation, a component of conscientiousness. Developing a social network requires extraversion, and risking failure requires risk propensity, as well as a possible combination of emotional stability, extraversion, and openness. Extraversion is positively associated with interest in enterprising or entrepreneurial occupations. According to Zhao and Seibert (2006), entrepreneurs must engage with a wide range of stakeholders such as venture capitalists, partners, staff, and customers. Entrepreneurs often find themselves in a salesperson role, engaging in more direct social interaction with stakeholders than regular managers. The ability to persevere and remain committed to one's business goals in the face of adversity is essential for entrepreneurial success (Fine *et al.*, 2012).

#### **3.12.3.1 Conscientiousness**

Conscientiousness is characterised by an individual's degree of organisation, persistence, motivation, and hard work in the quest for goal accomplishment. This personality trait is often viewed as an indicator of the tendency and ability to work hard (Zhao and Seibert, 2006). Success in agribusiness demands extensive, hard work and entails unpredictable financial outcomes. Consequently, for land reform farmers functioning as entrepreneurs, possessing this trait is essential for thriving in the industry.

#### **3.12.3.2 Risk-taking**

Risk-taking involves the perceived likelihood of receiving the rewards or costs associated with the outcome of a planned endeavour (Stokes *et al.*, 2010). Entrepreneurs invest a significant amount of effort into an organisational start-up and tend to take calculated risks when opportunities present themselves (Milner, 2012). The types of risks these entrepreneurs are willing to take include personal, financial,

psychological, and social risks. Farmers benefiting from land reform must exhibit a willingness to endure risks, sacrificing immediate well-being and financial gains in favour of a sustained commitment to the long-term success of agribusiness.

### **3.12.3.3 Locus of control**

Locus of control involves an individual's perception that he or she has control or influence over outcomes (Judge and Bono, 2001). People with an internal locus of control believe that achievements are dependent on their actions and abilities and are also more likely to ascribe failures to external factors, thereby preserving self-esteem (Evelyn, 2014). Alternatively, an external locus of control refers to the belief that external forces, such as luck or powerful others, influence outcomes. Low self-efficacy tends to be positively correlated with external locus of control (Judge and Bono, 2001). From an entrepreneurship perspective, many researchers have found internal locus of control to be stronger in entrepreneurial populations or groups than in other populations (Kerr *et al.*, 2017). Rauch and Frese (2007) believe that successful entrepreneurs display an internal locus of control. To capitalise on the support offered by the LDS grant, farmers acting as entrepreneurs must foster a belief in and actively shape their own development, thereby ensuring their enduring presence and success in the industry.

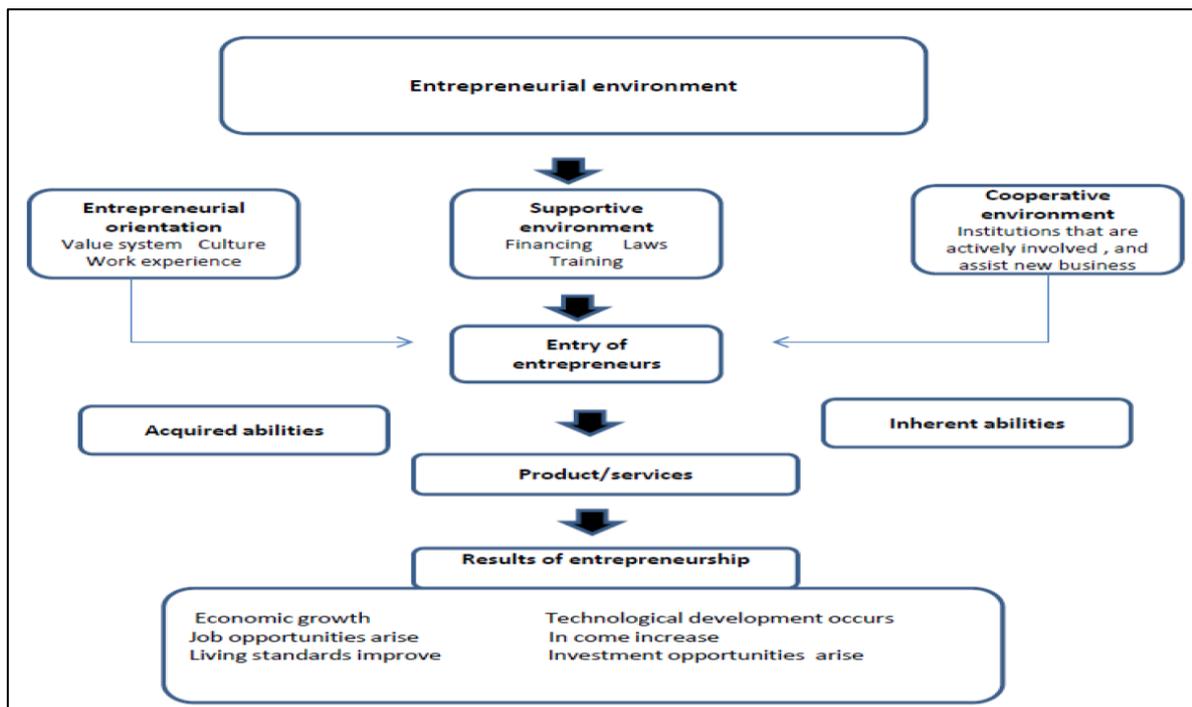
### **3.12.3.4 Self-efficacy**

Self-efficacy is the belief in oneself to complete a certain task effectively and is directly related to goals, expectations, and motivation (Bandura, 1997; Cassar and Friedman, 2009). Land reform farmers need inherent motivation to attain their farming objectives, as self-efficacy emphasises capability rather than a guarantee of action, focusing on what one can do rather than what one will do. Therefore, engaging in partnerships for farm development enhances the likelihood of attaining goals.

### **3.12.3.5 Innovativeness**

Innovation can be described as a process of adding something new to an existing product or process. Creativity (which is often used as an interchangeable term), on the other hand, concerns thinking new things, while innovation is about doing new things. Creativity is thus the pillar upon which innovation is built (Edokpolor and Somorin, 2017). Farmers adaptation to new ways of farming strengthen their competitiveness.

Figure 3.2 below indicates the characteristics of a farmer as an entrepreneur, providing an overview of the entrepreneurial environment in which farmers operate. External factors, including laws and legislation, farmers' orientation or conscientiousness, availability of stakeholders' support, acquired ability, inherent ability, and self-efficiency are important considerations for achieving the desired outcomes. Ultimately, succeeding in this environment can lead to economic growth, increased job opportunities, higher income, improved technology, investments, and overall enhancement of farmers' livelihood (Antonites, 2016, as cited by Stevens, 2017).



Source: Stevens, 2017

**Figure 3.2: Farmers' entrepreneurial environment**

### 3.13 SUMMARY

The chapter presents a comprehensive review of global and South African land reform initiatives, shedding light on the historical context of support for commercial farmers prior to the democratic transition. It explores the development of support initiatives for smallholder farmers, including post-1994 land reform, revealing successes and shortcomings in government interventions. The text explores diverse partnership models in agriculture, highlighting well-structured collaborations' importance for progress and aligning agricultural support with farmers' actual needs. The subsequent chapter will detail the research framework and methodology.

## CHAPTER 4

### FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

To advance knowledge through research, it is critical for researchers to follow specific research methods, approaches, and designs appropriate for their study. Consequently, the research methodology becomes a crucial part of the research process through which researchers conduct their study by addressing the identified research problem and meeting the study objectives as indicators of progress (Abu-Taieh, 2020). The choice of research methodology is determined by the nature of the research question and the subject under investigation (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). In this chapter, the researcher presents the systematic research methods adopted to answer the primary research question of the study, which aimed to evaluate the impact of government and non-government support programmes on land reform farms' development in South Africa. All decisions regarding the choice of method, design etc. were made while bearing in mind the need to answer the following list of research questions.

- How effective are the government's agricultural support programmes in promoting land reform farms' development?
- What potential role can commodity organisations perform in contributing towards land reform farms' success?
- To what extent were land reform farmers' aspirations considered when the government developed support programme?
- What integrated support model can be designed to promote land reform farms' development?
- What recommendations can be made to support policy formulation, and programme design and implementation?

This study adopted a mixed methods approach to achieve the aforementioned aims and objectives. The rationale behind this choice was to enhance the study's validity and reliability, as advocated by Burns and Grove (2021). Moreover, the study was conducted within the critical realism framework, a research approach that seeks to overcome the dichotomy between objectivism and subjectivism by distinguishing

between ontology (what is real) and epistemology (what we know). Fletcher (2017) posits that this method seeks to measure the underlying causal relationships between social events to obtain a better understanding of issues and enable strategic recommendations for addressing social problems. Within the critical realist perspective, scholars assume the existence of an objective world with powers and properties that can be more accurately understood through scientific inquiry (Bhaskar, 1994).

Roy Bhaskar developed this philosophy in the 1970s, arguing that the universe, including the social world, is a stratified and open system of emergent entities. Entities are things which make a difference in their own right, rather than as mere sums of their parts (Fleetwood, 2005; Bhaskar, 1994; Archer et al., 2013). Entities could be molecules, individuals, or organisations, despite one perhaps (partially) comprising others. Entities may also be real in different ways and at different levels. Ideas about the causal powers of entities are important because change often occurs when the powers of one entity interact with another (O'Mahoney, 2011; Bhaskar and Hartwig, 2010; Elder-Vass, 2010). Therefore, critical realism provides an underpinning structure and language to guide good research by asking what the entities, causal powers, dependencies and relations are, but it does not specify what these should be. The researcher's task is to derive a causally accurate, correct, or reliable explanation for observed patterns of events by developing more adequate (and domain-specific) accounts of the powers, entities, mechanisms and relations which created them (O'Mahoney, 2011; Bhaskar, 2008; Sayer, 2010). Despite the assertion concerning its application's methodological underdevelopment, this method provides researchers with fresh opportunities to holistically investigate complex organisational occurrences (Easton, 2010; Yeung, 1997). In this study's context, the researcher believed that the land reform programme is generally accepted within the country and presumed that in promoting new entrants into the commercial sector through land reform, commodity organisations can support their development given the dualistic nature of land reform in South Africa.

In line with the realism philosophy, this study adopted a scientific approach to gain insight into these ideas, which, at "face value", appear commendable. The research explored the interactions among entities such as farmers, commodity organisations,

and the government, their interdependencies and causal powers in fostering land reform. This chapter outlines the research design, sampling strategy, data collection instrument, data analysis, triangulation approach, pilot study, validity, reliability, and ethical considerations.

## **4.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

Research is categorised according to applied research and pure research (Creswell, 2013; Brink, 2001; Goundar, 2012). Pure, or basic research, involves developing and testing theories to understand the scientific nature of social reality. The knowledge produced seeks to contribute towards the existing body of knowledge whose practical application might not be usable in the short term but rather in the long run (Goundar, 2012; Neuman and Kreuger, 2003). In contrast, applied researchers conduct studies to address a specific concern and an identified problem. Therefore, applied research is designed to produce practical solutions within a short space of time, either for policy formulation, administration, or understanding a phenomenon for decision-making (Creswell, 2013; Chambers *et al.*, 2000; Neuman and Kreuger, 2003).

Goundar (2012) distinguishes between research methods and methodology in that research methods are those strategies one utilises in conducting a study, mostly experiments and surveys, to find a solution to a research problem. The research methodology is concerned with utilising the correct procedures in resolving an identified problem. Creswell (2014a) and Creswell and Guetterman (2019) describe research methodology as a systematic procedure geared towards solving a problem utilising systematic approaches comprising strategies and methods for data gathering, reasoning and interpretation based on theoretical assumptions.

Other researchers (Williams, 2011; Goundar, 2012; Leedy and Ormord, 2010) agree with Creswell (2014a) and Creswell and Guetterman (2019) who assert that researchers employ the research methodology as holistic steps in describing, explaining, and predicting a particular phenomenon under investigation in a structured manner. In this study's context, the research methodology can be described as a "compass or a road map" utilised to undertake an investigation; it should enable the researcher to answer questions such as why, how, and what concerning the research undertaken within a specific research paradigm.

This study considered three research approaches: qualitative, quantitative, and multiple or mixed research approaches.

#### **4.2.1 Qualitative research approach**

Qualitative research is an approach mainly concerned with the meanings that people have constructed; it defines how people make sense of their world (ontology) and their experiences. Based on this description, qualitative research can be understood as an in-depth study of social and cultural phenomena (Merriam, 2009; Myers, 2009). Qualitative methodology emphasises description and analysis based on participants' perspectives (Bryman, 1988). Denzin and Lincoln (2011) posit that qualitative research is a situated activity locating the observer in the world utilising a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos.

Qualitative research aims to gain an in-depth understanding of a specific organisation or event, focusing on explicit structures, order, and broad patterns within a group of participants rather than superficial descriptions from a large sample of a population (Ranwedzi, 2013). The strength of the qualitative approach rests in its ability to access subjectivity and convey a sense of individual experiences while highlighting the political, social, and cultural contexts. This approach provides a stage for participants to explain their experiences and ideas in their own words, encouraging discussion and contributions (Kothari, 1985; Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Kumar, 2005; Welman *et al.*, 2005). According to Creswell (2007; 2013), there are five approaches to qualitative inquiry: narrative, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, and case study (see Table 4.1).

Several researchers categorise qualitative approaches into two main categories: field research, which is concerned with ethnographic case studies, and historical comparative research studies which enable the researcher to generate new concepts and perspectives. Case studies investigated a small group of people over an extended period, while historical comparative research is suitable for examining the combinations of social factors that produce a specific outcome, for example, civil wars, by analysing historical events or diverse cultural contexts (Neuman, 2013; Kreuger and Neuman, 2006).

**Table 4.1: Qualitative research approaches**

Approaches	Description
Narrative	This approach is mostly concerned with exploring an individual's life by narrating their experiences. Information about the individual's life is collected through interviews and documents and analysed by the chronological development of themes. The analysed detailed experiences are then developed into narrative stories.
Phenomenology	The essence of a lived phenomenon is described to understand a particular experience. This method involves studying several individuals who have shared experiences, utilising interviews, documents, and observations. Data is analysed to identify significant statements, extract the meaning of units, and provide a textural and structural description of the essence of the experience. This approach was selected for the qualitative segment of this study because it allowed the researcher to become immersed in the study, describing the essence of a phenomenon and the associated emotions.
Grounded Theory	This approach develops a theory based on field insights gathered from participants' perspectives captured through interviews with a significant number of individuals, typically between 20 and 60 individuals. The data is gathered systematically and analysed using open coding, axial coding, and selective coding to generate a theory, which is often illustrated in a figure. This process involves continuous interaction between data collection and analysis.
Ethnography	Ethnography involves describing and interpreting the shared culture of a specific group. This approach focuses on studying groups that share the same culture. Data is collected through observations, interviews, and various sources during a lengthy stay in the field. The data analysis is conducted by identifying themes related to the group's shared culture
Case studies	This approach involves developing an in-depth description and analysis of a case or multiple case, culminating in the researcher's in-depth understanding of the case or cases. This approach focuses on studying an event, programme, or activity rather than an individual. The analysis of case studies is performed through the description of individual cases, identification of case-specific themes, and exploration of cross-case themes.

Source: Adapted from Creswell (2007; 2013)

Besides the qualitative approaches, there are also several essential assumptions about qualitative research. These are described in the ensuing paragraphs.

### **a. Naturalistic**

The naturalistic perspective is a non-experimental approach in which researchers study organisms in their natural settings. The behaviour of the phenomenon under investigation is observed and recorded by the researcher whose presence may or may not be known to the subject (Wells, 2010). This implies that the researcher studies subjects in their natural environment, or the research takes place in the participants' natural setting in an attempt to interpret a phenomenon in terms of its meaning to the people under investigation (Denzil and Lincoln, 2011; Myburgh and Poggenpoel, 2007). In quantitative studies, the naturalistic perspective typically involves non-random and purposive sampling techniques, which yield detailed data, descriptions, and context in which experiences occur (Frey *et al.*, 1999; Denzil and Lincoln, 2011).

### **b. The researcher's humbleness**

The researcher adopts a stance of "not knowing", acknowledging that the participants are knowledgeable about the phenomenon under investigation. A humble approach could also help restore faith in the social sciences (Myburgh and Poggenpoel, 2007). Embracing humility in research is crucial, especially in qualitative methods where data gathering often involves discussions or narratives. A humble researcher will naturally create a conducive environment for participants to feel free to interact and talk openly in responding to research questions, thereby enriching the data.

### **c. Bracketing**

Bracketing is how researchers separate their experiences from the subject being studied, allowing them to approach the research field without preconceived ideas (Creswell, 2003; Moustakas, 1994). Researchers utilise "bracketing" by setting aside any preconceived ideas and "intuiting", focusing on the specific phenomenon under investigation (Denzil and Lincoln, 2011).

### **d. Purposive or judgmental sampling**

Purposive sampling is employed to select respondents most likely to provide appropriate and useful information (Kelly, 2010). Purposive sampling strategies differ from random sampling and are utilised to ensure that specific respondents with valuable knowledge are included in the study sample. The reasons for adopting a purposive sampling strategy are based on the assumption that, given the study's aims

and objectives, individuals with specific perspectives or experiences related to the study's objectives should be included in the sample, as they may offer unique insights (Mason, 2002; Robinson, 2014).

#### ***e. Language***

Asking and answering questions are the core elements of survey research, and even “clear” and “simple” questions can dramatically change in meaning depending on who asks whom and in which context. These complexities, entwined with semantics, pragmatics, and social context, become more intricate when researchers and respondents do not share the same cultural background, and use different languages (Schwarz *et al.*, 2010; Peytcheva, 2020). Therefore, language in qualitative research is dynamic, including words, symbols, and even emojis or cartoons (Sha and Gabel, 2020).

#### ***f. Lived experience***

There are multiple realities in the field of research, which depend on the participants' lived experiences, perceptions, and views (Myburgh and Poggenpoel, 2007). The concept of lived experience, or transcendental phenomenology, entails exploring an experience with impartiality as if witnessing the phenomenon for the first time through the participants' experiences. Therefore, researchers should ignore their experience of the phenomenon and perceive the incident through the lens of those encountering the phenomenon for the first time (Creswell, 2013; Moustakas, 1994). This researcher believed that one's own experience of the phenomenon under investigation will enhance the collected data's credibility, the process employed, and ultimately, the results obtained.

#### ***g. Data saturation***

Data saturation is the most common guiding principle when evaluating purposive sampling's appropriateness and is widely accepted in qualitative research methodologies (Morse, 2015; Sandelowski, 1995; Denzil and Lincoln, 2011). It essentially indicates, based on the data collected and analysed, if there is a need for further data collection or analysis. Saturation is intricately linked with a repetitive process that involves simultaneous sampling, data collection, and analysis (Sandelowski, 1995). However, uncertainty remains regarding how saturation should

be defined, resulting in inconsistencies in its application (Saunders et al., 2018; Denzil and Lincoln, 2011).

#### ***h. Contextualising research***

First and foremost, research must be firmly situated within a theoretical or practical framework. Contextualising research entails approaching the research project in a way that aligns it with the study's setting (Shehadeh, 2020). Research is contextual when it explores and describes a specific phenomenon without attempting to generalise the findings to other contexts. The researcher provides a dense description of the entire research process (Myburgh and Poggenpoel, 2007). Generally, research is contextualised according to the established literature and studies in the field, and by linking it to the specific context within which it was conducted, such as the institution, location, and geography of the area (Shehadeh, 2020).

#### **4.2.2 Quantitative research approach**

According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), quantitative research is a plan for testing objective theories by examining the relationships among variables. These variables, which can be measured utilising instruments, generate numerical data that can be analysed using statistical procedures. Creswell (2003) defines the quantitative approach as an enquiry into a social or human problem based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, and analysed using statistical procedures to test a generalised theory's reliability.

Wiid and Diggins (2013) concur with Creswell (2003) that quantitative research aims to determine the relationship between an independent variable and dependent variables in a population employing statistical, mathematical, or computational techniques. Various scholars, including Mark (1996), Leedy and Ormrod (2005), and Aliaga and Gunderson (2000), sometimes refer to this method as a traditional, predictive, or positivist approach. They assert that the quantitative research method studies a phenomenon using numerical means to ascertain if a cause produces an effect utilising statistical approaches for analysis. This method emphasises counting, describing, and statistical analysis. It is the researcher's view that quantitative research is concerned with studying, documenting, and numerically and scientifically analysing a phenomenon to either accept or reject a preconceived idea or assumption.

Brannen (2017) indicates that the quantitative approach aligns with the natural scientific method in human behavioural research, focusing on objective and quantifiable observations and measurements. Quantitative research can take various research approaches, as described in the ensuing paragraphs.

(a) The quantitative research method assumes that reality exists objectively and can be measured independently of the researcher. This approach is highly structured, involving the formulation of hypotheses. Participants are tasked with testing these hypotheses utilising scientific instruments and methods, without the researcher's influence. Responses are documented utilising numerical data and analysed utilising analytical software to describe the phenomenon (Creswell, 2003).

This concept is derived from post-positivism, a historical school of thought which emerged in the 19th century but was more recently articulated by writers such as Phillips and Burbules (2000). The addition of "post" to positivism refers to the thinking that occurred after positivism. Post-positivism argues that we cannot be "positive" about our claims of knowledge when studying humans' actions and behaviour (Phillips and Burbules, 2000). Post-positivists study problems requiring an examination of causes influencing outcomes, similar to issues examined in experiments. In conducting such experiments, researchers follow a scientific method beginning with a theory, collecting data to either support or refute the theory, and making necessary revisions before conducting additional tests. Consequently, knowledge developed through a post-positivist viewpoint is based on careful observation and measurement of the objective reality existing "out there" in the world. Thus, developing numerical measures from observations and studying individuals' behaviour is crucial for post-positivists. Laws and theories govern the world, and post-positivists believe that these need to be tested, verified, and refined so that we can understand the world (Creswell, 2003; Phillips and Burbules, 2000).

(b) Reality's existence can only be determined within specific situations, free from an investigator or researcher's interference. Quantitative research methods test hypotheses and make predictions utilising numerical data, and ultimately describe an event with numbers. This method enables researchers to utilise numbers in statistical tests to identify statistical relationships and explain their findings (Creswell, 2003). Quantitative research, in its epistemological and ontological intentions, regards human

behaviour as an object that can be controlled without considering participants' contributions or opinions (Cohen, 2011). Therefore, researchers detach themselves from participants, becoming mere observers of the phenomenon under investigation, in contrast to qualitative research (Johnson and Christensen, 2012; Cohen, 2011).

The primary methods of inquiry utilised include surveys and experiments. Survey research utilises questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection to provide a numerical description of trends, attitudes, or opinions within a sample from a larger population, intending to generalise the outcomes (Neuman, 2000; Babbie, 2007; Creswell, 2018). In survey research, participants respond to structured questions independently with the researcher observing without influencing their responses (Creswell, 2003). Conversely, experiments are primarily designed to determine if a specific treatment, acting as an intervention to the problem, influences the outcome (Neuman, 2000; Creswell, 2018).

(c) The method is not influenced by the investigator's values. Data, evidence, and rational considerations shape knowledge, and, therefore, should not be influenced by the researcher. In quantitative research, the structured questions and scientific approaches employed ensure that participants' perceptions and realities cannot be influenced by the researcher, regardless of any predetermined hypotheses (Creswell, 2003). Moreover, maintaining objectivity is a critical aspect of competent inquiry, and for this reason, researchers must examine methods and conclusions for bias, emphasising the significance of validity and reliability standards in quantitative research. In practical terms, this entails collecting information through instruments based on measures completed by participants or observations recorded by the researcher (Phillips and Burbules, 2000; Creswell, 2003).

(d) The methods employ empirical reasoning through a structured format, predetermined variables, hypotheses, and design. The responses to research questions are compared with existing knowledge in the field of study and validated accordingly (Creswell, 2003). As a result of the predetermined strategy, any data collected is geared towards either supporting or rejecting the established paradigms (Creswell, 2009; Bryman, 2012; Johnson and Christensen, 2012). The method utilises statistical data for research descriptions and analyses, allowing data to be scientifically calculated and processed using computers or electronic devices. This scientific

method enables the generalisation of results and makes scientific arguments indisputable (Creswell, 2009; De Vaus, 2014).

### **4.2.3 Multiple research strategies approach**

According to Creswell and Garrett (2008), the multiple research strategies approach is becoming researchers' preferred choice because it provides better quality data than a single approach. Creswell (2005), as *cited* by Bese (2020), defines multiple or mixed methods research as a procedure for collecting, analysing, and "mixing" both quantitative and qualitative data within a single study to gain a more holistic understanding of a research problem. Ivankova, Creswell and Clark (2007) assert that in this approach, researchers collect both numeric information (e.g. scores or ratings on the survey instrument) and textual information (e.g. from open-ended interviews, or observations) to answer research questions. Creswell, Fetters and Ivankova (2004) maintain that mixed methods research involves more than just collecting both quantitative and qualitative data; it involves integrating the underlying logic behind employing both methods. Johnson and Onwuegbuzi (2004) specify that mixed methods research includes inductive methods for discovering patterns, deductive methods for developing theories and hypotheses, and abductive methods for finding and depending on the best explanations to understand the results.

#### **4.2.3.1 Inductive reasoning**

This approach is occasionally referred to as "bottom-up" and is associated with interpretivism, a philosophy concerned with subjective and contradictory views of reality, and constructivism, which holds that reality is a construct of the human mind. Therefore, reality is perceived to be subjective, as all knowledge is constructed from human experience (Saunders *et al.*, 2015; Dudovskiy, 2018). Inductive reasoning is an approach to developing or confirming a theory, beginning with concrete empirical evidence and working towards more abstract concepts and theoretical relationships. This simply means that researchers begin by observing the empirical world, deliberating about occurrences, and increasingly thinking in more abstract ways about theoretical concepts and propositions (Neuman, 2013).

#### **4.2.3.2 Deductive reasoning**

According to Gabriel (2013, as *cited* by Qwabe, 2021), the deductive approach, regularly referred to as the top-down approach, is concerned with deriving conclusions from theoretical assumptions. Newman (2013) explains that theorising in deductive ways requires researchers to begin with abstract concepts or theoretical propositions outlining the logical connections amongst concepts. These approaches confirm or develop a theory by beginning with abstract concepts and theoretical relationships and proceeding towards more concrete, empirical evidence.

#### **4.2.3.3 Abductive reasoning**

This is a pragmatic approach wherein the research process begins with “surprising facts” or “puzzles” and the research process focus on their explanation. The “surprising facts” or “puzzles” may emerge when a researcher encounters an empirical phenomenon that cannot be explained by the existing range of theories (Bryman and Bell, 2015). According to Saunders *et al.* (2012), abductive reasoning is the third alternative research method, aimed at addressing the weaknesses associated with both the deductive approach, which lacks clarity on selecting theories to test via hypotheses, and the inductive approach, because “no amount of empirical data will necessarily enable theory-building”. Abductive and inductive approaches, although related, differ in that abductive reasoning proceeds from facts to explanatory hypotheses, whereas inductive reasoning proceeds from hypotheses towards supportive facts (Novak, 2001). This study adopted abductive reasoning, which establishes a theoretical foundation for an in-depth understanding of the processes, intentions, and actors involved in developing land reform farmers.

The strength of the multiple-methods research approach is that findings from one method can be checked against findings from another, enabling a more comprehensive analysis of the research problem by comparing data produced through various methods (Denscombe, 2010). Ngulube and Ngulube (2014) assert that employing multiple research methods allows scholars to address exploratory context-specific questions through qualitative methods and generate a theory that may be tested and confirmed using quantitative methods. The integration of the two types of data can occur at several stages in the research process; during data collection, such as combining open-ended questions in a survey with closed-ended questions; during

data analysis and interpretation, such as transforming qualitative themes or codes into quantitative numbers and comparing that information with quantitative results; or both during data collection and analysis (Williamson, 2011). This approach is compatible with the realism perspective adopted in this study, where realism can help in integrating the two methods into a more coherent combination, enhancing the usefulness of both methods.

#### **4.2.4 Research methodology adopted for this study**

This study adopted a mixed methods research approach largely because of its flexibility in combining the attributes of both quantitative and qualitative methods (Akinwunmi, 2009; Ivankova, Creswell and Clark, 2007). Utilising both methods is essential for capturing the trends and details of the situation, resulting in a more complete analysis as they complement each other (Creswell, Fetters and Ivankova, 2004). Choosing a single method, either qualitative or quantitative, comes with numerous limitations, among which are that qualitative methods are subjective, rely on a single context, difficulty in applying conventional standards of reliability and validity, the researcher's presence can influence participants' responses, and the results cannot be generalised to a wider context. Similarly, quantitative methods tend to restrict freedom of expression, choice, creativity, and people's unique abilities to interpret social constructs and create meaning, and interactions (Goundar, 2012; Maxwell, 2013; Creswell, 2013; Creswell and Poth, 2017, Kothari, 2008).

Therefore, this study employed both quantitative and qualitative research methods to provide a comprehensive picture of the phenomenon under investigation. Quantitative data was considered as the primary data collected through the administration of questionnaires to farmers; qualitative data was collected through open-ended questionnaires administered to farmers and commodity organisation representatives involved in developing farms as part of a farmers' support package. Sandelowski (2000) asserts that multi-methods procedures are progressively being applied to expand investigators' choices and understanding of various phenomena. Utilising multiple research methods ensures that the data and findings are integrated at one or several points within the study. This integration allows for the primary concern to be comprehensively addressed; in this study, the statement of the research problem is presented in the first chapter. This also assists the researcher in achieving the study's

objectives. Brynman (2006) emphasises that scholars combine qualitative and quantitative methods primarily for “enhancement” (to augment either quantitative or qualitative findings), sampling (to facilitate the sampling of respondents or cases), and triangulation (to cross-validate).

Polit *et al.* (2001) indicate various contexts and applications in which mixed methods can be employed, as specified by various scholars. These contexts and applications are explained in the ensuing paragraphs.

### ***a. Triangulation***

Triangulation is utilised to increase research findings’ credibility and validity by merging and validating results from different techniques exploring the same problem (Polit *et al.*, 2001; Heale, 2013). In this study, triangulation was employed to collect data through focus group discussions with farmers, surveys with farmers, and open-ended questionnaires with commodity organisation representatives, all focusing on the “development or support of farmers”.

### ***b. Complementarity***

Complementarity is utilised to enhance the expansion, design, enrichment, and interpretation of the results obtained from one technique by combining them with results from a different technique (Polit *et al.*, 2001). In this study, data collection tools and approaches including surveys, interviews, and focus group discussions were considered for this purpose.

### ***c. Initiation***

Identifying ambiguities and incongruities serves as a guide for re-designing research hypotheses or formulating new research questions, challenging the results obtained by utilising a single method. (Greene *et al.*, 1997). Initiation aims to obtain new insights to stimulate new research questions (Sandelowski, 1995). The in-depth interviews with farmers and commodity organisations’ representatives were anticipated to generate new research questions and challenge responses provided by individual respondents.

#### ***d. Development***

Development entails employing the findings from one technique to enlighten the other approach, thereby shaping subsequent methods or steps in the research process (Molina-Azorin, 2016). However, in this study, these techniques were not utilised, as data was collected from participants concurrently. Therefore, the results obtained from one method were not utilised to shape another method. Instead, the results from both the qualitative and quantitative approaches complemented each other.

#### ***e. Expansion***

Expansion entails using diverse approaches or methods for different investigations or different components of the study, thereby expanding the study's breadth and range (Molina-Azorin, 2016; Polit *et al.*, 2001). Expansion also explores the details and richness of each method by integrating the procedures employed in research (Greene, 1997). In this study, expansion was achieved through the utilisation of multiple research approaches for collecting data (structured and unstructured questions), and analysis utilising qualitative (themes) and quantitative (statistical software) data collected from participants.

#### **4.2.5 Research design**

Polit and Hungler (1999) describe a research design as a blueprint or outline for conducting a study in a manner which maximum control will be exercised over factors that could interfere with the research results' validity. Wright (2016) defines a research design as an overall strategy which encapsulates a concise and logical plan developed to address established research questions through the collection, interpretation, analysis, and discussion of data. Sayer (1992) notes that the type of research design chosen for a specific study must be appropriate to achieve the study's objectives. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), the research design addresses the planning of a scientific inquiry and strategy for an investigation.

The two most significant aspects of a research design are that researchers must specify, as clearly as possible, what they seek to discover, and must determine the best way to attain this goal. According to Creswell (2014b), the design of a study defines the study type, research problem, hypothesis, independent and dependent variables, experimental design, data collection method, and statistical design. Various

scholars posit that the research's purpose and questions should determine the choice of method to utilise (Van Dyke, 2005). In this study's context, the research method represents a framework for scientific knowledge development through the description, utilisation of techniques, analysis and interpretation of social constructs in line with the research problem.

According to Dagada (2016), the most important factor to consider when selecting an appropriate research design is that each study can be utilised to develop a general conclusion about the same challenge despite the studies being conducted in different geographic locations. Given that this study adopted a mixed methods approach, both exploratory and descriptive research designs were utilised. The decision to utilise both exploratory and descriptive designs is supported by various scholars, especially concerning studies which describe and explore phenomena rather than explain and replicate them (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). The two research designs are explained in the ensuing subsections.

#### **4.2.5.1 Exploratory**

Wiid and Diggines (2013) opine that exploratory research is necessary when more information is required about a problem or phenomenon and to collect data that can contribute to meaningful research questions. This design is mostly used when there is limited knowledge about the subject. Therefore, its primary aim is to examine that little-understood issue or phenomenon and develop preliminary ideas about it (Neuman, 2013). Given that the phenomenon is not well understood, challenges were anticipated in selecting a sample for the research (Creswell, 2014a).

#### **4.2.5.2 Descriptive**

Neuman (2013) explains that the descriptive design provides a detailed and highly accurate picture of the situation, clarifies a sequence of stages, documents the causal process, provides a background of the situation, and locates new data that contradicts existing data. Wiid and Diggines (2013) explain a descriptive study as those statistical methods utilised to identify patterns or trends in a situation. This study provided scientific information, sequenced the stages, and integrated the data concerning the phenomenon under investigation.

#### **4.2.6 Research design methods**

Research design methods are plans for answering research questions and strategies used to implement that plan (Newman, 2018). The methods are mainly grouped into four categories; (i) sequential designs, which are uncomplicated to adopt as they facilitate the integration of both studies but mostly lead to an extended application time; (ii) concurrent designs, which can make it difficult to integrate both studies but result in a speedy application time; (iii) multiphase designs used mostly in complex studies, as they explore the problem in its entirety, utilising parallel phases; and (iv) multilevel designs similar to multiphase designs, employed in complex studies and utilising various samples and approaches to understand and solve the problem (Almeida, 2018). This study followed a sequential design.

Creswell *et al.* (2003) divide the mixed research design methods into two major categories. The first is the sequential design category, which involves collecting either qualitative or quantitative data in the initial stage and gathering the other type of data in the second stage. The second is the concurrent design category, which involves collecting both qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007) opine that sequential mixed methods entail multiple studies employing probability and non-probability techniques in sequence; the first study informs the sampling for the subsequent study, whilst concurrent mixed methods entail using multiple studies employing probability and non-probability techniques in parallel. Bergman (2008) further categorises the sequential design into the sequential explanatory design, sequential exploratory design, and sequential transformative design, while concurrent designs are categorised as concurrent triangulation designs, and concurrent embedded designs. These are explained in the following sections.

##### ***a. Sequential explanatory***

This design requires the collection of quantitative data first, followed by qualitative data collection (Bergman, 2008). Creswell and Plato (2011) affirm that the sequential explanatory design occurs in two interactive phases. It commences with the collection and analysis of quantitative data, which is prioritised to address the research questions. Subsequently, qualitative data is collected and analysed. The second phase is designed to follow the results of the first phase so that the researcher can interpret how the qualitative data results assist in explaining the initial quantitative

data. Edmonds and Kennedy (2017) explain this as a sequential approach in which quantitative results inform the qualitative data collection and the qualitative data is utilised in interpreting and clarifying the analysed quantitative data.

### ***b. Sequential exploratory design***

Johnson *et al.* (2007) explain that this is a design wherein qualitative data is collected first, followed by quantitative data. The advantage of this design is that it is suitable for exploring a phenomenon and identifying themes; its primary disadvantage, similar to the sequential explanatory design, is that time and resources are required for the separate data collection phases (Almeida, 2018). Contrary to the sequential explanatory design, the sequential exploratory design begins by collecting and analysing qualitative data and building on those results with a quantitative phase to test or generalise the initial findings. The interpretation of the quantitative results in the second phase is influenced by the initial qualitative outcomes (Creswell and Plato, 2011).

### ***c. Sequential transformative design***

This design involves planning data collection based on the researcher's theoretical perspective and integration of both methods occurs during the interpretation phase (Bergman, 2008). The researcher establishes the study design utilising a transformative theoretical framework, and decisions such as interaction, priority, timing, and mixing are made within this framework. Consequently, qualitative results can inform and explain the subsequent quantitative results, whether conducted sequentially or inversely (Creswell and Plato, 2011).

### ***e. Concurrent triangulation design***

This is a design which prefers to utilise both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods simultaneously. Collecting both types of data simultaneously ensures that quantitative and qualitative data are analysed independently, thereby fully exploring the data. However, its most significant shortcoming is that it offers low flexibility and learning potential regarding the obtained results (Creswell and Creswell, 2018; Bergman, 2008; Almeida, 2018).

#### ***f. Concurrent embedded design***

Creswell and Plato (2011) posit that this design is suitable when the researcher collects and analyses both quantitative and qualitative data within a traditional qualitative or quantitative design. In practice, this implies a researcher can add a qualitative element within a quantitative design, such as an experiment, or add a quantitative element within a qualitative design, such as in a case study. The addition of one design's elements into another is meant to strengthen the design (Creswell, 2009). One method is prioritized in guiding the project (Bergman, 2008; Johnson *et al.*, 2007).

Of the five designs described, the research employed a sequential explanatory design for the two reasons given hereunder.

- Data was collected in two consecutive phases, beginning with quantitative data, which was collected using a survey, followed by qualitative data gleaned from interviews conducted with the participants.
- The study employed narrative data to interpret the numeric findings (Creswell, Plano-Clark, Gutmann and Hanson, 2003).

#### **4.2.7 Target population and sampling**

Katz (2015) defines a population as an identifiable set of interests to the researcher and related to the phenomena under investigation. The population for this study comprised 319 farmers residing on 147 farms allocated under the PLAS programme and supported through the Land Development Support (LDS) programme, and seven commodity organisations supporting them. The 147 farms have been registered formally as legal entities in line with South Africa's Companies and Intellectual Property Commission (CIPC) Companies Act No. 71 of 2008. A total of 319 farmers operate the farms as legal persons or legal entities and not as non-juristic individuals. As such, the support and funding provided through the LDS were allocated to land reform farmers as legal entities.

Sampling is a process whereby a group of individuals, households, or companies is selected from the population to participate in research which the results may be generalised to the entire population (Creswell, 2014a). Another explanation is that

sampling is the selection of a subset of the population as a representation of the whole population of interest to the study. Sampling is essential because studying an entire population is often impractical. A sample can be utilised to draw inferences about a population or generalise the findings to the population (Turner, 2020; Taherdoost, 2016). As samples are utilised to make inferences about a population, understanding how data is collected is one of the most important aspects of analysing and drawing conclusions from the data (Turner, 2020). The sample size should always be justified in line with a specific study. This justification serves as a point of reference and standardises discussions across studies within that field (Creswell, 2012). The researcher targeted a population of interest comprising farmers and commodity organisations in line with the study's objectives. Sampling was conducted in accordance with the research questions, ensuring a large sample for results closer to the population's parameters.

#### **4.2.8 Sampling methods**

According to Wiid and Diggins (2013) and Babbie and Mouton (2001), there are two research sampling methods: probability and non-probability sampling.

##### ***a. Probability sampling method***

Berndt and Petzer (2011) and Daniel (2012) describe probability sampling as a controlled procedure ensuring that each element of the chosen population has a known chance of being selected. Probability sampling techniques include simple random, systematic, and stratified sampling. Probability sampling depends on probability theory, which holds that the people or events chosen are a true representation of the entire population and that every element in the population has a known and equal chance of being selected for the study (Salkind and Frey, 2010). Taherdoost (2016) explains that this simply means that every element or item in the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample. Probability sampling is mostly considered in quantitative research, and to some extent in mixed methods research because the samples are useful for generalising the findings to a larger population. The study relies on statistical methods, incorporating mathematical rules and procedures by integrating statistical models into sample selection and estimation strategies. This approach enhances sample precision and data analysis (Creswell, 2012; Mweshi and Sakyi, 2020).

### **1) Simple random sampling**

In this sampling method, every member or case in the population has an equal probability of being selected as a sample for the study. Therefore, the sampling frame includes the whole population and the researcher utilises tools such as number generators or any technique based entirely on chance when selecting a sample (Mweshi and Sakyi, 2020; Allen, 2017). Simple random sampling aims to choose individuals who will be representative of the population (Creswell, 2012).

### **2) Systematic sampling**

This method entails selecting members of the population at regular intervals (Creswell, 2012). Systematic sampling offers a direct means of including dispersed sets of elements, wherein one is selected from the frame utilising a sampling interval. Systematic sampling ensures that all elements have an equal probability of inclusion but includes only elements corresponding to the sampling interval. This method is similar to simple random sampling but slightly easier to conduct. Every member of the population is listed with a number, but instead of randomly generating numbers, as is the case with simple random sampling, individuals are chosen at regular intervals (Gray *et al.*, 2007; Creswell, 2012; Taherdoost, 2016).

### **3) Stratified sampling**

This probability technique used in sample surveys involves dividing elements of the targeted population into strata or subgroups with similar characteristics. This sampling method is most suitable when the population exhibits mixed characteristics or significant variation, and the goal is to ensure proportional representation in the sample. Calculations are made based on the overall population proportion to determine the number of people to be selected in each subgroup, followed by the random selection of samples from each subgroup (Parsons, 2017; Creswell, 2019; Allen, 2017).

### **b. Non-probability sampling method**

Flick (2011) describes non-probability sampling as a subjective sampling method where not every population element has an equal chance of being selected. This sampling method includes quota, snowball, and purposive sampling. Creswell (2012) and Daniel (2012) indicate that non-probability samples involve selecting individuals

based on a range of criteria such as purposive sampling, aligned with the population's characteristics and research purpose; and quota sampling, based on stratification and convenience sampling, based on availability. This method is often linked to qualitative research approaches, as they tend to focus on real-life phenomena without making broader inferences about a larger population or group. Therefore, sample participants do not need to be representative, but a clear rationale for their selection, excluding others, is required (Yin, 2003).

### **1) Quota sampling**

Quota sampling is a non-random sampling technique wherein participants are selected based on predetermined characteristics to ensure that the selected sample has the same distribution of characteristics as the wider population (Davies, 2005). The purpose of this technique is to ensure that the resulting strata are proportional to the studied population. Therefore, it is important to select the applicable stratification, divide the population, accordingly, calculate the quotas for each stratum, and lastly, continue to invite cases until the quota for each stratum is met. This technique is particularly useful when one is unable to obtain a probability sample, but there is a need to create a representative sample (Babbie, 2007).

### **2) Snowball sampling**

This method utilises a limited number of cases to inspire others to participate in the study, thereby increasing the sample size. This type of sampling is utilised in situations involving isolated cases or small populations whose members are unlikely to be located or whom a researcher can only access through a referral from a trusted individual (Breweton and Millward, 2001; Padgett, 2017).

### **3) Purposive sampling**

Purposive sampling, or judgemental sampling, deliberately selects the best cases to gather rich information that cannot be obtained from other sources. The selected samples are best suited to address the research purpose and questions, placing the participants in a favourable position regarding the topic and thereby enriching the study (Maxwell, 1996; Padgett, 2017).

#### **4) Convenience sampling**

This method involves selecting individuals who happen to be accessible to the researcher and who may be interested in providing the required data. The participants are selected because they are available and willing to participate in the study. This is the most convenient way of selecting participants, but also the most biased method and the findings cannot be generalised (Mweshi and Sakyi, 2020; Taherdoost, 2016).

#### **c. Preferred sampling method for the study**

This study employed non-probability purposeful sampling; the sample members had characteristics relevant to the research (Dey, 1999). Purposive sampling is based entirely on the researcher's judgement in choosing a sample containing the most relevant characteristics or attributes typical of the population (Flick, 2011). Various scholars (Patton, 2002; Creswell and Clark, 2011; Bernard, 2002) have emphasised this sampling technique's widespread use to identify information-rich cases by selecting individuals or groups highly knowledgeable and experienced about a phenomenon of interest.

Moreover, the selected participants should be willing to participate and have the ability to articulate their experiences for the study. Neuman (2000) asserts that in purposive sampling, a particular case is chosen because it demonstrates some features or processes relevant to the phenomenon under investigation. In agreement with these scholars, the researcher opted for purposive sampling based on the accessibility of farmers, commodity organisations involved in supporting these farmers, farm accessibility to the researcher, participants' willingness, farm operations, and the researcher's convenience. The phenomena of interest for the study included farmers, commodity organisations, farms, and their operations. It has been proven that purposive sampling increases the likelihood of capturing the variability common in any social phenomena within the data (Creswell, 2003).

The mixed methods approach utilises qualitative methods to achieve depth of understanding while the quantitative methods achieve breadth of understanding (Patton, 2002). Qualitative methods place the primary emphasis on saturation, which entails obtaining a wide-ranging understanding by sampling until no new information can be obtained, whereas quantitative methods place the primary emphasis on

generalisation, which involves ensuring that data obtained is a true representation of the population from which the sample was drawn (Miles *et al.*, 2014). Neuman (2014) asserts that the mixed methods approach is an all-inclusive technique for studying a research topic when neither qualitative nor quantitative methods alone are sufficient. This study utilised both the qualitative method through open-ended questions and focus group discussions and the quantitative research method through a questionnaire.

#### **4.2.9 Sample size**

A study sample of 122 legally registered farms was chosen from South Africa's nine provinces based on farms accessibility, commenced' farm development and farmers willingness to participate in the study. These participants represent farms operating under the PLAS programme and supported through the LDS. Additionally, the study also included four commodity organisations who are partnered with these 122 farms.

#### **4.2.10 Data collection**

Both primary and secondary data were collected for this study. Primary data refers to information gathered specifically for the current research project (Kinneer and Tailor, 2013). Delport (2002) supports employing various types of questionnaires, such as emailed, telephonic, personal, hand-delivered, and group questionnaires. The researcher collected primary data using structured questionnaires from 122 farmers (116 through face-to-face interviews and six through tele-interviews). Unstructured questionnaires were employed in face-to-face interviews with four commodity organisations and three farmers' focus group discussions, each comprising five to ten participants.

Zikmund *et al.* (2010) describe secondary data as information obtained from sources unrelated to the research but available for other purposes. Patzer (1995) describes secondary data as data initially collected for another purpose and repurposed to address present objectives, complementing data collected for the current project.

Secondary data for this study was collected from government policies, farmers' records, reports, and relevant literature. The data primarily came from the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development (DALRRD), which is responsible

for land reform and farm development; Statistics South Africa (StatsSA); the National Agriculture Marketing Council (NAMC); and the Department of Water and Sanitation (DWS). The key topics covered in the questionnaires and focus group discussions included (i) forms of support provided to farmers, (ii) institutions involved in developing farmers, (iii) skills development, (iv) farm production, (v) consultations, (vi) partnerships, (vii) gender, and (viii) support modelling.

#### **4.2.11 Data collection methods**

Various data collection methods were employed, including a survey where participants received a structured questionnaire, unstructured questionnaires, and focus group discussions. The study also utilised secondary data, sourced from existing literature obtained electronically and physically from libraries, government sources, farmers' records, and reports. which assisted in exploring the studied phenomenon. This secondary data assisted in explaining the vocabulary utilised in the study, and the key variables related to the phenomena under investigation. The data collection methods implemented in the study are explained hereunder.

##### ***a. Structured questionnaire***

A structured questionnaire is a document comprising a set of standardised questions with a fixed format, specifying the exact wording and order of the questions, utilised for gathering information from respondents (Cheung, 2021). The questionnaire in this study was divided into eight subsections, covering a range of topics from technical to socioeconomic issues affecting the farmer of interest. The researcher administered the questionnaire either through face-to-face or telephonic interviews.

##### ***b. Interview schedule***

An interview schedule consists of open-ended questions that respondents answer in their own words, also known as free-response questions. These questions allow respondents to express their attitudes or aspirations without the bias associated with structured responses to specific questions (Grover and Vries, 2006). The researcher administered these questionnaires to commodity organisations involved in assisting with farmers' development.

### ***c. Focus group discussion***

Focus groups are in-depth, open-ended group discussions directed by an interview guide (Robinson and Stokes, 2000; Blackburn, 2000). The number of questions in an interview guide depends on the specific application (Robinson and Stokes, 2000). These discussions are arranged to examine a specific set of topics and involve collective activity (Krueger and Casey, 2009; Liamputtong, 2011). Focus groups serve as an ancillary method, complementing other techniques (Bloor *et al.*, 2002). Focus groups can vary in size from three to fourteen participants and small groups can be an advantage if the topic is complex or when dealing with experts (Bloor *et al.* 2001). The typical duration of a focus group discussion can vary from one to two hours (Gibbs, 1997; Robinson, 1999; Quimet *et al.*, 2004). Focus group discussions reproduce the natural social communication settings, enhancing participant relaxation and involvement in the discussion (Krueger, 2014).

In this study, focus group discussions were held with selected farmers from three provinces due to their accessibility, representation of most commodities supported under LDS and who also participated in structured interviews. This approach was chosen to gain in-depth, collective insights into specific questions. The study followed characteristics of focus group discussions outlined by Krueger *et al.* (2000), which include (i) participants, (ii) environment, (iii) moderator, and (iv) analysis and reporting.

- 1) Participants – should be carefully identified, recruited, and selected. In this study, individuals with access to land through the land reform programme and receiving support for farm development were identified. The researcher, an employee of the DALRRD based at National office, recruited participants with the assistance of fellow government officials working at the district level. Selection was based on individuals' willingness to participate in the study and their ability to contribute to the study's objectives.
- 2) Environment – the discussion setting should be comfortable for the participants, and discussions should be recorded. In this study, discussions were held near participants' farming areas and predominantly utilising a circular seating arrangement. The discussions were recorded using an electronic device, enabling the transcription of each participant's responses.

- 3) Moderator – The primary investigator should be skilful in facilitating group discussions and ask predetermined questions to guide the conversation. In this study, the investigator utilised their experience in farmers' group discussions to facilitate the deliberations utilising the predetermined questions. These questions were simplified and tailored to the context to enhance participation, and accommodations were made to ensure clarity.
- 4) Analysis and reporting – group discussions' content should be systematically analysed while the discussion is ongoing, immediately after the discussion, and later utilising the recordings. During the discussions, the researcher asked for clarity on certain points and confirmed answers. Recordings were utilised to document responses in narrative format, which were then coded and analysed. A report of the proceedings was prepared in accordance with the codes and themes that were identified to address the research questions.

#### **4.2.12 Data analysis**

The qualitative findings were categorised, grouped into themes, coded, and presented using graphs, diagrams and tables. The quantitative data was analysed using the Microsoft Excel (Version 2020) generating descriptive and inferential statistics.

This study adopted both thematic and statistical data analysis techniques in accordance with the methodological framework. The thematic analysis allowed the researcher to assess the participants' perspectives and systematically summarise their key attributes, while statistical analysis assisted in sorting and interpreting the data to generate plausible results and formulate a new theory. This approach is supported by various scholars (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Sandelowski, 2004; Norris *et al.*, 2017) who indicate that thematic analysis is a qualitative research method accommodating a range of epistemologies and research questions, while statistical analysis comprises a set of methods utilised to analyse data. Thematic techniques enable the identification, organisation, description, and reporting of themes found in a dataset, whereas statistical techniques extract information from data to provide a comprehensive understanding of the situation

### **4.3 TRIANGULATION APPROACH**

Ablort-Morgan (2003) defines triangulation as employing multiple methods of data collection to enhance observations' reliability. This method allows researchers to be more confident in their research results, as it can reveal deviant or unexpected dimensions of a phenomenon and can lead to the synthesis or integration of theories. Burns and Grove (2001) define triangulation as the collection of data from multiple sources maintaining the same centre of interest or activity, aiming to achieve results where the variance obtained accurately reflects the measurement of the trait under investigation. Several scholars (Ziyani *et al.*, 2004; Honorene, 2016) categorise the triangulation approach in seven ways, as described in the ensuing paragraphs.

#### **4.3.1 Data Triangulation**

Data triangulation involves collecting data from multiple sources to obtain diverse views of the studied phenomenon, aiming to enhance validity (Cohen and Manion 1997; De Vos, 1998). This method offers researchers a deep understanding, enabling them to make sense of the data and information. This process strengthens a research study by increasing the overall validity and credibility of the utilised datasets and information (Horene, 2016). Downward and Mearman (2005), as *cited* by Dagada (2016), illustrate situations where survey data could be combined with time series data to understand different perspectives across various times, or a combination of survey and interview data could be employed.

#### **4.3.2 Investigator triangulation**

According to Streubert and Carpenter (1999), as quoted by Ziyani *et al.* (2004), this is a process whereby two or more investigators with diverse research training backgrounds examine the same phenomenon. According to Burns and Grove (2001), utilising investigator triangulation removes the potential for bias that may occur in a study conducted by a single investigator. Nesamvuni (2014), as cited by Dagada (2016), agrees that this could be one of the advantages of a multi-disciplinary study team because it offers the possibility for investigators to study the same situation and to compare, develop, and refine themes using perceptions gained from different viewpoints.

### **4.3.3 Time triangulation**

Ziyani *et al.* (2004) assert that time triangulation is applied to both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies whilst Cohen and Manion (1997) maintain that cross-sectional data is collected utilising time-related processes from different groups at a single point in time, while longitudinal studies collect data from the same group at different points in time. Cross-sectional studies compare measurements for individuals in different samples at a single point in time, while longitudinal studies examine selected processes among the same individuals, comparing the same sample's results repeatedly over time (Ziyani *et al.*, 2004).

### **4.3.4 Space triangulation**

Space triangulation attempts to overcome the limitations of studies conducted within a culture or subculture; not all the behavioural sciences are culture-bound, they are also sub-culture bound, according to Cohen and Manion (1997) as *cited* by Ziyani *et al.* (2004).

### **4.3.5 Theoretical triangulation**

Honorene (2016) explains that this type of triangulation employs multiple theoretical perspectives to examine and interpret the data. It draws upon alternative or competing theories instead of utilising only one viewpoint (Cohen and Manion, 1997, as cited by Ziyani *et al.*, 2004). In this way, the investigator's interpretations are enlightened by more than one theoretical insight (Modell, 2005, as *cited* by Dagada, 2016).

### **4.3.6 Methodological triangulation**

Kimchi *et al.* (1991), *cited* by Ziyani *et al.* (2004), define this triangulation method as the use of two or more research methods in a single study, differing either in design or data collection methods. Honorene (2016) posits that it is common to employ both qualitative and quantitative data in a study, clarifying complementary aspects of the same phenomenon. When the data points diverge, it becomes of interest to the researcher, as it provides valuable insights into the studied phenomenon.

#### **4.3.7 Analysis triangulation**

This practice involves using multiple analysts to review findings or having multiple observers and analysts assess the same data. The purpose is to counter selective perceptions and highlight blind spots in an interpretive analysis. The goal is not to achieve consensus but to understand multiple ways of interpreting the data (Honorene, 2016). Ziyani *et al.* (2004) concur with Honorene (2016) that analysis triangulation occurs when two or more analysis techniques are applied to the same dataset.

#### **4.3.8 Chosen method of triangulation for the study**

This study utilised methodological triangulation and data triangulation by combining qualitative and quantitative methods and gathering information from diverse sources.

### **4.4 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY**

Nesamvuni (2014), as *cited* by Dagada (2016), posits that validity is the degree to which a measure achieves its intended purpose. The various types of validity are outlined as follows: (i) face validity, which is the subjective perception of a test covering the concept it purports to measure and is related to the transparency and relevance of the test to participants; (ii) content validity, which refers to the extent to which a measure represents all facets of a given social construct; (iii) construct validity, representing the degree to which a test measures what it claims to measure; and (iv) criterion validity, which assesses how well one variable or set of variables predicts an outcome based on information from other variables. The triangulation approach was employed to enhance the study's validity and reliability. Statistical information received from participants were tested for their consistency against the secondary data from the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development (DALRRD) .

### **4.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Researchers must ensure the protection of individuals' and organisations' rights while conducting research (Polit and Hungler, 1999). Maree (2010), as *cited* by Bese (2020), indicates the necessity of obtaining clearance from an ethics committee for any empirical research involving human or animal subjects. Therefore, ethical approval for this research was obtained from the University of the Free State's Human Research

Ethics Committee, under reference number UFS-HSD2022/1532/22. The study adhered to the following four ethical principles: obtaining informed consent, ensuring no harm to participants, respecting respondents' rights, and maintaining confidentiality and anonymity.

#### **4.5.1 Informed consent**

The study's purpose was fully explained to the participants before asking them to sign a form consenting to participate and be recorded and photographed (if necessary).

#### **4.5.2 No harm to participants**

To safeguard the participants' privacy, their personal information was protected. Participants were allowed to engage with the researcher freely and received the research outcomes on request.

#### **4.5.3 Respondents' rights**

Participants were made aware that they should not feel unfairly coerced or pressured into participating in the research. Their involvement was voluntary, and they had the right to decline participation in the research if they felt that their rights were being violated.

#### **4.5.4 Confidentiality and anonymity**

Information obtained from the participants throughout the study remained confidential and their anonymity was protected. This is related to individuals' rights and self-respect (Katz, 2015).

### **4.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The COVID-19 restrictions were lifted while collecting data for this study. However, it was crucial to exercise caution in interactions with participants, considering that the virus was not completely eradicated. This meant that the researcher had to employ electronic means for collecting data from farmers in some instances. It was also important to conduct focus group discussions with farmers and face-to-face interviews with commodity organisations' representatives. This approach was critical to enrich the data without compromising the participants' health.

#### **4.7 SUMMARY**

This chapter presented discussions concerning the research methodology and the study's design. It outlined the research approach, sample selection, data analysis methods, and ethical considerations aligned with the study's objectives. The study utilised an applied approach, methodologically developing mechanisms to resolve the existing challenges identified within land reform farms supported for agricultural development. The qualitative research approach facilitated an understanding of the phenomena under investigation through real-life human experiences, while the quantitative approach tested theories and examined relationships between variables. Additionally, a mixed method design, comprising both qualitative and quantitative methods, was utilised based on available literature and secondary data from similar studies on agricultural land reform farms. The chosen methods, sample selection, and data analysis were instrumental in addressing the research questions. Ethical considerations were strictly adhered to protect participants' rights and confidentiality. The ensuing chapter focuses on the land reform programme in South Africa.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **RESULTS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the primary data obtained from both farmers and commodity organisations who participated in this study. The results include both quantitative and qualitative data. The findings are divided into four sections: (i) demographic data for both quantitative and qualitative data, (ii) descriptive analysis, (iii) inferential statistical analysis, and (iv) qualitative findings. The results are supported by direct quotations from participants, which enhances data rigour and is supported with relevant literature for validation and argumentation. The study's results addressed the research questions presented again hereunder for ease of reference.

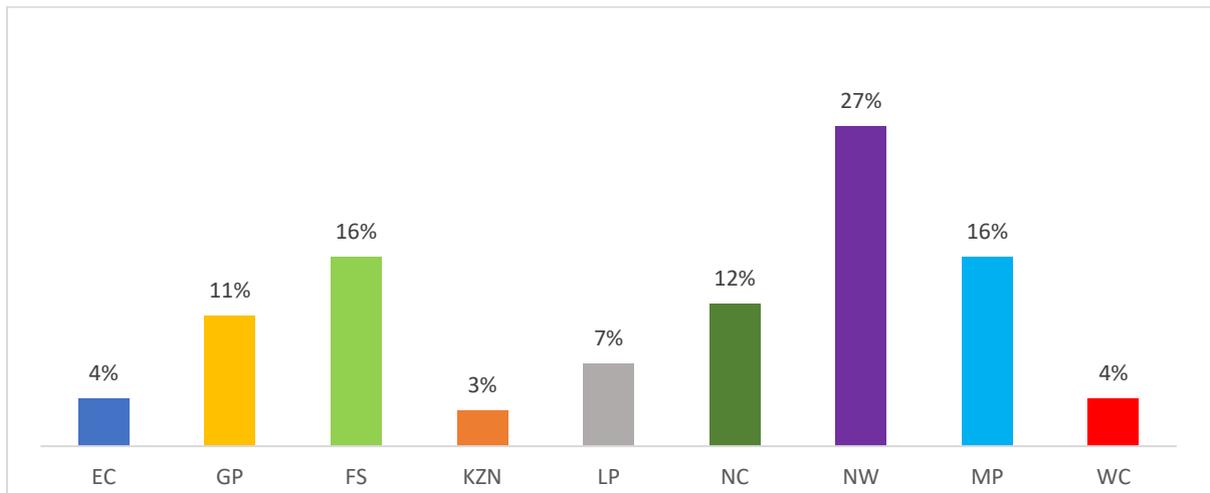
- How effective is the government's agricultural support programme in promoting land reform farms' development?
- What potential role can commodity organisations perform in land reform farms' success?
- To what extent were land reform farmers' aspirations considered when the government developed support programme?
- What integrated support model can be designed to promote land reform farms' development?
- What recommendations can be made to support policy formulation and programme design and implementation?

#### **5.2 QUANTITATIVE FINDINGS**

##### **5.2.1 DEMOGRAPHICS**

The participants' demographics align with the questionnaire, maintaining compliance with ethical research standards established in agreement with the participants.

### 5.2.1.1 Characterisation of participants



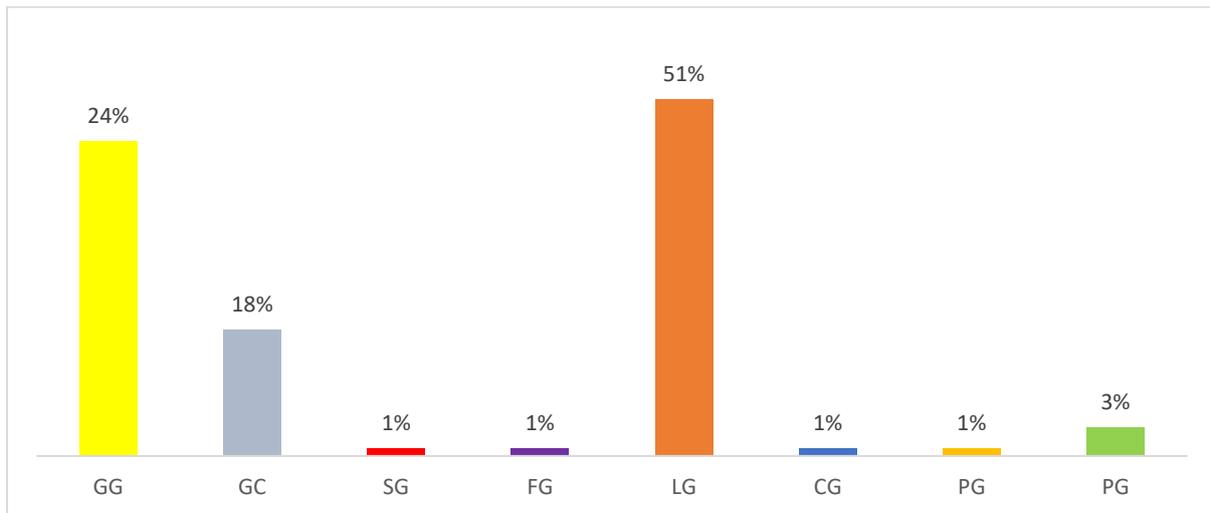
**Figure 5.1: Provincial distribution of respondents**

The information presented in Figure 5.1 provides crucial insights into the study population's geographic distribution. The distribution of the sample across all nine provinces of South Africa indicates the effort to capture insights from various regions, allowing for a more comprehensive understanding of the country's agricultural landscape. The proportion of respondents from each province is as follows: KwaZulu-Natal: 3%; Eastern Cape: 4%; Western Cape: 4%; Limpopo: 7%; Gauteng: 11%; Northern Cape: 12%; Free State: 16%; Mpumalanga: 16%; and North West: 27%.

This distribution highlights the varying levels of participation and engagement in the survey across South Africa's provinces. The North West Province had the highest number of respondents, reflecting a significant presence of land reform beneficiaries, whereas the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal recorded a smaller percentage of land reform beneficiaries, indicating a relatively lower level of representation. The sample size provides valuable data that allows for the analysis of trends, patterns, and perspectives within the context of the study. The diversity of responses from different provinces contributes to a more holistic and nuanced understanding of agricultural experiences and perspectives in South Africa.

Finally, the distribution of respondents across various provinces, as depicted in Figure 5.1, showcases the effort to capture a representative sample of farmers from various regions despite the study's modest population size. This diversity in geographic representation was instrumental in providing valuable insights into the broader study.

### 5.2.1.2 Commodity organisations



**Figure 5.2: Commodity Organisations**

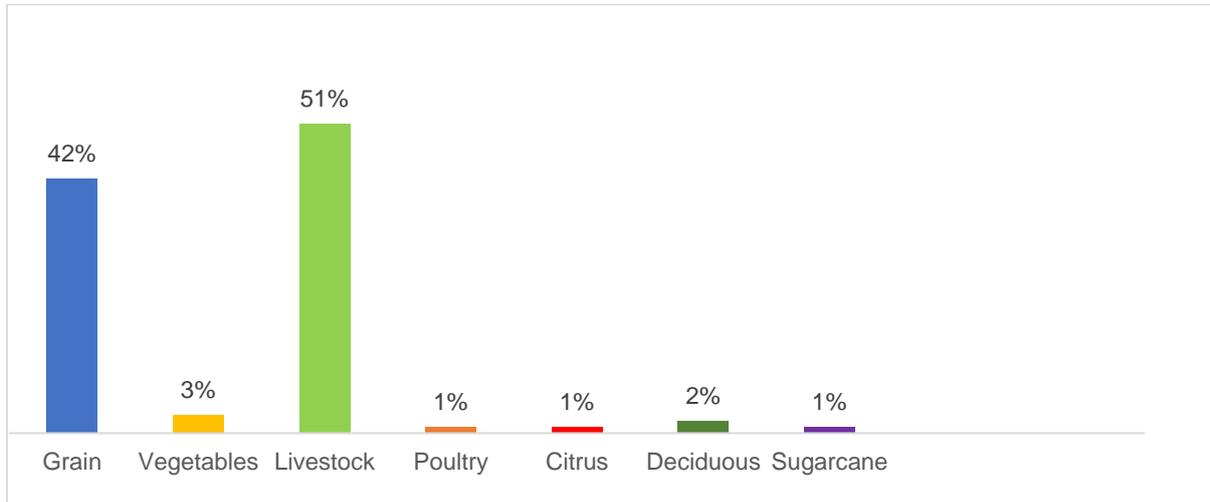
Figure 5.2 highlights the diversity of the commodity organisations involved in supporting farmers under the LDS (Land Development Support) programme. These organisations play a vital role in assisting and empowering farmers in specific sectors of agriculture. The data reveals the percentage distribution of the surveyed farmers across these various commodity organisations, using pseudonyms: Citrus Growers (CG): 1%; Fruit Growers (FG): 1%; Poultry Growers (PG): 1%; Sugarcane Growers (SG): 1%; Potato Growers (PG): 3%; Grain Commercial (GC): 18%; Grain Developers (GD): 24%; Livestock Growers (LG): 51%.

The percentage of farmers associated with each organisation varies significantly, with some organisations having a more substantial representation than others. Commodity organisations often play a crucial role in providing specialised support, resources, and expertise to farmers within their specific agricultural sectors. The diverse representation of these organisations in the study allowed for a more comprehensive understanding of the experiences, challenges, and perspectives of farmers involved in various agricultural sectors, from grain to livestock, sugarcane, deciduous fruits, citrus fruits, poultry, and potatoes.

Figure 5.2 highlights the varied associations of surveyed farmers across different commodity organisations, showcasing the rich diversity of agricultural sectors and the valuable contributions these organisations make to the farming community. This diversity in membership contributed to a more comprehensive and nuanced analysis

of the study's findings, considering farmers in different agricultural commodities' unique needs and experiences.

### 5.2.1.3 Commodity type



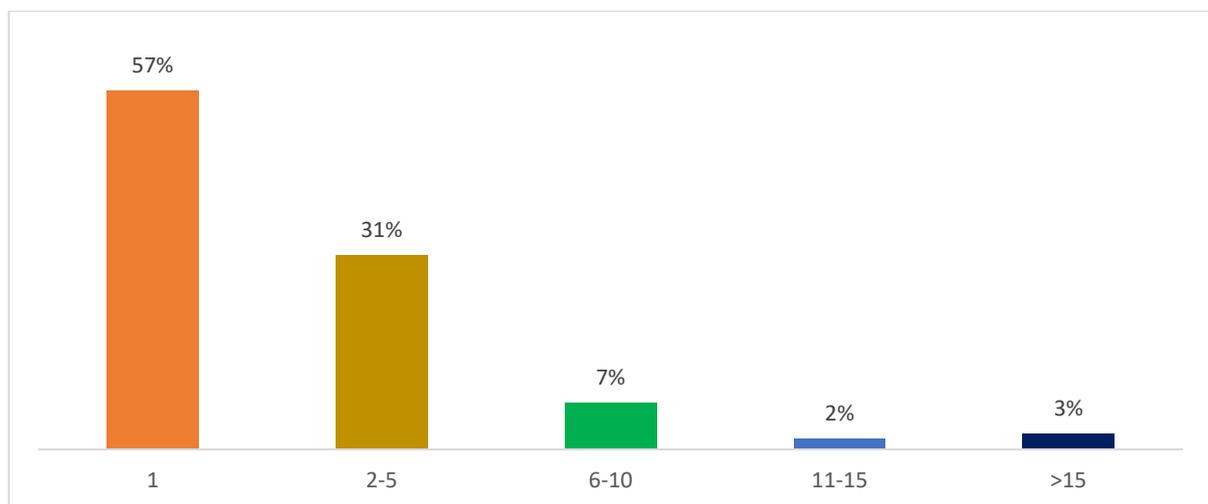
**Figure 5.3: Commodity types**

Figure 5.3 depicts the various commodity types in which farmers are predominantly engaged.

- **Grain (maize, sunflower, soya beans, and wheat).** These crops comprise a significant portion of the grain sector, with farmers engaged in cultivating these staple crops.
- **Vegetables (potatoes).** Farmers in this category focus on potato production, a common and valuable vegetable crop.
- **Livestock (cattle, goats, and sheep).** This category encompasses various types of livestock, including cattle, goats, and sheep, indicating that farmers are involved in raising and managing these animals.
- **Poultry (broilers and layers).** This sector includes poultry farming, with a focus on broilers (meat chickens) and layers (egg-producing chickens).
- **Citrus (oranges and lemons).** Farmers in this category are involved in citrus fruit production, specifically oranges and lemons.
- **Deciduous (apples, peaches, and pears).** This category includes deciduous fruit farming, with a focus on apples and pears.
- **Sugarcane.** Farmers in this sector cultivate sugarcane, a significant crop used in sugar production.

The farmers in this study were primarily involved in livestock farming (51%) and grain production (42%). This focus on livestock and grain farming can be attributed to government choices regarding the land redistribution programme. The government's focus on livestock and grain farms has influenced farmers' preferences and choices. The DPME (2020) asserts that the majority of land redistribution farms acquired are suitable for livestock and grain production. The emphasis on livestock and grain farming may also be influenced by market demand, agricultural policies, and the natural suitability of these commodities in various regions of South Africa. Livestock and grain farming are fundamental components of the agricultural landscape, and their prominence in the graph reflects these sectors' strategic importance in the country's agricultural development.

#### **5.2.1.4 Number of members in legal entity**



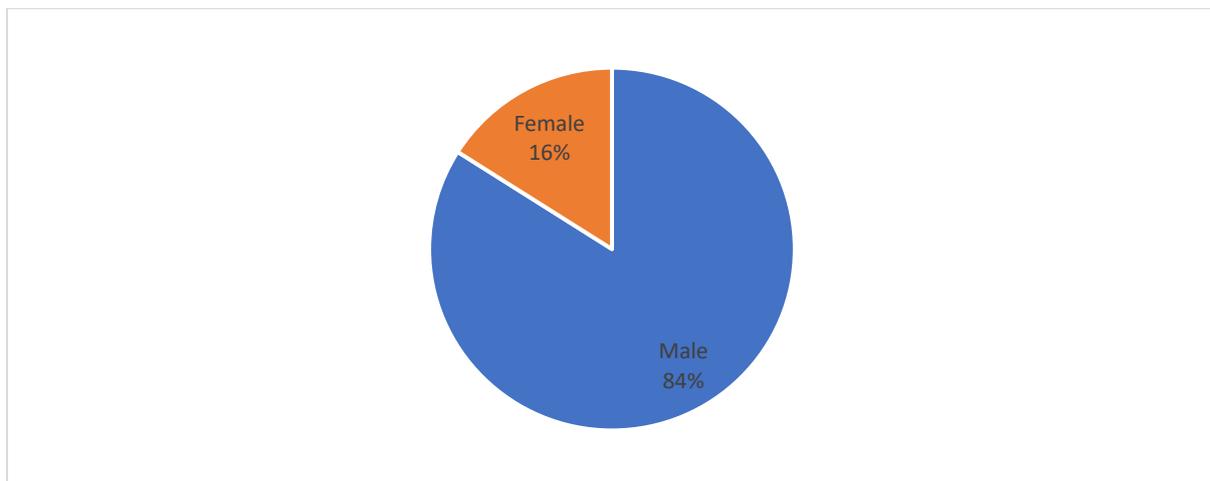
**Figure 5.4: Number of members in legal entity**

The data presented in Figure 5.4 provides insights into the ownership structures of the legal entities surveyed in this study. The information reveals that a significant proportion of these legal entities are owned by single individuals, representing 57% of the total. Additionally, there is a noticeable trend toward multiple shareholdings, accounting for 31% of the surveyed entities. The breakdown of the distribution of representativeness among these legal entities based on their ownership structures reveals single owners (57%), two to five individuals (31%), six to ten individuals (7%), more than fifteen individuals (3%), and eleven to fifteen individuals (2%).

The prevalence of legal entities with single owners reflects the traditional ownership model in which an individual or family manages and owns the farm. The emerging trend of entities with multiple shareholders, accounting for 31% of the entities, indicates a shift toward more diversified ownership structures. This shift could be attributed to various factors, including collaborative farming ventures, partnerships, or joint ownership arrangements. Multiple shareholdings offer the advantage of pooling resources, expertise, and risk sharing but could also be a source of social conflicts.

Understanding the composition of ownership structures within legal entities is essential for comprehending farm ownership and management dynamics and provides valuable insights into the changing nature of agricultural enterprises, from traditional single-owner setups to more collaborative and diversified ownership models. This diversity in ownership structures can have implications for decision-making, resource allocation, and farming operations' overall sustainability.

#### **5.2.1.5 Gender distribution in legal entities**



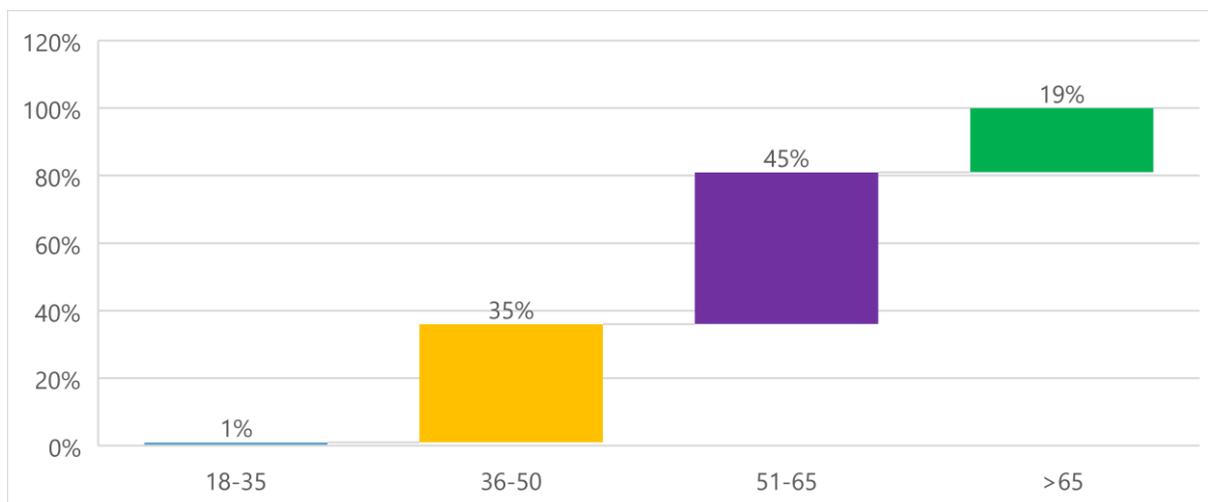
**Figure 5.5: Gender distribution in legal entities**

Farm ownership's gender distribution, as illustrated in the data, is characterised by a significant gender gap, with approximately 84% male and 16% female. This situation aligns with studies indicating that women have been discriminated against by tribal authorities, colonial and apartheid administrative rulings and laws, and under private tenure and discouraged from participating in farming (Roth *et al.*, 2004). Moreover, most farms acquired through land redistribution, as illustrated in this study, are utilised

for livestock farming. According to Musemwa *et al.* (2007) and Oladele *et al.* (2013), livestock rearing in rural South Africa is considered a man's business.

This gender disparity in farm ownership is a notable aspect of the agricultural landscape. It is essential to recognise and address gender imbalances within the agricultural sector, as they have significant implications for gender equity, access to resources, and economic opportunities. The high proportion of male farm ownership highlights a pressing need for initiatives and policies aimed at promoting women's participation and ownership in agriculture. Achieving a more equitable distribution of participation can contribute to enhancing the agricultural sector's overall sustainability and inclusivity. Efforts to bridge this gender gap may include providing women with access to land, resources, training, and support to engage in farming activities. Gender-responsive policies and programmes can play a crucial role in empowering women to become more active participants and decision-makers in the agricultural sector.

#### 5.2.1.6 Age of legal entity representatives



**Figure 5.6: Age of legal entity representatives**

The age of individuals in legal entities leasing land for farming operations was a crucial factor in this study, as it provided valuable insights into the generational composition within the agricultural sector. The findings in Figure 5.6 reveal that farmers aged between 51 and 65 constitute the majority within legal entities (45%). This implies that a significant proportion of farmers in this group hold a substantial share of farm

leasehold. Given their age group, their experience and knowledge in farming practices are likely to be significant, playing a pivotal role in the sector's development.

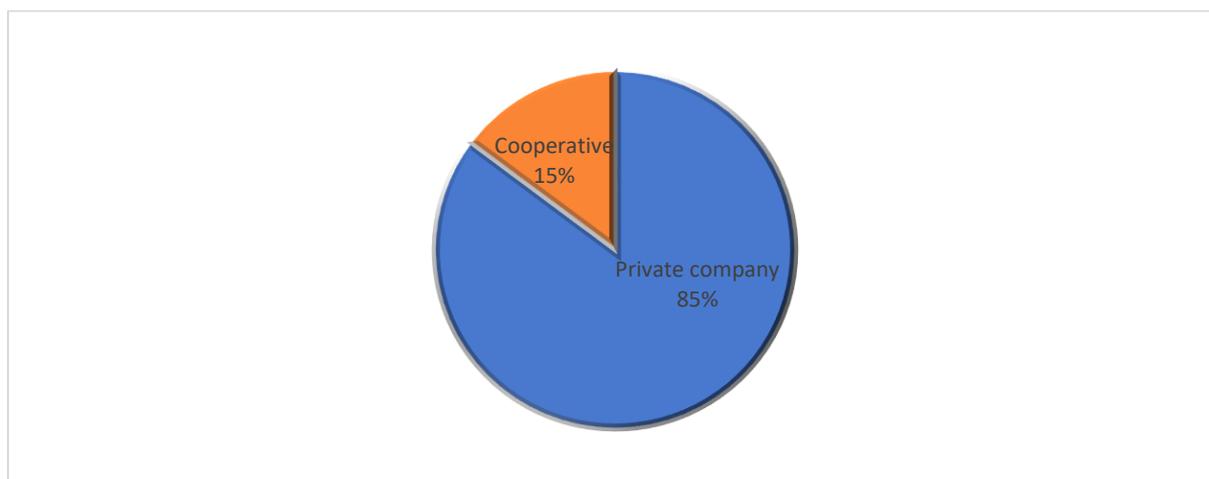
The noticeable issue of limited youth engagement in agriculture, represented by a mere 1% of the sampled population, highlights the need for initiatives geared towards enticing and bolstering the younger demographic to pursue agricultural careers. Fostering youthful participation in the agricultural domain stands as a fundamental imperative, primarily for the sector's longevity and strategic succession planning.

Farmers within the age bracket of 36 to 50 constituted a substantial 35% of the sample, signifying a significant presence with regard to access to arable land. The proximate relationship between this age cohort and the 51 to 65 age group, with a marginal 10% differential, suggests a relatively uniform distribution of land access within these two cohorts. Individuals in the 36 to 50 age range potentially embody the intermediary generation of farmers who have secured land access and are actively contributing their specialised knowledge and vigour to the agricultural industry.

Comprehending the age-based demographics of legal entities' representatives who have acquired farming properties assumes paramount significance in the context of gauging generational transition, succession planning dynamics, and the agricultural sector's trajectory. The prevalence of farmers within the 51 to 65 age group and >65 years group (19%) emphasises the exigency for crafting strategies that facilitate the intergenerational transmission of invaluable wisdom and resources. By fostering the active involvement of the younger population and providing support to the intermediate generation, we can guarantee the agricultural sector's sustained robustness and resilience.

In summary, the age distribution of legal entities' representatives who have acquired agricultural holdings underscores a notable presence of individuals aged 51 to 65, while the involvement of youth remains constrained. Effectively bridging the generational gap and nurturing growing talent in this sector is indispensable for its continued expansion and evolution.

### 5.2.1.7 Type of legal entity



**Figure 5.7: Type of registered legal entity**

Among the registered entities, the vast majority (85%) were registered as private entities, as indicated in Figure 5.7. In contrast, only 15% were cooperatives. The prevalence of private entities in farming indicates primarily individual or single ownership, while the existence of cooperatives reflects a cooperative approach where multiple parties jointly own and manage agriculture. This understanding is crucial for evaluating agricultural sector ownership and organisational models, influencing decision-making and resource allocation.

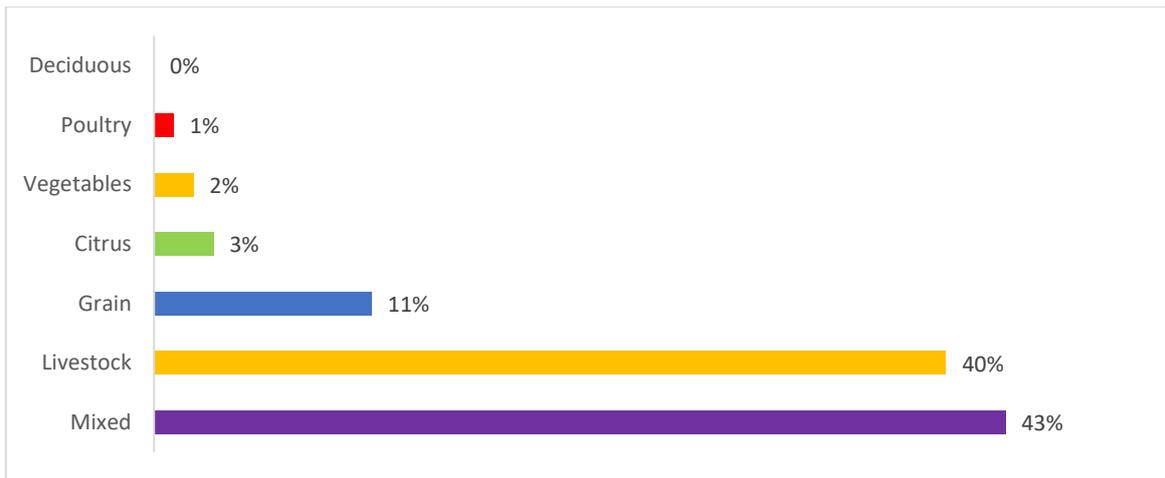
## 5.2.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

**Objective 1: To assess the governmental agricultural support programme's effectiveness in promoting land reform farms' development.**

### 5.2.2.1 Agricultural development

#### (a) Type of farm

Participants were asked about the type of farm according to its farming practices. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.8.



**Figure 5.8: Type of farm according to activity**

In this section, the researcher explores the potential capabilities that could be harnessed from the surveyed farms. The variables that informed this inquiry focused on whether the farms were designed for multiple farming activities or if respondents preferred to specialise in specific agricultural endeavours. The insights gathered from this analysis provide valuable information on the preferences and opportunities within the farming community.

The survey data graphically represented in Figure 5.8 reveals a diverse spectrum of opinions among the respondents, showcasing the rich diversity of agricultural preferences and practices. While 43% (53) of the respondents believed that there was ample potential for mixed farming activities on their farms, 57% (69) leaned towards more specialised farming approaches. Those inclined towards diversified farming activities expressed a belief in the potential for synergy between various agricultural enterprises. This perspective aligns with the principles of agroecology, which advocates for the integration of multiple farming activities to optimise resource utilisation, enhance resilience, and foster ecological sustainability. These farmers see the opportunity to engage in practices such as crop-livestock integration or agroforestry, which can create a more balanced and holistic farming ecosystem.

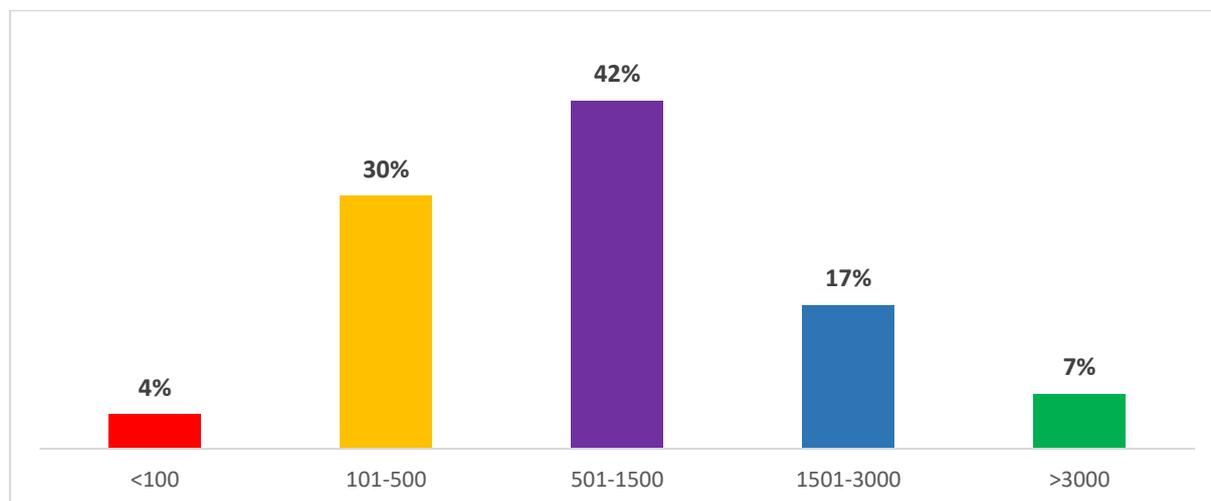
The majority (71%) of the respondents aligned with specialised farming approaches. These 49 individuals professed a preference for livestock farming. Livestock farming offers unique advantages, such as a relatively steady income stream and the opportunity to leverage various animal products for food, fibres, and other value-added products. Additionally, livestock farming can adapt to diverse scales, from small family

farms to large commercial operations. These respondents might also be drawn to livestock farming because of its deep-rooted tradition in many agricultural communities. The second most preferred was grain farming, with 18% of the respondents. This choice highlights the significance of cereal crops in providing staple food for human consumption and better returns per hectare (Ha) compared to livestock farming, as well as the production of raw materials for various industrial processes. Grain farming is often considered a reliable and stable choice, but it is accompanied by challenges, including susceptibility to weather variations, pests, and market fluctuations. Nonetheless, the respondents who favoured grain farming are likely attracted to the essential role it plays in food security, land capability, and the broader agricultural landscape. It is worth noting the intriguing trends in the survey where only a small percentage (5%) of respondents indicated their farm's potential for citrus, vegetables, or poultry farming collectively. This may be indicative of the specific skills and resources required to be successful in farming with these commodities.

Finally, this section provides valuable insights into the diverse preferences and potential within the farming community. While some farmers favour the versatility of multiple farming activities, others prefer to specialise in livestock or grain farming in line with their farm's potential. This diversity reflects the complex interplay of factors, including personal inclinations, available resources, and regional agricultural conditions. It also underscores the need for tailored support and information dissemination to help farmers make informed decisions that align with their aspirations and their farms' specific characteristics. Ultimately, this nuanced understanding of farming preferences can guide policymakers, agricultural extension services, and farmers themselves in making informed choices that can contribute to the agricultural sector's sustainability and productivity.

### **(b) Total size of productive land**

Participants were asked about the total size of productive land in hectares. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.9.



**Figure 5.9: Total size of productive land**

Data on the total size of productive land, as gathered from a survey conducted in the farming community, provides valuable insights into the distribution of farm sizes and their implications for agricultural practices and land use. The survey responses reveal a diverse landscape of farm sizes, with each category offering unique opportunities and challenges. According to Figure 5.9, the smallest category, comprising farms with less than 100 hectares of productive land, accounts for 4% of the respondents. These farms are often characterised by intensive land use. While farmers may have limited hectareage, their enterprises are highly productive, particularly those specialising in high-value horticultural products.

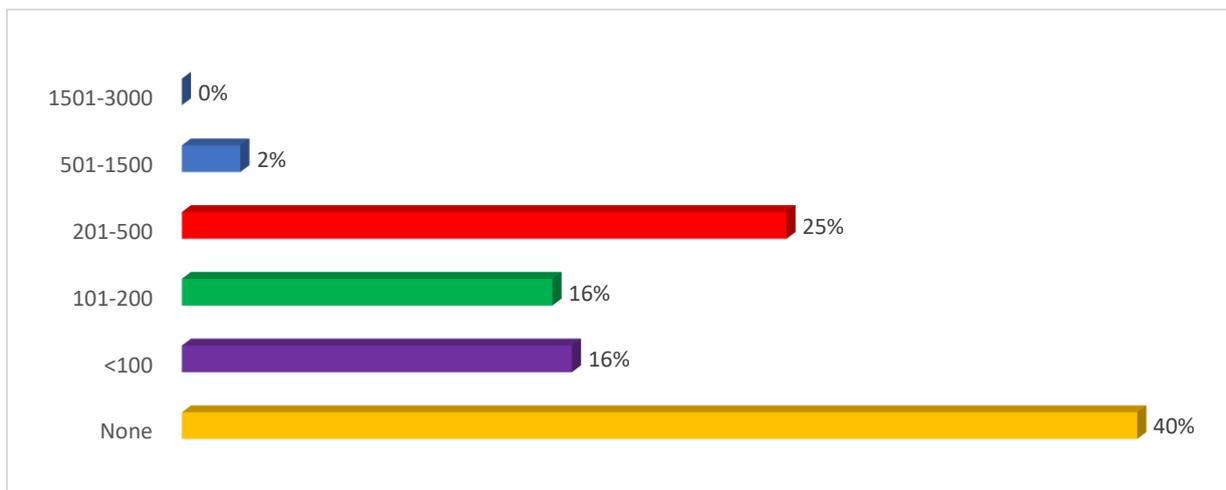
The next category, with farms ranging from 101 to 500 hectares, represents 30% of the respondents. This mid-sized range of farm hectares offers a good balance between scale and manageability. Farmers in this category have the flexibility to diversify their production, incorporating both crops and livestock. This diversification spreads risk and creates opportunities for integrated farming systems. The largest group (42%), comprising farms between 501 and 1,500 hectares. These farms are mostly engaged in extensive livestock farming, and farmers have room for multiple agricultural activities. However, they also face challenges related to managing a larger operation and the need for efficient logistical and labour management.

A small but still noteworthy segment of the surveyed participants (7%) oversees agricultural operations on land exceeding 3,000 hectares, while 17% manage farms from 1,501 to 3,000 Ha. The farms exceeding 3,000 Ha are often located in arid areas and utilised for livestock farming, which requires large areas. Managing these farms typically requires advanced planning, technical knowledge, and strong business acumen to ensure sustainable and profitable operations. Such extensive farms require significant investment in infrastructure, machinery, and labour.

Data from the survey on the total size of productive land reflects the diversity and complexity of modern agriculture. Each category of farm size is accompanied by challenges and opportunities. Small-sized farms require farmers to be resourceful and efficient, while mid-sized and family farms balance diversity and scale. Large farms leverage economies of scale but require advanced management practices. Understanding this distribution of farm sizes is crucial for policymakers, agricultural extension service providers, and farmers themselves, as it informs the development of tailored support and policies that can address unique needs.

**(c) Total crop-productive land**

Participants were asked to indicate only the total crop-productive land in hectares. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.10.



**Figure 5.10: Total crop-productive land**

The data concerning the total crop-productive land, derived from a survey within the farming community, offers valuable insights into the distribution of crop cultivation and its implications for agricultural practices. This information sheds light on the extent to

which various categories of crop acreage are represented among the respondents, revealing a diverse landscape of crop farming. Figure 5.10 above shows that 40% of the cropland is not cultivated.

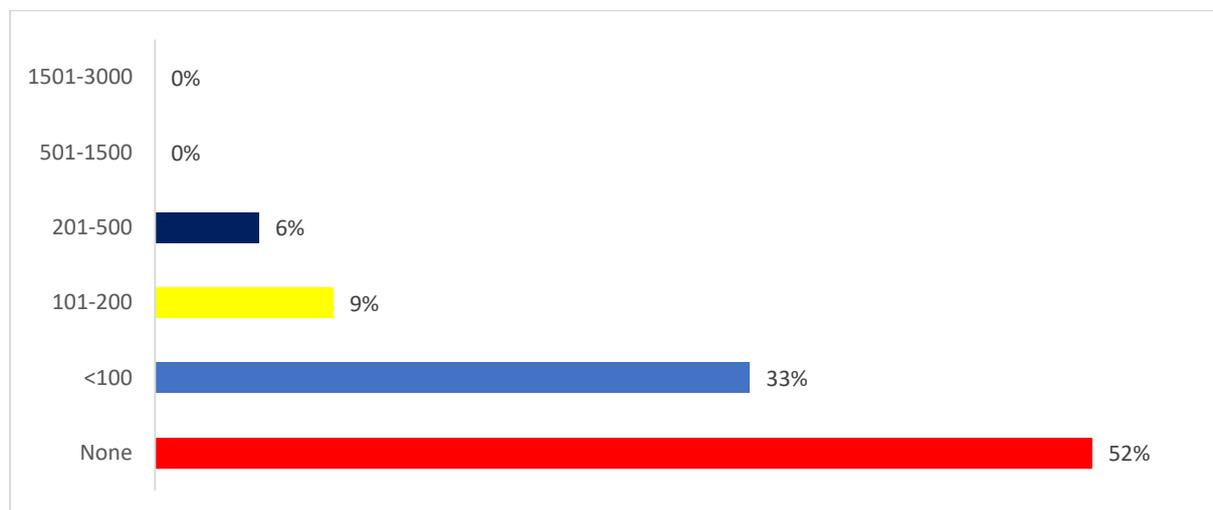
The survey findings reveal a broad spectrum of productive land sizes for crop production. Farms with less than 100 hectares of cropland represent 16%. These small to medium-sized crop areas often accommodate diverse crop rotations, horticultural crops, and potentially organic farming practices. This category is characterised by a more intensive approach to agriculture, focusing on smaller but highly productive land parcels.

The next category, covering farms with cropland ranging from 101 to 200 hectares, also constitutes 16% of available productive land. This size of land provides slightly more room for diversification and scaling up. Farms within this range can experiment with a broader array of crops and production methods, potentially exploring niche markets and sustainable practices that require a bit more land. A notable 25% of crop-productive land ranges between 201 and 500 hectares. With this amount of land, farms can engage in various types of commercial crop farming. The farms in this category specialise in grain and large-scale fruit orchards.

A smaller portion, two per cent of farms have crop-productive land ranging from 501 to 1,500 hectares. These larger farms are also utilised for commercial grain production and are consistent with the reported average commercial land size in South Africa, which is 1,900 hectares, as indicated in the study conducted by Lienberg *et al.* (2010). While these farms have the potential for significant agricultural output, they also require advanced management and operational efficiency to achieve profitability. No crop land exceeding 1,500 hectares was reported. Data on the total crop productive land reveals a rich landscape of farming practices and land utilisation among LDS farmers in South Africa. While a significant percentage of farmers are not engaged in crop production, those who do grow crops utilise a diverse range of crop acreages. Being thoughtful about these preferences is essential for tailoring agricultural policies and extension services to meet the specific needs of different farming practices and ensuring the sustainable and efficient use of cropland in the agricultural landscape.

**(d) Total crop-productive land utilised before LDS**

Participants were asked to indicate in hectares the total crop-productive land utilised before LDS support. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.11.



**Figure 5.11: Total crop-productive land utilised before LDS**

The data regarding the total crop-productive land utilised before the LDS programme offers significant insights into the historical cropping practices. This information provides context for understanding the impact of the LDS programme and how it may have influenced land utilisation and crop cultivation patterns.

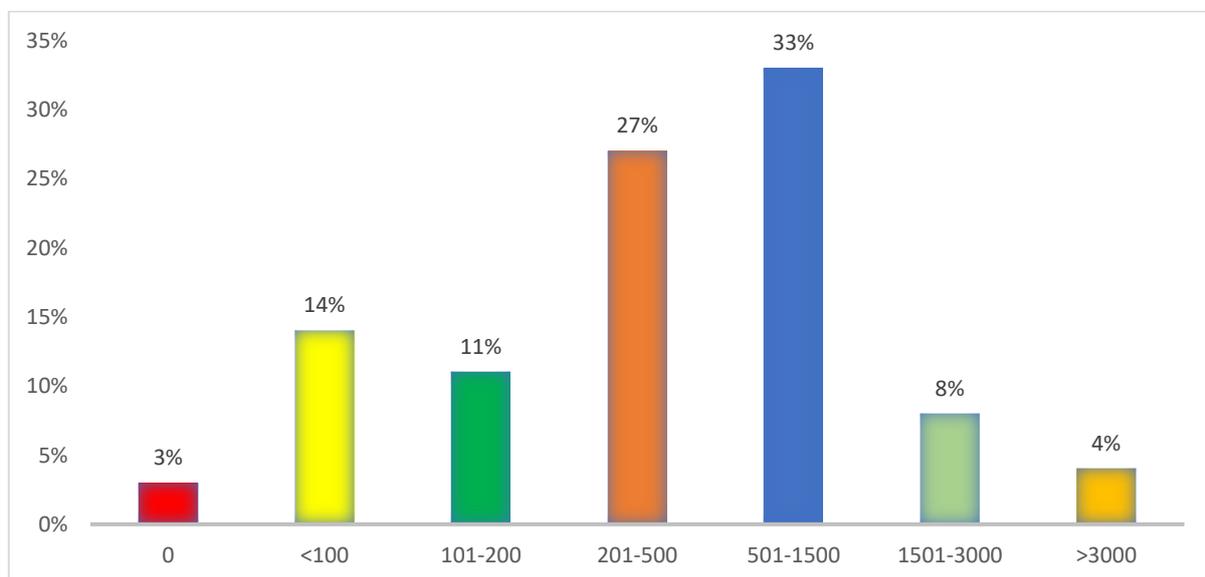
Findings represented in Figure 5.11 above indicate that a substantial 52% of farmers reported that they did not utilise any portion of their cropland for cultivation prior to the implementation of the LDS programme. This finding indicates that more than half of the surveyed farmers who have been allocated crop farms had uncultivated land within their farms. The absence of crop cultivation on these lands might be due to various factors, including lack of financial support, land suitability, personal preferences, or historical land use practices. These farmers had crop land before LDS support with 33% reporting having less than 100 hectares. These smaller crop areas typically accommodate diverse crop rotations, horticultural crops, and potentially organic farming practices. Farmers in this category may have been engaged in smaller-scale, more intensive crop farming and the introduction of the LDS programme has had a significant impact on their cropping practices. Nine per cent (9%) indicated that they utilised between 101 and 200 hectares for crop cultivation before the LDS programme. Farms within this range are well-suited for diversified crop production. The LDS

programme's introduction has provided opportunities to expand and optimize their crop cultivation efforts.

Six per cent (6%) of the farmers reported having 201 to 500 hectares of cropland before the LDS programme. This range represents moderately large crop areas, indicating that some farmers were already engaged in significant crop farming endeavours prior to the programme's initiation. These farms already practised crop farming at a commercial scale, and the LDS programme further enhanced their capabilities and production potential through the provision of essential support. It is noteworthy that none of the respondents reported utilising cropland exceeding 500 hectares before the LDS programme. This finding could be attributed to challenges such as financial, technical and entrepreneurial in cultivating large hectarages of land or it might indicate that the LDS programme was instrumental in promoting crop cultivation on previously uncultivated or underutilised land.

**(e) Total size of land utilised before LDS funding**

Participants were asked to indicate the total size in hectares for all commodities utilised before LDS funding. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.12.



**Figure 5.12: Total size of land utilised before LDS funding (all commodities)**

Data concerning the total size of land utilised before receiving land development support (LDS) funding provides valuable insights into the land utilisation patterns of the surveyed farmers prior to the implementation of the programme. This information

helps us understand the historical context and the impact of LDS funding on land use and agricultural practices for various agricultural commodities.

Figure 5.12 reveals that only 3% of the farmers reported not utilising any portion of their land before receiving LDS funding. Regardless of the land size for those who used their land before receiving LDS funding, its utilisation was not optimally practised. The majority (33%) had land in the range of 501 to 1,500 hectares, which means that numerous farmers were already working with reasonably large land holdings but were not making optimal use of their land. The introduction of LDS funding likely had a significant impact on how these farmers utilised their land, potentially enabling them to optimise its use, acquire machinery and equipment, diversify their agricultural activities, and invest in infrastructure.

Another noteworthy category (27%) is the group with land between 201 and 500 hectares. Farms in this range are moderately sized and offer flexibility for various agricultural activities. These farmers engaged in crop cultivation, livestock farming, or a combination of both before the LDS programme. The funding facilitated expansion, improved infrastructure, and encouraged more diverse or specialised agricultural practices.

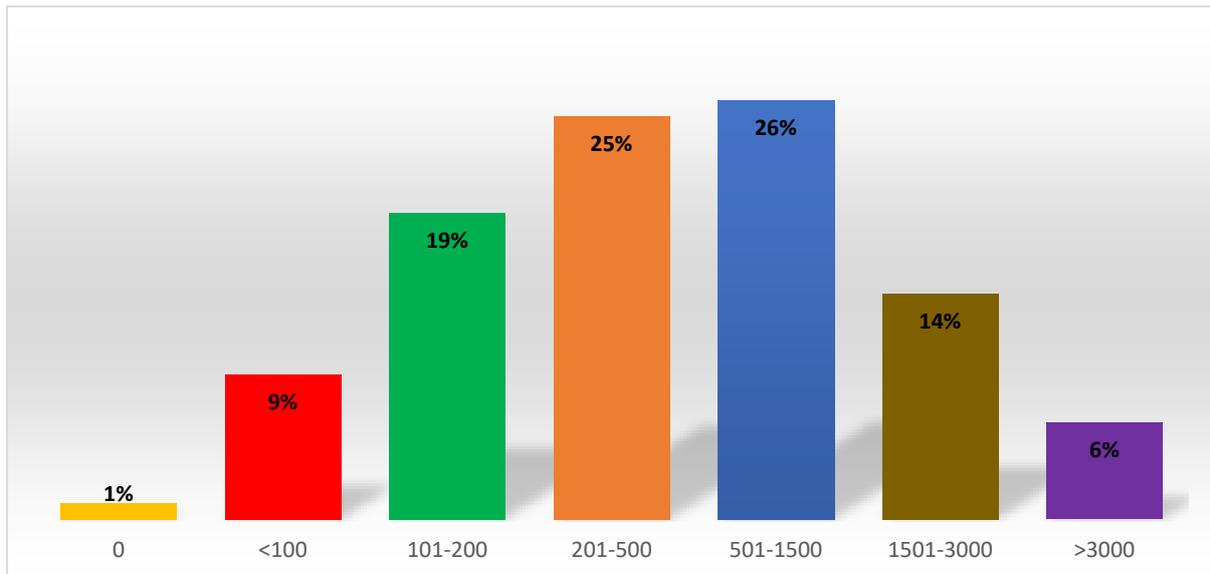
The 101 to 200 hectare range was reported by 11% of the farmers, indicating a segment of moderately-sized farms. The LDS funding has provided these farmers with opportunities to expand their operations, invest in modernisation, or explore more sustainable and efficient agricultural practices. Fourteen per cent (14%) of the surveyed farmers indicated that they had less than 100 hectares of land. These small landholdings often require intensive land use and were previously used for specialised or small-scale agricultural activities. The LDS programme has enabled these farmers to optimise their land utilisation and expand their agricultural endeavours.

The remaining 8% and 4% of the farms were 1,501 to 3,000 hectares and larger than 3,000 hectares, respectively. These large landholdings were employed for commercial-scale agriculture before the LDS programme. The funding had a substantial impact on enhancing their capabilities, scaling up production, and improving farm management in general. The data on the total size of land utilised before LDS funding indicates the diversity within the surveyed community. While a

small percentage of respondents did not utilise their land, the majority had land of various sizes, and the LDS programme likely played a significant role in influencing how they utilised their land.

**(f) Total size of land funded and utilised through LDS**

Participants were asked to indicate the total size in hectares for all commodities utilised before LDS funding. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.13.



**Figure 5.13: Total size funded and utilised through LDS**

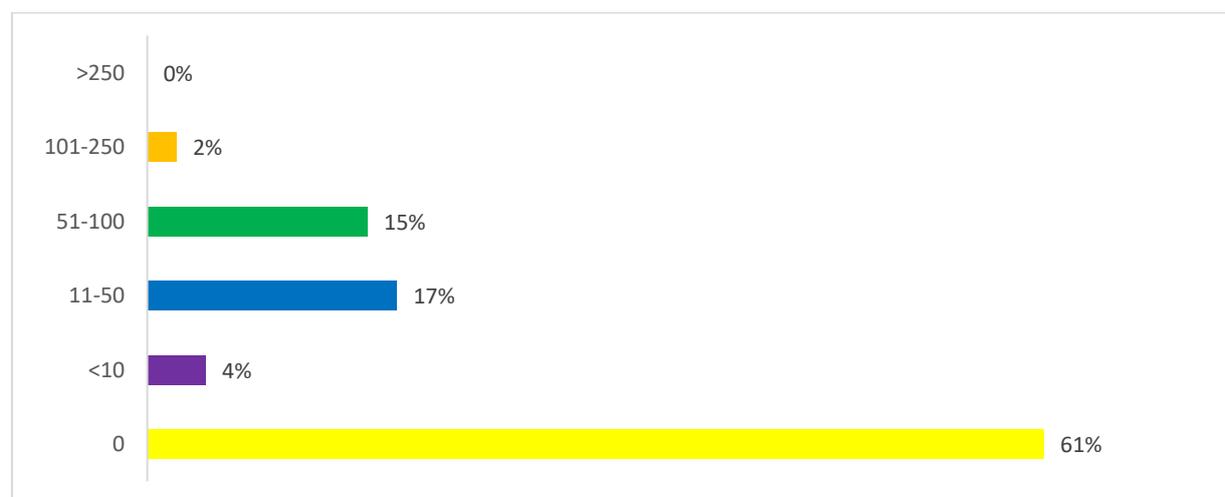
Figure 5.13 above indicates that a small percentage (1%) of the respondents reported that they did not utilise any land through the LDS programme, and the reasons vary, including lack of production discipline, challenges in accessing allocated funds, personal challenges, and external factors. The category of farms with less than 100 hectares of land funded and utilised through the LDS programme was reported by 9% of the respondents. This indicates that a small but significant portion of farmers accessed the programme to support land utilisation for various agricultural activities, including crop production and poultry farming. 19% of the respondents reported having 101 to 200 hectares of land funded and utilised through the LDS programme. This suggests that a notable portion of farmers used the programme to advance their agricultural activities.

The 201 to 500 hectares category was reported by 25% of the respondents, indicating that a substantial number of farmers utilised the LDS programme to access funding for land utilisation on moderately sized landholdings. This range represents a balance between scale and manageability and is suitable for various agricultural endeavours. A significant 26% of the respondents reported having 501 to 1,500 hectares of land funded and utilised through the LDS programme. This suggests that a large portion of farmers utilised the programme for land allocation on moderately large landholdings. The programme likely enabled them to optimise land utilisation for diverse agricultural activities, including both crop cultivation and livestock farming. The 1,501 to 3,000 hectares category was reported by 14% of the respondents, indicating that a notable portion accessed LDS funding for larger landholdings. These farmers likely utilised the programme to support land allocation to more extensive land resources, possibly for commercial-scale agricultural activities.

A smaller but still noteworthy 6% of the respondents reported having more than 3,000 hectares of land funded and utilised through the LDS programme, mainly for livestock production. In conclusion, understanding the programme's influence on land utilisation is crucial for evaluating its effectiveness in promoting sustainable agriculture.

***(g) Number of livestock before LDS support***

Participants were asked to indicate the total number of livestock they owned before LDS funding. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.14.



**Figure 5.14: Number of livestock before LDS support**

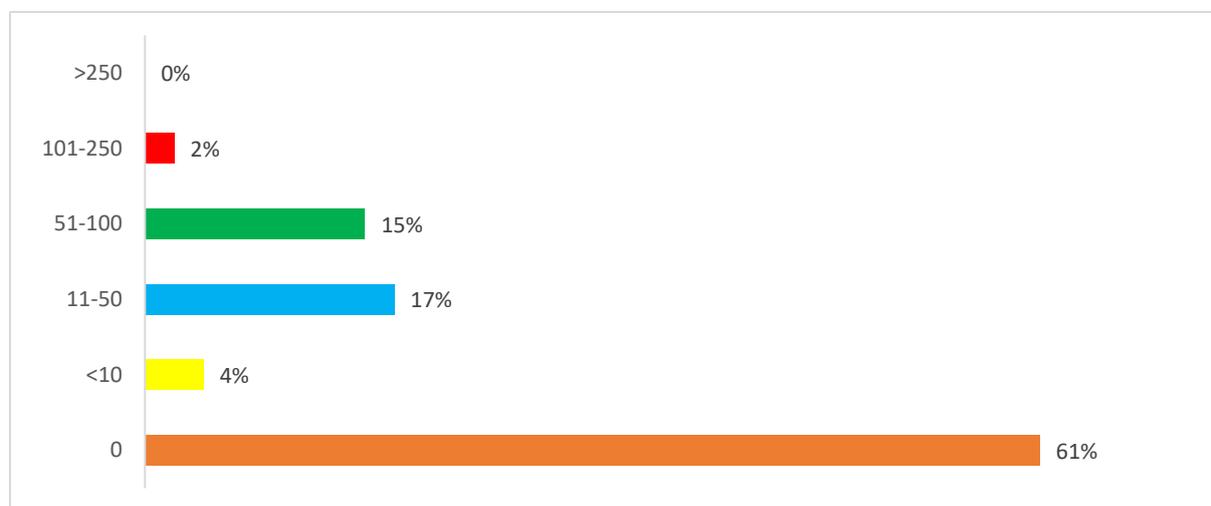
The data on the number of livestock before the implementation of the LDS programme provides valuable insights into the livestock holdings of the surveyed farmers prior to receiving programme support. This information is essential for understanding the baseline livestock numbers and how the LDS programme may have influenced livestock management and practices. A total of 15% of the sample reported they had no livestock before the LDS support. These farmers likely focused on other forms of agriculture, such as crop cultivation or other non-livestock activities. The reasons for this choice may vary, including resource constraints, personal preferences, or regional factors. A small percentage of respondents (2%) had less than 10 livestock before the LDS support, indicating minimal livestock holdings. These farmers might have been just starting with livestock, keeping a few animals for personal use, or as a supplementary income source.

The largest category, with 42% of the farmers, reported having 51 to 100 livestock before the LDS programme. This range represents a significant portion of the sample and suggests that a substantial number of farmers were already engaged in medium-scale livestock farming. These farmers were likely involved in various livestock activities, such as raising cattle, goats, sheep, or poultry. Another notable group, accounting for 23% of the respondents, reported having 101 to 250 livestock before LDS support. These farmers were involved in larger-scale livestock farming, potentially specialising in cattle, dairy production, or other livestock enterprises. The LDS programme provided opportunities for expansion, improved livestock management, and enhanced infrastructure for these farmers.

Only 2% of the farmers reported having more than 250 livestock before LDS support. These were likely large-scale livestock operations, possibly commercial livestock farming enterprises. These farmers may have been involved in extensive cattle ranching, large-scale poultry production, or other high-capacity livestock enterprises. The LDS programme supported them in optimising their livestock management and increasing their production capabilities. Finally, the data on the number of livestock before LDS support illustrates the diverse livestock management practices within the surveyed community. Most of the respondents had medium to large-scale livestock holdings, with a significant number already engaged in livestock farming activities.

### ***(h) Number of livestock purchased through LDS support***

Participants were asked to indicate the total number of livestock they purchased through LDS funding. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.15.



**Figure 5.15: Number of livestock purchased through LDS support**

Figure 5.15 reveals that a substantial 61% of the respondents reported that they did not purchase any livestock through the LDS programme. The reasons for this vary, including the preference for focusing on other agricultural activities or already having adequate livestock. A small percentage of respondents (4%) acquired fewer than ten animals through the LDS programme, indicating a limited increase in their livestock holdings. These farmers might have used the programme to initiate or slightly expand their livestock enterprises, possibly by acquiring a small number of animals for personal use or as a supplementary income source. 17% of the respondents reported purchasing 11 to 50 animals through LDS support.

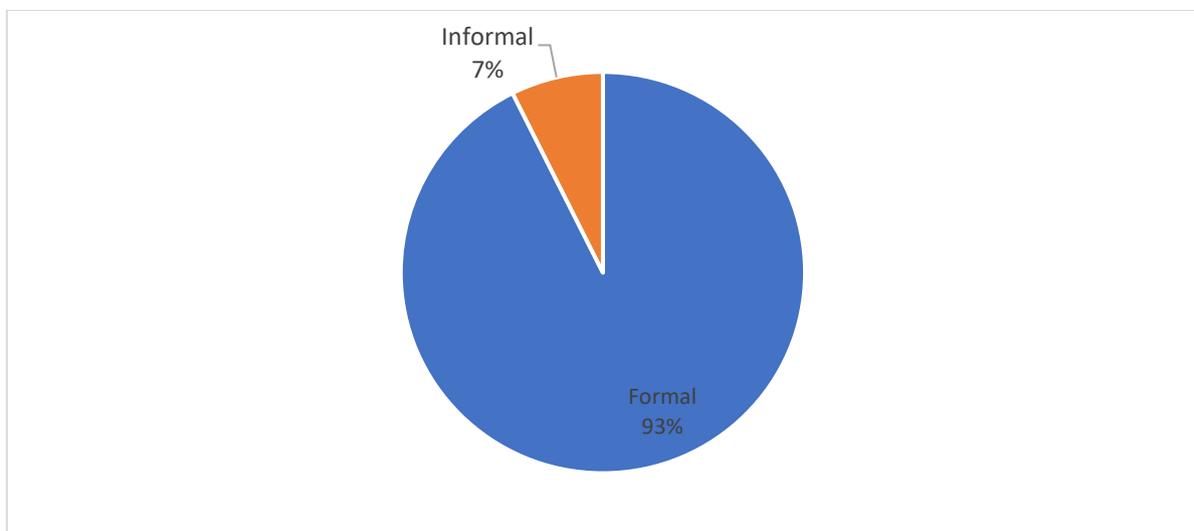
15% of the respondents reported acquiring 51 to 100 animals through the LDS programme. This group likely utilised the programme to significantly boost their livestock holdings, potentially transitioning to larger-scale livestock farming or expanding their existing operations. The programme provided them with the resources and support needed to scale up their livestock enterprises. A smaller group, comprising 2% of the farmers, reported acquiring 101 to 250 animals through LDS support. This indicates a substantial increase in livestock numbers, with these farmers engaging in large-scale livestock enterprises, such as commercial dairy production or

cattle ranching. The LDS programme could have supported them in enhancing their livestock management and increasing production capacity.

None of the respondents reported acquiring more than 250 animals through the LDS programme, which implies that the programme stipulated a limit on the number of animals that could be acquired. In some instances, the farmers reported their intention to acquire additional animals at a later stage.

**(i) Type of market**

Participants were asked to indicate the type of market utilised for selling farm produce and livestock. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.16.



**Figure 5.16: Market type**

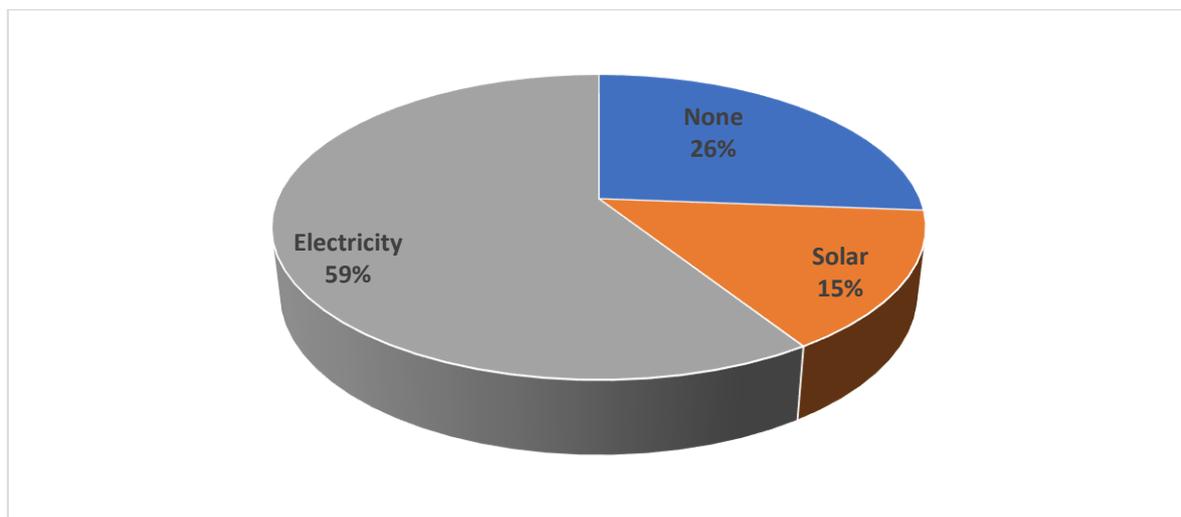
The data presented in Figure 5.16, which categorises the type of market, provides insights into the market channels used for selling farm produce and livestock. The results show that a substantial 93% of the respondents reported that they primarily engage with formal markets. This suggests that the majority of surveyed farmers prefer selling their agricultural produce and livestock through established, regulated, and structured market channels. These formal markets often include institutions such as auctions, wholesale markets, and large-scale retail chains.

A smaller but still notable 7% of the respondents reported utilising informal markets to sell their produce and livestock. Informal markets include direct sales to consumers, local farmers' markets, and small-scale trading. The dominance of formal markets

suggests a preference for structured and regulated market environments, potentially reflecting their agricultural activities' scale and commercial orientation. Meanwhile, the presence of informal market engagement among some respondents highlights the diversity in marketing approaches within the surveyed agricultural landscape.

***(j) Source of energy for farming activities***

Participants were asked to indicate the source of energy for their farming activities. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.17.



**Figure 5.17: Source of energy**

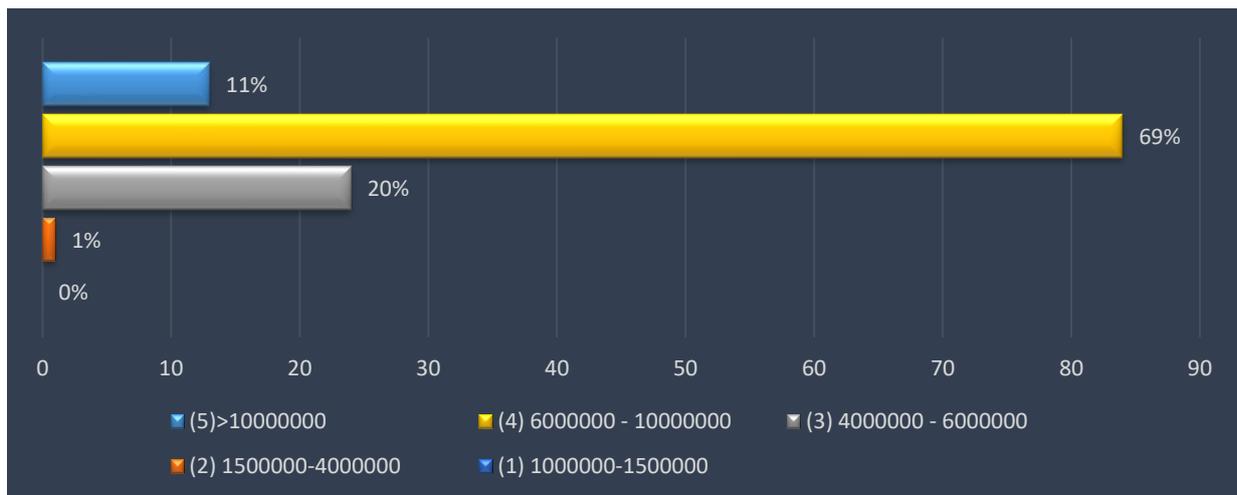
Figure 5.17 indicates that approximately 26% of the surveyed farms have no specific energy source for farming activities, while approximately 15% use solar energy to power various farming operations, including irrigation, lighting, and small machinery. Its use is relatively environmentally friendly and sustainable. The majority of farms (59%) reported using electricity as their source of energy for farming activities. Electricity is a versatile and widely accessible energy source that can power various agricultural equipment and machinery. Understanding the sources of energy for farming activities is important for assessing the energy requirement, reliability, sustainability, and efficiency in promoting farming activities. The predominance of electricity as an energy source suggests a reliance on modern, electric-powered equipment and machinery, which can have implications for productivity and resource use. However due to unreliable electricity supply in South Africa which results in load shedding, alternative source of energy such as solar might be increased in order to improve energy reliability.

### 5.2.2.2 Government support and funding

**Objective 1: To assess the governmental agricultural support programme's effectiveness in promoting land reform farms' development.**

#### **(a) Amount of grant funding provided**

Participants were asked to indicate the amount of grant funding they received for farm development. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.18.



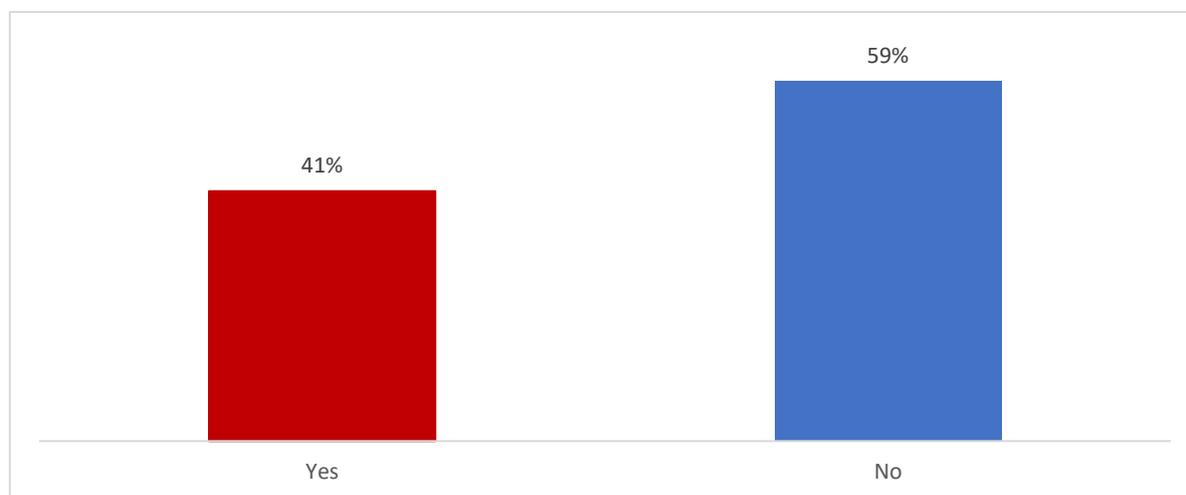
**Figure 5.18: Amount of grant funding provided**

The data presented in Figure 5.18, which details the amount of funding provided by the government through the LDS programme, offers insights into the financial support received for farm development. No farmer reported receiving funding in the range of R1,000,000 to R1,500,000. Only 1% of the respondents reported receiving funding in the range of R1,500,000 to R4,000,000. Most respondents (69%) reported receiving funding in the range of R6,000,000 to R10,000,000. This indicates that the most common funding range provided by the LDS programme falls within this financial bracket.

A significant 20% of the respondents reported receiving funding in the range of R4,000,000 to R6,000,000, which is a slightly lower range compared to the most common range but still represents substantial financial support. A notable 11% of the respondents reported receiving funding exceeding R10,000,000. This indicates that a significant minority of farmers received higher levels of financial support from the LDS programme.

**(b) Funding sufficient to cover farming needs**

Participants were asked to specify the sufficiency of the grant funding provided for farming needs. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.19.



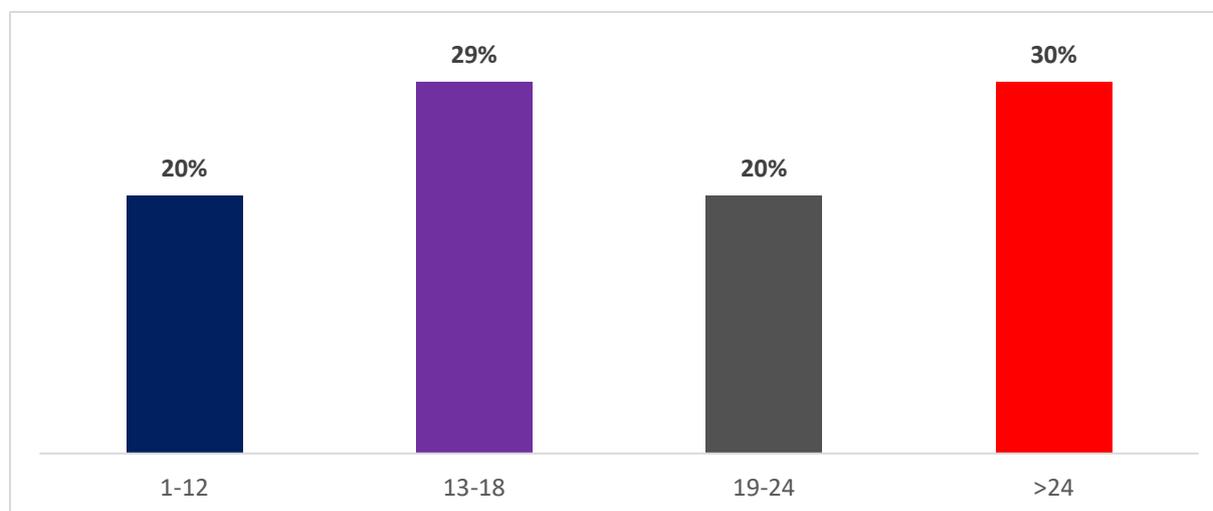
**Figure 5.19: Funding sufficiency for farming needs**

The data presented in Figure 5.19, which assesses whether the funding provided to farmers is sufficient to cover their farm needs, offers insights into the adequacy of financial support received through the LDS programme. Approximately 41% of the respondents reported that the funding they received was adequate to cover their farm needs. This suggests that a minority of farmers find the financial support provided by the programme to be adequate in meeting their requirements for land development and agricultural activities.

In contrast, a substantial 59% of the respondents indicated that the funding was insufficient to cover their farm needs. This highlights that the majority of surveyed farmers do not believe that the financial support they received was adequate to meet their requirements, which could include investments in infrastructure, equipment, or inputs. Gaining a baseline understanding of whether the funding is sufficient to cover farmers' needs is crucial for assessing the impact and effectiveness of the LDS programme in supporting the surveyed farmers. The fact that most respondents found the funding insufficient suggests potential areas for improvement in the programme to better address farmers' needs.

**(c) Number of months from application to receiving funds**

Participants were asked to specify the number of months from their application for assistance to receiving funds. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.20.



**Figure 5.20: Number of months from application to receiving funds**

The data presented in Figure 5.20, which highlights the number of months from application for assistance to receiving funds, provides insights into the time that elapsed before the surveyed farmers received funding after applying for it. Approximately 20% of the participants reported that they received funding relatively quickly, with a processing time of 1-12 months from application to receiving funds. This suggests that a minority of farmers experienced a relatively short waiting period to access the funds for which they had applied.

A notable 29% of participants encountered extended processing times, waiting 13-18 months before receiving financial assistance. This suggests that a substantial portion of the surveyed farmers experienced considerable delays in obtaining their applied-for funds. Additionally, approximately 20% of the respondents reported a 19-24 month processing time, indicating another group of farmers with a relatively long waiting period before accessing funds.

A significant 30% of participants reported the longest processing time, waiting more than 24 months between application and receiving funds. This indicates a considerable number of surveyed farmers encountered prolonged waiting times, which adversely affected their planned activities. Assessing the waiting time before receiving

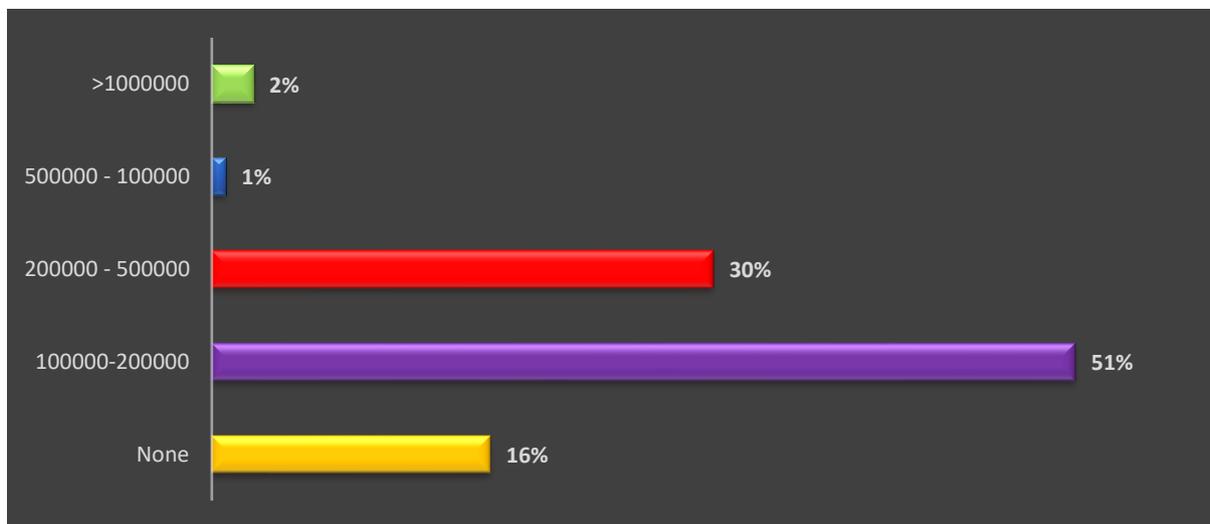
funding post-application is vital in evaluating process efficiency and its influence on timely agricultural operations. Variability in waiting periods underscores opportunities for enhancing funding disbursement to better serve the farming community's needs.

### 5.2.2.3 Farming income

**Objective 1: To assess the governmental agricultural support programme's effectiveness in promoting land reform farms' development.**

#### (a) Net annual income derived from farming before LDS support

Participants were asked to specify the farms' net annual income before LDS support. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.21.



**Figure 5.21: Net annual income derived before LDS**

The data presented in Figure 5.21, which outlines the net annual income derived before the LDS programme support, offers insights into the financial conditions of the surveyed farmers prior to receiving support from the programme. Approximately 16% of the respondents reported having no net income before participating in the LDS programme. This suggests that a minority of farmers generated limited financial returns from their agricultural activities before receiving support from the programme.

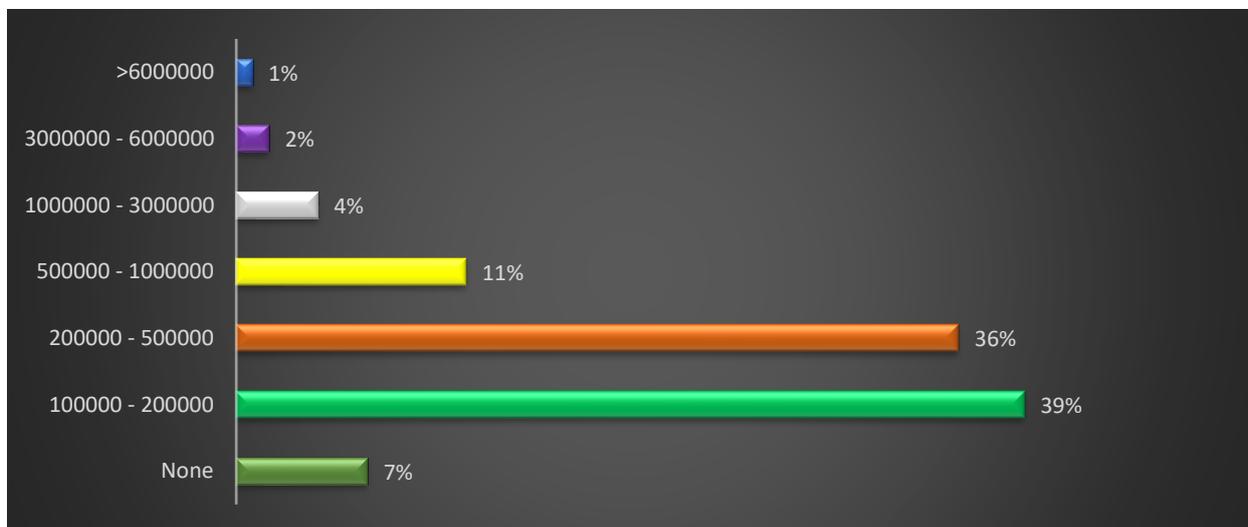
Most respondents (51%) reported a net annual income ranging from R100,000 to R200,000 before the LDS programme. This indicates that a significant portion of surveyed farmers had a moderate level of net income prior to their involvement with the programme. Approximately 30% of the respondents reported a net annual income

ranging from R200,000 to R500,000 before joining the LDS programme. This represents a significant group of farmers who had a somewhat higher net annual income compared to the previous category.

2% of the respondents indicated pre-LDS programme net annual incomes exceeding R1,000,000, signifying the rarity of farmers with substantial earnings before programme participation. Only 1% reported a net annual income ranging from R500,000 to R1,000,000, highlighting the scarcity of participants with relatively higher pre-programme incomes. Evaluating participants' financial situations before the LDS programme was vital. The data reflects a diverse income range, with most falling within the R100,000 to R500,000 group. A smaller fraction had both lower and higher net incomes. Understanding these income variations provides insights into the programme's impact on the surveyed farmers' economic well-being.

***(b) Net annual income derived from farming after LDS support***

Participants were asked to specify their net annual income derived from farming after LDS support. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.22.



**Figure 5.22: Net income derived after LDS**

Figure 5.22 above indicates that approximately 7% of the respondents reported having derived no net annual income after involvement in the LDS programme. A majority of respondents (39%) reported a net annual income ranging from R100,000 to R200,000 after their involvement in the LDS programme. Approximately 36% of the respondents reported a net annual income ranging from R200,000 to R500,000 after their

involvement in the LDS programme. This represents another substantial group of farmers who attained a somewhat higher net income level compared to the previous category. Approximately 11% of the respondents reported a net annual income ranging from R500,000 to R1,000,000. This suggests that a significant minority of surveyed farmers achieved relatively higher net incomes as a result of their participation in the programme.

Only 4% of the respondents indicated a net annual income ranging from R1,000,000 to R3,000,000, which is higher than the previous categories. This suggests that a minority of farmers realised substantial increases in net annual income following their participation in the LDS programme. Only 2% of the respondents reported a net income ranging from R3,000,000 to R6,000,000, which is significantly higher than the previous categories. This indicates that only a small percentage of farmers achieved remarkable levels of net annual income as a result of their involvement in the programme.

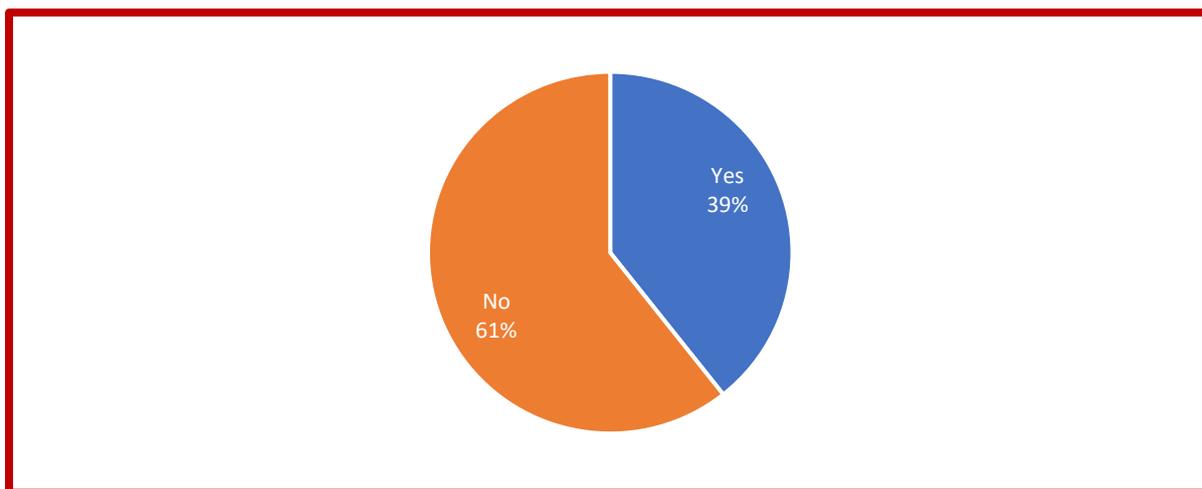
Lastly, 1% of the respondents reported a net annual income exceeding R6,000,000. This implies that only a minor percentage of farmers achieved exceptionally high levels of net annual income as a result of their participation in the LDS programme.

#### ***5.2.2.4 Partnership arrangement for farm development***

**Objective 2: To determine the potential role commodity organisations can perform in contributing to land reform farms' success.**

##### ***(a) Effectiveness of partnership in farm development***

Participants were asked to indicate if the partnership was effective in developing farms. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.23.



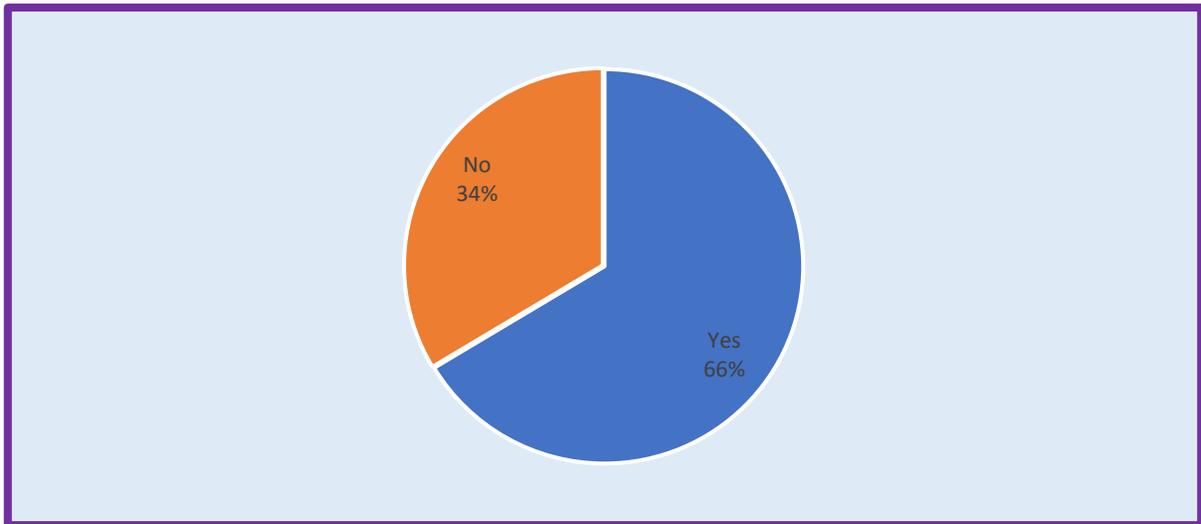
**Figure 5.23: Partnership effectiveness in farms' development**

Figure 5.23 indicates the perceived effectiveness of partnerships in farm development among the surveyed participants. Approximately 39% of the respondents reported that the partnerships have been effective in developing their farms. This indicates that a minority of surveyed farmers believe that the collaborations with non-governmental entities have contributed positively to their farm development and them as agricultural practitioners. In contrast, a significant majority (61%) of the respondents indicated that the partnerships have not been effective in developing their farms. This suggests that most surveyed farmers do not perceive the existing partnerships as sufficiently beneficial or impactful in terms of their development within the agricultural sector.

The data reveals divided opinions among the surveyed farmers regarding the effectiveness of partnerships in developing their farms. While some view these collaborations as fruitful and conducive to their growth, a larger segment does not share this perspective, indicating that there is room for improvement or changes to the nature of these partnerships to better support farmers' development needs.

***(b) Commodity organisations' knowledge of farm production***

Participants were asked to indicate if commodity organisations are knowledgeable about farm production. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.24.



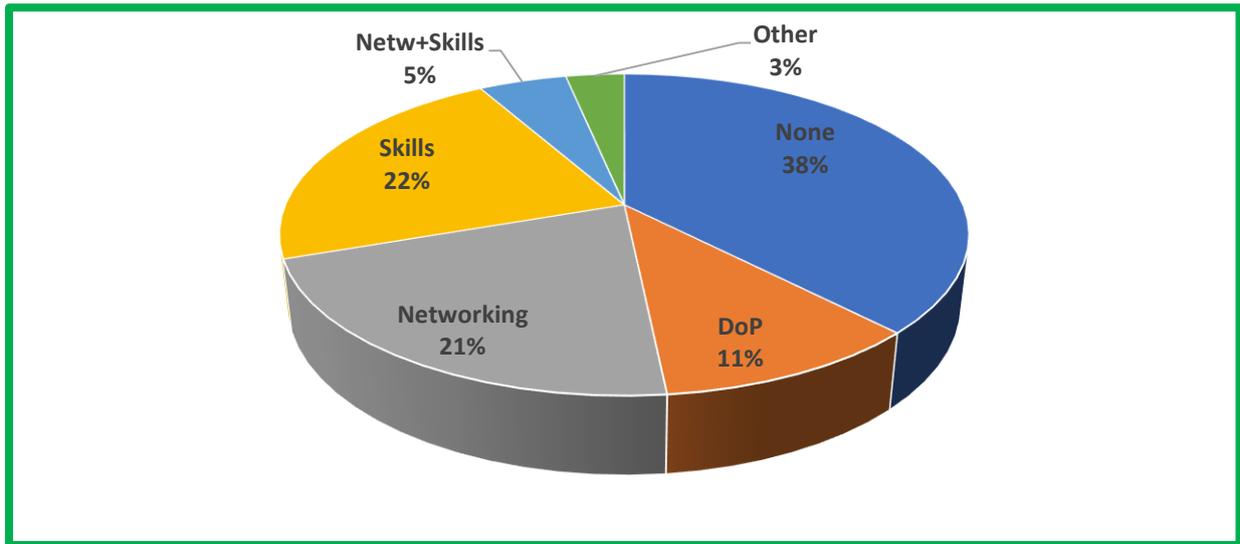
**Figure 5.24: Commodity organisations’ knowledge of agricultural production**

Figure 5.24 provides insights into the extent to which the surveyed farmers perceive commodity organisations as knowledgeable about agricultural production. Approximately 66% of the respondents reported that commodity organisations are knowledgeable about agricultural production. This suggests that the majority of surveyed farmers believe that commodity organisations possess adequate knowledge and expertise regarding various aspects of agricultural production. Conversely, 34% of the respondents indicated that commodity organisations are not knowledgeable about production. This highlights that a significant portion of farmers do not believe that these organisations have the necessary knowledge or expertise in agricultural production.

The data reflects diverse opinions among the surveyed farmers regarding commodity organisations’ knowledge and expertise in the realm of agricultural production. While a substantial majority views these organisations as knowledgeable, a significant minority has a different perspective. Understanding the perceived level of commodity organisations’ knowledge was essential for assessing the effectiveness of their support and guidance for farmers in various aspects of production.

***(c) Benefits derived from the partnership***

Participants were asked to indicate the benefits derived from the partnership. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.25.



**Figure 5.25: Benefits derived from partnership**

Figure 5.25 reveals the various benefits reported by the surveyed farmers concerning their partnerships with non-governmental entities. These benefits are described in the ensuing paragraphs.

- **Skills.** Approximately 22% of the respondents indicated that they learned new skills because of their partnerships. This implies that a significant portion of farmers are gaining valuable knowledge and expertise through their collaborations with non-governmental entities, which can enhance their capabilities and agricultural practices.
- **Networking (Netw) and Skills.** Only 5% of the respondents reported benefiting from both networking opportunities and skills development through their partnerships. This indicates that some farmers not only acquire skills but also expand their networks and connections within the agricultural sector.
- **Networking.** Approximately 21% of the respondents mentioned networking as a standalone benefit. Networking can be valuable for farmers in terms of building connections, accessing resources, and exploring opportunities within the agricultural industry.

- **DoP (Department of Public Works).** A notable 11% of the respondents cited benefits related to the Department of Public Works. This suggests that some farmers have experienced advantages or support from government-related entities as a result of their partnerships with non-governmental organisations.
- **Other.** 3% of the respondents mentioned "other" benefits not covered by the predefined categories. These unclassified benefits could encompass a range of specific advantages or opportunities resulting from their partnerships.
- **None.** The largest portion (38%) of the respondents reported that they do not derive any specific benefits from their partnerships with non-governmental entities. This suggests that a significant segment of the surveyed farmers may not perceive notable advantages or gains from their collaborations.

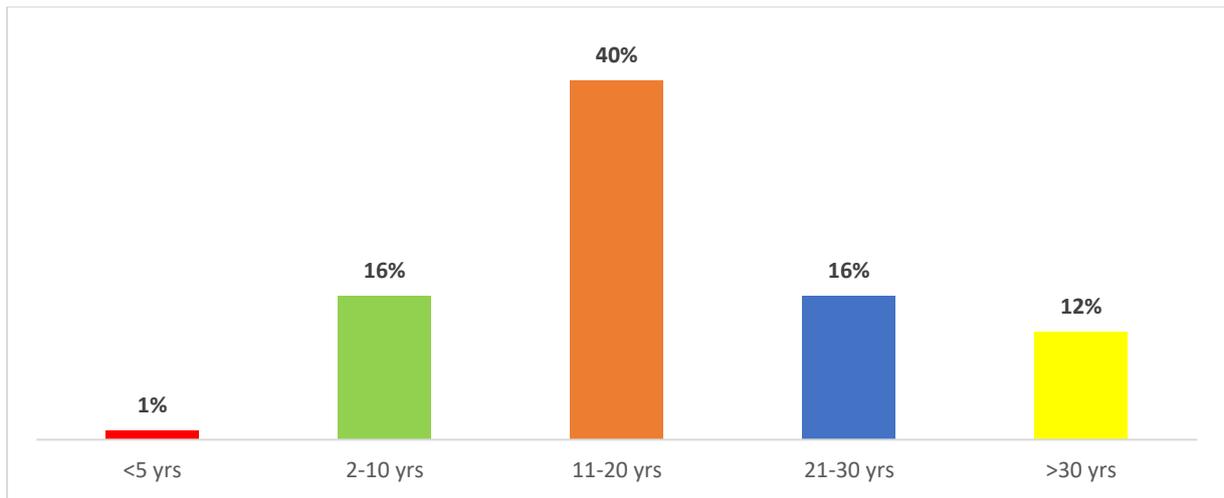
The data highlights the diverse range of benefits and advantages that farmers associate with their partnerships with non-governmental entities. These benefits can encompass skills development, networking, support from government entities, and several opportunities. Additionally, a significant portion of the surveyed farmers do not perceive any benefits from these partnerships, indicating a potential need for enhancements or adjustments to better cater to their needs and expectations.

#### ***5.2.2.5 Farmers' experience, skills and education***

**Objective 2: To determine the potential role commodity organisations can perform in contributing to land reform farms' success.**

##### ***(a) Number of years involved in farming***

Participants were asked to specify the number of years they have been involved in farming operations. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.26.

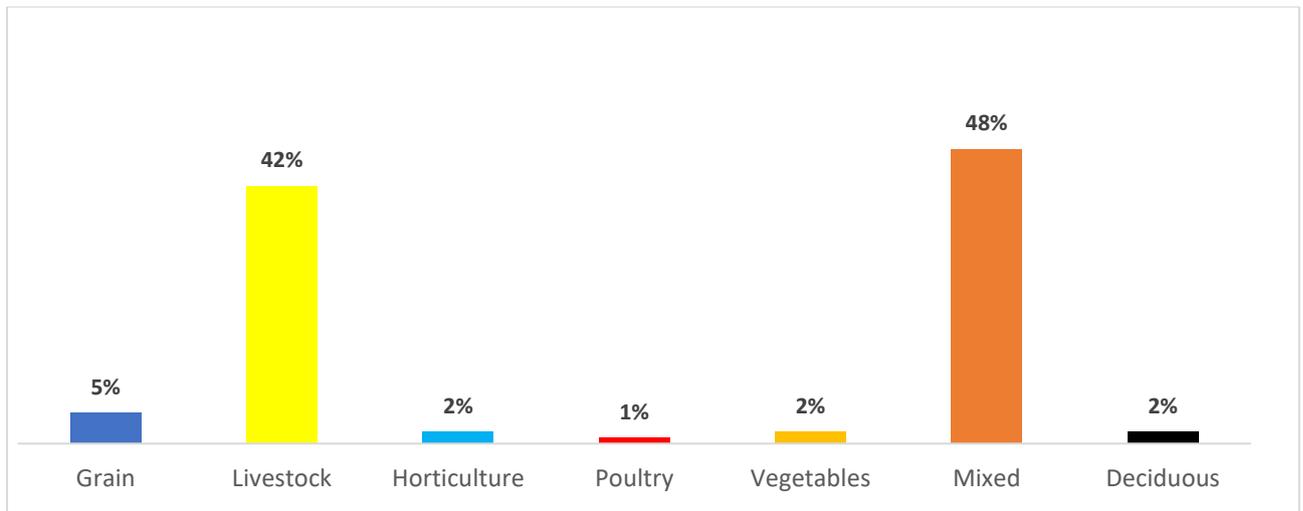


**Figure 5.26: Number of years involved in farming**

Figure 5.26 indicates the surveyed farmers' experience in farming before receiving LDS support. This figure provides important information about the surveyed farmers' production. Approximately 1 % have up to 5 years' experience in farming. The majority of farmers (40%) have between 10 and 20 years of farming experience. This means that the majority of surveyed participants have accumulated farming experience over the years. This was closely followed by 30% of farmers with 2 to 10 years of experience in farming. Those with a substantial number of years in farming comprised 16% of the surveyed farmers with 20 to 30 years of experience. The last group, those who had been farming for more than 30 years, comprised 12% of the total. This implies that most surveyed farmers had farming experience. Such knowledge was required to ascertain the type of intervention required to empower the surveyed farmers.

***(b) Type of commodity involved in before LDS funding***

Participants were asked to specify the type of commodity in which they were involved before receiving LDS support. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.27.



**Figure 5.27: Type of commodity involvement before LDS support**

Figure 5.27 reveals the diverse range of commodity types with which the surveyed farmers were involved before receiving LDS support. The commodity types and their respective percentages are discussed in the paragraphs that follow.

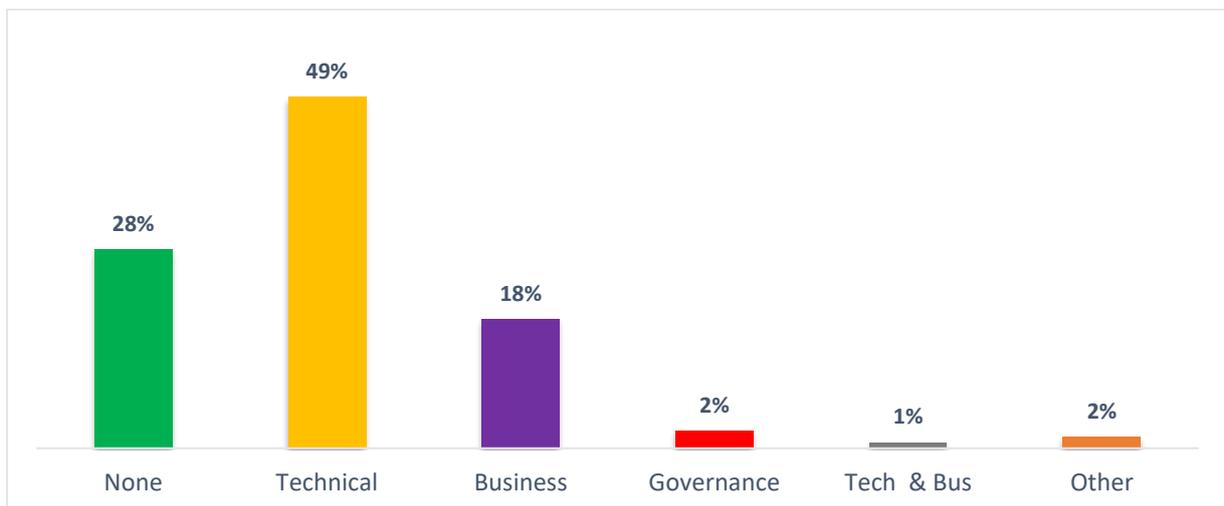
- **Grain.** Approximately 5% of the respondents were engaged in grain farming. This indicates that a small segment of farmers primarily focused on the cultivation of grains as their core commodity.
- **Livestock.** A significant 42% of the respondents were involved in livestock farming. This suggests that a substantial portion of farmers primarily reared livestock, which can include cattle, sheep, or other animals.
- **Horticulture.** Only 2% of the respondents engaged in horticulture, which encompasses the cultivation of fruits, vegetables, and ornamental plants.
- **Poultry.** Only 1% of the respondents were involved in poultry farming, focusing on the rearing of chickens, ducks, or other poultry species.
- **Vegetables.** A modest 2% of the respondents primarily cultivated various types of vegetables.
- **Mixed Farming.** The most substantial category (48%) engaged in mixed farming, involving a combination of crops and livestock.

- **Deciduous.** Only 2% of the respondents were involved in deciduous fruit farming, which means the cultivation of trees and plants that shed their leaves annually.

The data indicates the varied interests and agricultural practices among the surveyed farmers. While several focused on specific commodities such as livestock or grains, others embraced mixed farming. Understanding the distribution of commodity types was essential for assessing the diversity and specialisation within the agricultural community, which can have implications for resource allocation and support **success**.

**(c) Skills acquired during the LDS programme**

Participants were asked to specify the skills acquired while receiving LDS. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.28.



**Figure 5.28: Skills acquired during the LDS programme**

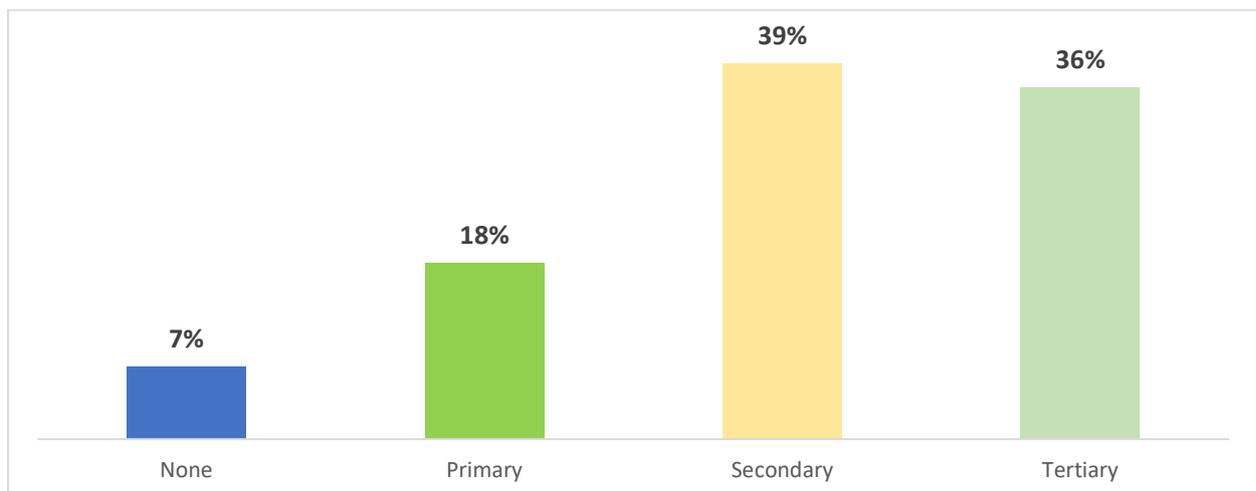
Figure 5.28 indicates the skills acquired by the surveyed farmers during their participation in the LDS programme. Understanding the types of skills acquired is crucial for assessing the programme’s effectiveness in enhancing their capabilities and knowledge, which can contribute to their agricultural success. The skills are categorised into several key areas discussed in the ensuing paragraphs.

- **None.** A notable 28% of the respondents reported that they did not acquire any specific skills during their involvement in the LDS programme. This suggests that a significant portion of the surveyed farmers did not undergo skill development as a part of the programme.

- **Technical.** The largest category (49%) indicates that technical skills were acquired. This implies that a substantial portion of the farmers gained technical competencies related to agricultural practices and techniques.
- **Business.** Approximately 18% of the respondents mentioned that they acquired business-related skills. This suggests that a significant minority of the surveyed farmers received training or education in areas related to agricultural business management.
- **Governance.** Only 2% of the respondents acquired governance skills, which may relate to understanding the regulatory and governance aspects of agriculture.
- **Technical and Business.** Only 1% of the respondents reported acquiring both technical and business skills. This indicates a rare combination of competencies in both agricultural practices and business management.
- **Other.** An additional 2% of the respondents acquired skills that do not fit into the foregoing categories.

**(d) Surveyed farmers' education levels**

Participants were asked to indicate their educational levels. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.29.



**Figure 5.29: Farmers' education levels**

Figure 5.29 offers valuable insights into the educational backgrounds of participants in the LDS programme. The data reveals a wide spectrum of educational experiences

among the surveyed farmers. A modest 7% of the respondents reported no formal education, underscoring the necessity for assistance in enhancing their farming skills. Approximately 18% of the participants mentioned completing primary education, indicating a substantial portion with foundational knowledge acquired at the primary level, providing them with basic literacy.

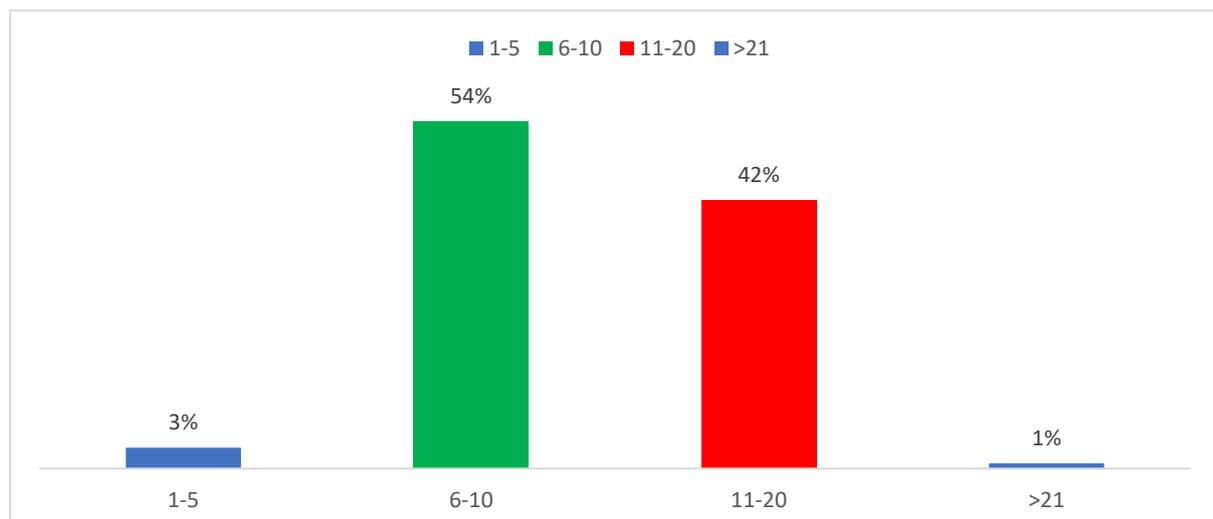
A notable 39% of the respondents had achieved a secondary level of education, indicating that a substantial portion of the surveyed farmers had educational backgrounds extending beyond primary schooling, which is essential for cultivating a comprehensive knowledge base and skill set. The most prevalent educational category (36%) was for those with advanced knowledge and skills that could apply to their farming activities.

### 5.2.2.6 Farmers' aspirations in commercial farming

**Objective 3: To what extent where land reform farmers' aspirations considered when the government develop support programme?**

#### (a) Number of years farm allocated to farmer

Participants were asked to specify the number of years they had been granted a leasehold on their allocated farm. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.30.



**Figure 5.30: Farmers' number of years of leasehold on allocated farm**

Figure 5.30 presents an analysis of the number of years since the surveyed farmers were allocated their farms through a leasehold from the DALRRD. Approximately 3%

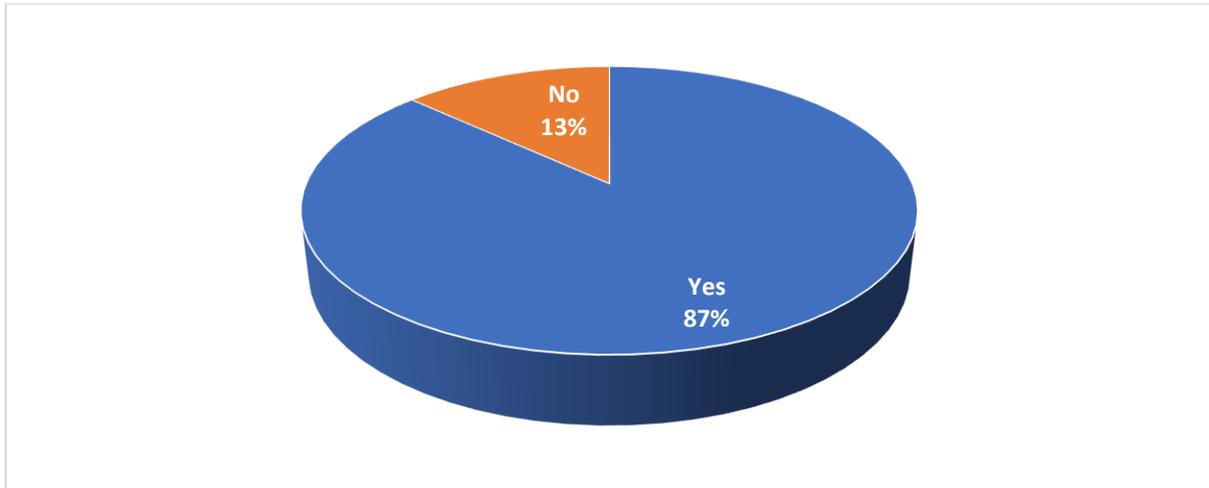
of these farmers reported being granted a leasehold ranging from one to five years ago. This category indicates newer entrants into the agricultural sector. The majority, comprising 54% of the surveyed farmers, had been farming their allocated farms for six to ten years; considered a medium-term period. This duration allows for stability and time to establish and develop their farming operations, fostering sustainability and growth. Approximately 42% were allocated their farms 11 to 20 years ago, which implies that these farmers have had ample opportunity to establish agricultural enterprises, implement long-term strategies, and contribute to the agricultural sector's stability. A small proportion, just 1% of the surveyed farmers, had been on their farms allocated through leasehold for more than 20 years.

***(b) Reason for accessing land***

Participants were asked their reasons for accessing land and 100% of them unanimously indicated that they aspired to become commercial farmers. This unanimous focus underscores the economic importance of agriculture in South Africa, where commercial farming is primarily viewed as an income-generating activity. These farmers could actively engage in producing goods for broad markets, reflecting a market-oriented approach and an entrepreneurial spirit within the community. By exclusively pursuing commercial farming, they diversify their income sources, contributing to financial stability. However, it is crucial to balance commercial goals with sustainable agricultural practices to ensure environmental health and long-term viability. This unanimous choice highlights the importance of creating initiatives tailored to meet their evolving needs and aspirations and guides the design of support programmes.

***(c) Suitability of LDS programme in meeting farming needs***

Participants were asked if the LDS programme meets their farming needs. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.31.



**Figure 5.31: Suitability of LDS programme in meeting farming needs**

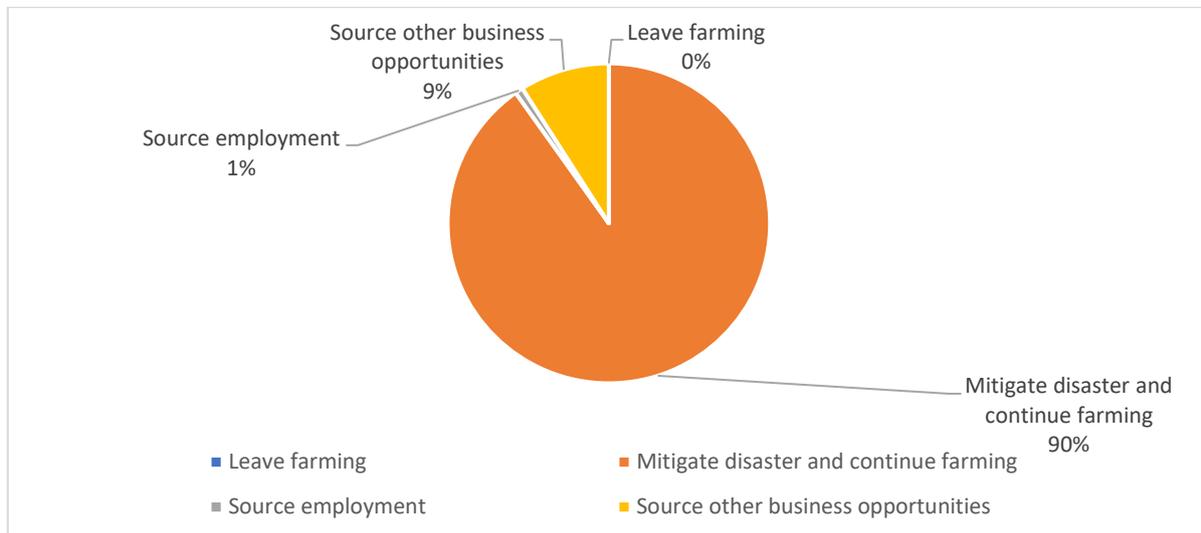
The surveyed farmers' responses regarding the suitability of the LDS (Land Development Support) programme in meeting their farming needs reveal valuable insights. A significant majority, comprising 87% of the respondents affirmed that the LDS programme does address their specific agricultural requirements, as reflected in Figure 5.31

This substantial endorsement implies that the LDS programme is an effective means of support, aligning with farmers' needs and aspirations for their agricultural operations. Such alignment can lead to more efficient resource utilisation, enhanced outcomes, and improved overall productivity. However, it is worth noting that 13% of the respondents, although in the minority, expressed a different perspective, indicating that the LDS programme may not entirely meet their agricultural needs. This divergence in opinion underscores the importance of ongoing programme evaluation and adaptation. Understanding the concerns and challenges faced by this subset of farmers can provide valuable insights for programme enhancements and adjustments to ensure that it effectively caters to a broader range of agricultural needs.

Finally, the responses concerning the LDS programme's ability to meet farmers' needs were predominantly positive, with most farmers finding it aligned with their agricultural requirements.

**(d) Farmers' reactions to natural disasters**

Agricultural production is susceptible to risk and uncertainty and the participants were thus asked how they would react in cases of natural disasters. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.32.



**Figure 5.32: Reaction to a natural disaster**

The responses captured in Figure 5.32 regarding farmers' reactions in the event of an adverse impact on their production due to a natural disaster provide valuable insight into their resilience and adaptability in the face of adversity. Notably, none of the surveyed farmers indicated that they would consider leaving farming entirely as a response to such a situation. A substantial 90% of the respondents expressed their intent to mitigate the disaster's impact and continue farming. This response reflects a robust commitment to their agricultural activities and a proactive approach to overcoming challenges. It underscores their determination to bounce back from setbacks and sustain their farming operations, even in the face of natural disasters.

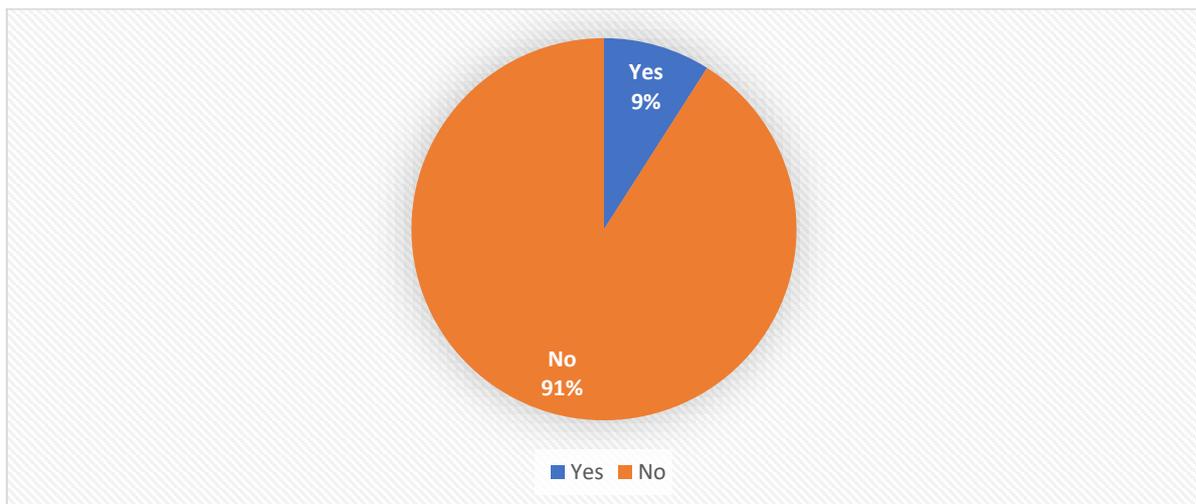
Only 9% of the respondents conveyed their intention to source other business opportunities as a response to production setbacks caused by natural disasters. This response demonstrates their openness to diversifying their income sources and exploring alternative ventures, which can be a strategic approach to building resilience and financial stability.

A small fraction, 1%, mentioned their intention to seek employment elsewhere. This response suggests that while they are open to exploring other employment options, it

does not necessarily imply abandoning farming. These individuals may be considering temporary or part-time employment to supplement their income during challenging periods. Finally, the responses in Figure 5.32 underscore farmers' determination and adaptability in the face of natural disasters. The overwhelming majority remain committed to mitigating disaster impacts and continuing their farming endeavours, while a small percentage are open to exploring alternative business opportunities or employment options to enhance their resilience and economic stability. The absence of respondents considering leaving farming entirely indicates a strong attachment to their agricultural pursuits.

***(e) Intentions to development farm beyond LDS support***

The researcher believes that entrepreneurs constantly seek opportunities, hence, the participants were asked if they intend to expand their farm development after LDS support terminates. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.33.



**Figure 5.33: Expansion plans**

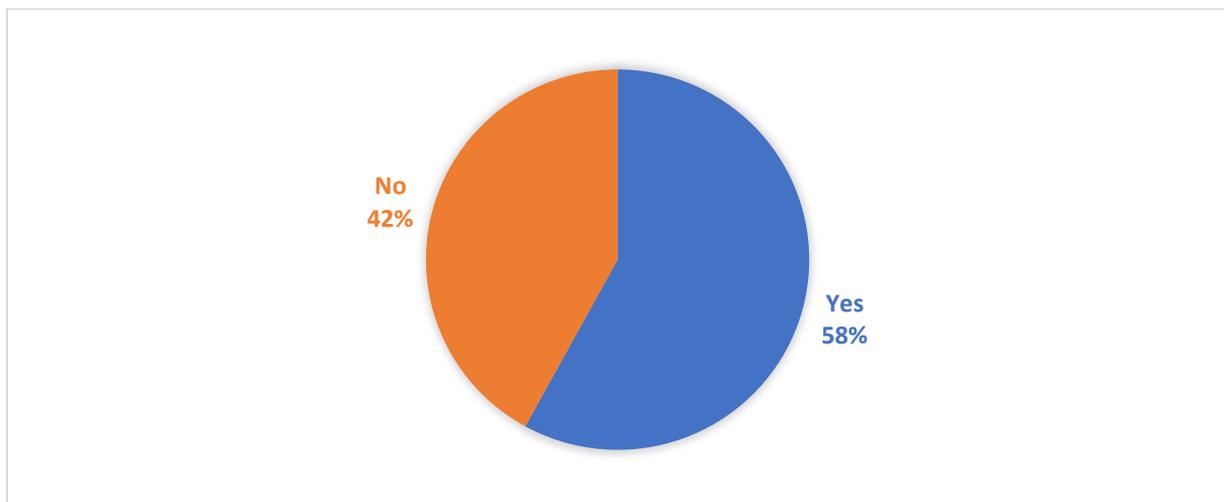
The data presented in Figure 5.33, which depicts farmers' intentions to expand their farm development, provides valuable insights into agricultural activities' growth and future trajectory within the surveyed community. Notably, 91% of the respondents indicated that they have no plans for expansion; these farmers intend to maintain their existing operations.

This overwhelming majority are content with their current farming setups and do not see a need to expand. Their focus is on optimising and improving their existing

enterprises rather than enlarging them. Several of these respondents' farm in regions where land availability and other factors limit their expansion opportunities. Conversely, 9% of the participants expressed affirmative intentions to expand their farm development. This smaller subset of farmers, as depicted in Figure 5.33, is actively seeking growth opportunities within their agricultural enterprises. They are exploring avenues for expansion, diversification, or scaling up their farming activities to achieve specific goals or meet market demands. The data indicates that a significant majority of surveyed farmers have no plans for farm expansion, while a smaller portion is actively considering and working towards expanding their farm development.

***(f) Previous efforts to secure development funding***

In exploring farmers' initiatives to ensure farm development, the participants were asked if they had attempted to source financial assistance before the LDS programme. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.34.



**Figure 5.34: Previous efforts to secure development funding**

The data presented in Figure 5.34 provides valuable insights into the surveyed farmers' financial history and experiences. The responses shed light on their proactive approach to seeking financial support and resources for their farming endeavours.

Notably, 58% of the respondents indicated that they had previously attempted to secure funding for their farming development. Their past initiatives may have involved applications for grants, loans, or other funding opportunities to invest in farm improvements, expansion, or new ventures.

Conversely, 42% indicated that they had not previously attempted to secure farming development funding. This group may have relied primarily on their capital and farm profits, or they may have attempted to source outside funding. These responses reflect the individual financial approaches, experiences, and efforts to ensure their farms' success. This information facilitates an understanding of the support required for diverse farming projects and farmers' entrepreneurial traits.

### **5.2.3 Inferential statistics**

#### **5.2.3.1 Overview**

In quantitative research, correlational statistics play a vital role in understanding the relationships between variables. This presentation aims to define correlational statistics and highlight their significance in agricultural research, particularly in the context of farming activities. By examining the connections between various factors, researchers can gain valuable insights into enhancing farming practices, optimising resource allocation, and improving overall agricultural productivity. Correlational statistics involve the examination of relationships between two or more variables without implying causation. These statistics quantify the strength and direction of associations between variables, providing a numerical representation of the degree to which they are related. This statistical tool helps researchers identify patterns, predict outcomes, and make informed decisions based on empirical evidence (Field, 2013).

#### **5.2.3.2 Importance of correlational statistics in agricultural research**

##### **(a) Identifying key factors**

Correlational statistics are vital in identifying key factors that influence farming activities. By analysing the relationship between variables such as soil quality, weather conditions, crop yield, and pesticide usage, researchers can determine which factors have the most significant impact on agricultural outcomes. This knowledge can guide farmers in making informed decisions to optimise their practices and achieve higher yields (Fernández-Cornejo *et al.*, 2012).

##### **(b) Resource allocation**

Effective resource allocation is crucial in farming. Correlational statistics enable researchers to examine the relationship between inputs (such as fertilisers, water, and labour) and outputs (crop yield,). By identifying the variables that are strongly

correlated with increased productivity, farmers can allocate resources efficiently, reducing waste and maximising returns (Kumbhakar *et al.*, 2014).

### ***(c) Risk Assessment and management***

Farming activities are susceptible to various risks, including weather conditions, pests, and market fluctuations. Correlational statistics can help researchers identify the factors correlated with specific risks. For example, by analysing historical data, researchers can determine the relationship between rainfall patterns and crop yield. This information enables farmers to implement appropriate risk management strategies, such as adjusting planting schedules or investing in irrigation systems (Lobell *et al.*, 2013).

### ***(d) Decision-making and policy formulation***

Correlational statistics provide evidence-based insights that support decision-making and policy formulation in agriculture. By examining the relationships between variables such as land use, crop diversity, and environmental sustainability, researchers can inform policymakers about the potential impacts of certain agricultural practices. This information can guide the development of policies that promote sustainable farming practices, protect natural resources, and ensure long-term food security (Scoones *et al.*, 2020).

### ***(e) Research design and hypothesis formulation***

Correlational statistics assist researchers in designing robust studies and formulating hypotheses. By examining preliminary correlations between variables of interest, researchers can generate hypotheses to be tested in subsequent experiments or surveys. This iterative process helps refine research questions, focus investigations, and contribute to the overall body of knowledge in the field of agricultural research (Hair *et al.*, 2013).

#### **5.2.3.3 Correlation matrix**

A correlation matrix is a statistical tool used to summarise and examine the relationships between multiple variables. It provides a comprehensive overview of the pairwise correlations between variables in a dataset. The matrix is typically represented as a square table, with variables listed on both the rows and columns.

In a correlation matrix, each cell represents the correlation coefficient between a pair of variables. The correlation coefficient, often denoted by the symbol "r," measures the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables. It ranges from -1 to +1, where a value of -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation, +1 indicates a perfect positive correlation, and 0 indicates no correlation.

The correlation matrix allows researchers to quickly identify which variables are strongly related either positively or negatively. This information helps uncover patterns and dependencies among variables, enabling further analysis and interpretation. The matrix can also be visually represented using colour gradients or symbols to highlight the strength of the correlations, making it easier to identify significant relationships. By understanding the relationships between variables, researchers can gain insights into underlying patterns, make predictions, and guide further statistical analyses. Correlations between studied variables are explained in the ensuing sections.

#### ***(a) Relationship between land size and crop land***

The correlation coefficient between "Land Size" and "Crop Land" is -0.27005 indicating a negative correlation between these two variables. A negative correlation means that as one variable (in this case, "Land Size") increases, the other variable ("Crop Land") tends to decrease, and vice versa. In other words, when "Land Size" is larger, less "Crop Land" is utilised, and when "Land Size" is smaller, more "Crop Land" tends to be utilised.

The magnitude of the correlation coefficient, in this case -0.27005, indicates the strength of the relationship. A coefficient closer to -1 or 1 represents a stronger correlation, while a coefficient closer to 0 suggests a weaker correlation. In this analysis, the negative correlation coefficient suggests that there is a weak negative relationship between "Land Size" and "Crop Land" utilisation, with larger land sizes associated with less crop land utilised and vice versa.

#### ***(b) Relationship between the size of vegetable land before LDS and the size after LDS***

The correlation coefficient of -0.00826 between "Size of Vegetable Land Before LDS" and "Size of Vegetable Land After LDS" is weak; an almost negligible, negative correlation. A correlation coefficient close to zero, as is -0.00826, indicates that there

is essentially no linear relationship between “Size of Vegetable Land Before LDS” and “Size of Vegetable Land After LDS”. In other words, changes in the size of vegetable land before the LDS programme are not significantly associated with changes in the size of vegetable land after the programme’s implementation.

The negative correlation coefficient suggests that, if there were any relationship at all, it would be significantly weak and negative, implying that an increase in the size of vegetable land before LDS does not necessarily correspond to a decrease in the size of vegetable land after LDS, and vice versa. In practical terms, this means that LDS did not have any significant effect on the size of vegetable land. Other factors and variables likely influence the size of the land under vegetable cultivation both before and after the LDS programme.

***(c) Type of market and reason for dissatisfaction with the market***

An examination of the relationship between “Type of Market” and “Reason for Dissatisfaction” among farmers funded through the land development support programme revealed a Pearson coefficient of 0.233664. In this context, this means that as the “Type of Market” changes or varies, there is a tendency for the “Reason for Dissatisfaction” to change or vary in the same direction. The strength of the relationship is determined by the absolute value of the correlation coefficient (in this case, 0.233664), which indicates a relatively weak positive relationship. The direction of the relationship is positive, as indicated by the positive sign of the correlation coefficient, which means that as the “Type of Market” changes in one direction (e.g., from local to formal or vice versa), the “Reason for Dissatisfaction” tends to change in the same direction.

While there is an association between these two variables, the causes of dissatisfaction are likely multifaceted, and market type is just one of many factors at play. Understanding this relationship is vital for providing targeted support and improving the programme’s effectiveness in addressing farmers’ dissatisfaction.

***(d) Amount of funding provided vs sufficiency of funding***

The relationship between “Amount of Funding Provided” and “Sufficiency of Funding” among farmers funded through the LDS programme revealed a Pearson coefficient of -0.2435758. In this context, as the “Amount of Funding Provided” increases or

decreases, there is a tendency for “Sufficiency of Funding” to change in the opposite direction. This simply means that as the funding amount provided increases, the perception of funding sufficiency decreases, and vice versa. The correlation coefficient of -0.2435758 indicates a relatively weak negative relationship.

A negative Pearson correlation coefficient suggests that there is an inverse relationship between the “Amount of Funding Provided” and the perception of “Sufficiency of Funding” among farmers. A conducted survey offers several possible explanations for this relationship presented hereunder as.

- **Expectations vs. Reality.** Farmers who receive larger amounts of funding may have higher expectations and standards for what they consider “sufficient”. When their expectations are not met, they perceive the funding as insufficient.
- **Resource Allocation.** In some cases, farmers who receive lower amounts of funding may have learned to make the most of the available resources, making them more likely to view the funding as sufficient.
- **Programme Design.** The design of the land development support programme, including its criteria for allocating funding, may influence how farmers perceive the sufficiency of the funds provided.
- **Individual Circumstances.** Farming operations vary widely, and individual circumstances such as farm size, crop choice, and market access can impact how farmers assess funding sufficiency.

#### **(e) Funding sufficient vs funding aligned to farm priorities**

The relationship between “Funding Sufficient” and “Funding Aligned to Farm Priorities” among farmers funded through the LDS programme is represented by the Pearson coefficient of -0.1775684. In this context, it means that as the perception of “Funding Sufficiency” increases (farmers perceive their funding as sufficient), the perception of “Funding Aligned to Farm Priorities” tends to decrease. In other words, farmers who find their funding sufficient are less likely to believe that the funding is aligned with their farm priorities, and vice versa. In this study, a correlation coefficient of -0.1775684 indicated a relatively weak negative relationship between the two variables.

The negative Pearson correlation coefficient suggests that there is an inverse relationship between the perception of funding sufficiency and the alignment of funding with farm priorities among the farmers in the study. Results from the survey offers several possible explanations which can help us understand this relationship.

- ***Different Perspectives.*** Farmers who perceive their funding as sufficient may not necessarily feel that the funding aligns with their specific farm priorities. They might consider the funding adequate in terms of overall support but not directed toward their individual needs.
- ***Programme Design.*** The LDS programme might have criteria or priorities that do not always align with farmers' individual needs and objectives, leading to differences in perceptions.
- ***Communication and Expectations.*** There may be a disconnect in communication between the programme and the farmers regarding how funding decisions are made and what priorities are considered.
- ***Diverse Farming Operations.*** Farming operations can vary widely, and what is considered sufficient or aligned with priorities can be subjective and depend on each farmer's goals and circumstances.

***(f) Net income derived before LDS vs net income derived after LDS***

The correlation coefficient between "Net Income Derived Before LDS" (Land Development Support Programme) and "Net Income Derived After LDS" among farmers funded through the programme was 0.521249292. This indicates a moderately strong positive relationship between pre-programme net income and post-programme net income, indicating that changes in one variable are reasonably well-predicted by changes in the other. In other words, there is a positive trend where an increase in pre-programme net income corresponds to an increase in post-programme net income.

The positive Pearson correlation coefficient suggests that farmers who had higher net income levels before participating in the LDS programme tend to experience higher net income levels after participating in the programme. These results are similar to

previous studies on land reform which indicated minimal income derived from government supported farms (Kepe and Hall,2016). Possible explanations from the survey are presented hereunder.

- **Programme Effectiveness.** The positive correlation indicates that, in general, the programme is associated with an increase in net income. This suggests that the programme has a positive impact on farmers' financial well-being.
- **Targeting.** It may also imply that the programme effectively targets farmers who have the potential to increase their income, thereby maximising the benefits.
- **Individual Circumstances.** While there is a positive trend, individual circumstances, farm types, and regional factors may influence the extent to which net income increases after participation in the programme.
- **Other Factors.** Other factors not considered in this study, such as market conditions, local economic changes, or variations in farm management practices, could also impact post-programme net income.

**(g) Devotion in terms of time and initial choice of type of farm**

The relationship between “Devotion in Terms of Time” and “Initial Choice for the Type of Farm” among farmers funded through the LDS was represented by a coefficient of 0.075758. A correlation coefficient of 0.075758 indicates a significantly weak but positive relationship. These results reflect previous studies which indicated that most land reform farmers are devote fulltime in farming but lacked capabilities to operate farms at commercial scales (DRDLR 2019a; Gandidzanwa *et al.*, 2021).

Based on survey conducted, several possible explanations for this relationship are presented hereunder.

- **Limited Impact.** The devotion of time to farming may not be strongly influenced by the initial choice of the type of farm. Other factors, such as economic considerations, market demand, and personal interests may play a more substantial role in determining time commitment.

- **Various Factors.** Farming operations and decisions can be influenced by a multitude of factors, making the relationship between devotion in terms of time and initial farm choice complex rather than linear.
- **Individual Variation.** Farmers have unique circumstances and priorities, and their level of time devotion can vary significantly irrespective of their initial farm type choice.
- **Changes Over Time.** The initial choice of farm type may not be a reliable predictor of devotion over time, as circumstances and priorities can change as farmers gain experience and adapt to evolving conditions.

**(h) Willingness to continue with partnership beyond LDS support and farmers' ability to sustain production**

Examining the relationship between “Willingness to Continue with Partnership Beyond LDS Support” and “Farmers’ Ability to Sustain Production” among farmers funded through the LDS programme revealed a Pearson coefficient of 0.0044, which is a positive correlation. There is a positive trend where farmers who express a greater willingness to continue the partnership beyond the LDS support phase are more likely to have higher abilities to sustain production. These results are contrary to findings by Lahiff (2012) and DPME (2013) which indicated that farmers supported under government support programmes were not adequately skilled through partnership arrangements and therefore unable to sustain their production. A correlation coefficient of 0.0044 indicates a statistically insignificant but positive relationship between these two variables.

Several possible explanations for this relationship obtained from the survey are presented hereunder.

- **Independent Factors.** It is likely that these two variables, willingness to continue a partnership and the ability to sustain production, are influenced by a multitude of independent factors, with little direct influence over each other.
- **Complex Interactions.** The relationship between partnership continuation and production sustainability is multifaceted, involving factors such as market

conditions, resource availability, and farm management practices, making it difficult to identify a straightforward linear relationship.

- **Individual Variability.** Farmers' circumstances, partnerships, and production setups may vary widely, leading to different outcomes that do not conform to a linear trend.
- **Statistical Noise.** The significantly low correlation coefficient may also be influenced by statistical noise, and the relationship may become more apparent with a larger dataset or with the inclusion of additional variables.

#### ***(i) Skills before LDS vs skills during LDS***

The correlation coefficient between "Skills Before LDS" and "Skills During LDS" among farmers funded through the programme was 0.174245. This positive correlation suggests that as one variable increases, the other tends to also increase. In this context, it means that as "Skills Before LDS" increase (indicating a higher level of skills before joining the programme), there is a tendency for "Skills During LDS" to also increase. In other words, there is a positive trend where farmers with higher skills before the programme tend to develop and enhance their skills during the programme. DRDLR (2019a) study also affirmed that farmers with high level of education absorbs skills better, however that didn't translate into higher levels of farm productivity as it might have been expected. A correlation coefficient of 0.174245 indicates a relatively weak positive relationship.

The results of the survey provided several possible explanations for this relationship as presented hereunder.

- **Baseline Skills.** Farmers who have a high skill level before the programme may be better positioned to grasp and apply the training and resources provided during the programme. This results in them developing and enhancing their skills.
- **Motivation and Commitment.** Farmers with high initial skills may be more motivated to actively participate in the programme and use the resources effectively, resulting in skill enhancement.

- **Programme Impact.** The programme may be designed to enhance farmers' existing skills. Those with strong foundational skills can benefit more than those with weaker foundational skills and exhibit greater skill development.
- **Feedback Loops.** Farmers with skills before the programme may have the ability to provide feedback to the programme, influencing its training and support content, which in turn affects skill development.

### 5.3 PRESENTATION OF QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

#### 5.3.1 Profiling of participants

The study conducted three group discussions with farmers across all three provinces. A total of twenty-nine (n=29) farmers participated, with between five and thirteen participants from each province. All participants were adults older than 35 with men in the majority (84%). The participants were farmers who leased land to conduct agricultural development and were responsible for their farms' daily operations. An open discussion was separately held with four commodity organisation representatives involved in deciduous fruits, grain and livestock (n=1: fruit industry, n=2: grain industry; n=1: livestock industry). These commodity organisations are directly involved in supporting farmers in agricultural development.

#### 5.3.2 Perception of partnership arrangement among farmers and commodity organisations

The researcher endeavoured to gain insights into how farmers and commodity organisations perceive their partnership arrangements, which necessitate collaborative efforts to develop land reform farms. A significant majority of farmers (82%) mentioned a lack of trust between themselves and commodity organisations. This lack of trust primarily stemmed from the perception that the partnership arrangement was imposed on them as part of the government's support mechanisms. In contrast, 18% of the participants did not perceive a lack of trust.

There was a notable division among commodity organisations' representatives, with a 50% split in their perspectives. Half of the commodity organisations acknowledged the existence of a trust deficit between themselves and the farmers, while the other half did not share this sentiment. These findings indicate complex dynamics and varying

degrees of trust within the partnership arrangements, which have implications for the collaborative development of land reform farms.

Several of the farmers' verbatim statements are presented hereunder.

*“Partnership with commodity organisations is currently not working well, it can work well if it is influenced by what farmers need and farmers should also be firm on what their needs are based on what works in their farms”.*

*“Commodity organisations are unfairly influencing decisions in their favour and disregarding the interest of the farmers”.*

*“Commodity organisations limit farmers to their commodity speciality because just for compliance whilst these farms are mixed farms doing various commodities. Moreover, they delay procurement of goods and services because they don't care if farms are developed or not”.*

*“Farmers are just spectators in their farms and instructed just to sign on documents for payments.”*

Several commodity organisations' representatives' verbatim statements are presented hereunder.

*“In this case, farmers have already been allocated land reform farms and there is no question about it, therefore commodity organisation are supposed to work with them irrespective of farmers' shortcomings, but if I was to have a view it is not advisable to support part-time farmers or uncooperative farmers who are not always available in the farm to be mentored or mentoring takes place outside the farm”.*

*“Commodity organisation have to find a way to work with farmers selected by government, there is very little we can do about it.”*

*“Maybe the roles of partners need further clarity.”*

### 5.3.3 The role of partnerships in developing land reform farms

In exploring the significance of partnership arrangements in the development of land reform farms, the findings revealed that 90% of the surveyed farmers concurred that partnerships did not furnish them with technical support in the form of mentorship and extension services, while 10% held a different view. Additionally, 64% expressed a desire for partnerships to encompass utility interventions with various stakeholders, including water, electricity, and security, which are currently not provided, with 36% in disagreement.

Regarding the role of commodity organisations in these partnerships, 75% of the surveyed representatives contended that their primary function was to establish sector linkages, while 25% acknowledged their responsibility in providing skills development opportunities to farmers. Bunce (2018) and Hall *et al.* (2015) highlighted government entities and international organisations' advocacy for inclusive business models. However, debates persist concerning the appropriateness of these models for agricultural development. Nonetheless, the surveyed commodity organisations' representatives unanimously agreed that they should perform a pivotal role in supporting farmers in developing their farms. These insights underscore the diverse perspectives and roles within partnership arrangements in the context of agricultural development.

Several extracts from the surveyed farmers' opinions concerning mentorship by commodity organisations are presented hereunder.

*"Mentors should also have skills to transfer them to farmers.*

*"Mentors should have no interest to compete with the farmers and this will remove jealousy when farmers progress which mentors make through their negative comments".*

*"This support of farmers should also be integrated with local extension officers' support so that they can support farmers with other mechanisation required, especially for harvesting and transport to markets."*

*"Mentors should have the best interest of farmers at heart."*

*“The current partners are just okay but need other department such as water affairs, because water is key in the success of farming as well as department of police’s stock theft unit.”*

Several of the commodity organisation representatives’ responses concerning mentoring farmers are presented hereunder.

*“The role of commodity organisations is key in ensuring that land reform is a success. In ensuring that they are commercial farmers they shall be mentorship, commodity-based mentorship, capacity building of those farmers, and specialised training.”*

*“Farmers targeted falls within the developmental objective of the country, it something that makes sense, which is to help in developing developmental farmers, link them to opportunities within the sector.”*

*“Commodity organisation also assist in ensuring that black farmers interact with commercial farmers and learn from them, as there is a lot that developing farmers can get from commercial farmers and gain experience as well.”*

*“As commodity organisation our vision is to develop a viable economy in the black sector. Our role is to lobby, facilitate, and advocate for development of farmers by various partners.”*

*“Therefore, our role is not to develop farmer by farmer but to do advocacy for development of farmers. We serve to advise in how government can develop farmers as experts in the field. We serve as eyes of government. We create development platform.”*

#### **5.3.4 Hindrances in accessing requisite support from the government**

In exploring service delivery issues that impede farmers from accessing support, a substantial majority (75%) of the surveyed farmers highlighted the lack of empathy, signifying the absence of responsiveness from both commodity organisations and the government, as the principal hindrance in accessing support services. In contrast, 25% disagreed with this perspective. Additionally, while 50% highlighted that the

government has embraced a bureaucratic operational system, characterised by protracted processes and numerous dependencies, resulting in a time-consuming and challenging path to accessing resources for farm development, the other 50% perceived the systems to be effective. These insights underscore the barriers and challenges inherent in accessing support services.

Several extracts from the surveyed farmers' responses are presented hereunder.

*"Most of these delays are as a result of lack of clarity of roles and lack of acceptance from department officials to implement the programme."*

*"Protocols adopted to avail funds, such as farmers opening accounts by themselves, create delays."*

*"It takes time for commodity organisation to approve quotations whilst in farms we work with time, and if time pass without even saying anything it's really demoralising, and it means farmer can't plant that year. He lost the whole year and doesn't look like those who take decisions appreciate this situation."*

*"Moreover, commodity organisations are not responsive to farmer's needs, as they take time to sign on documents to approve funding for items."*

### **5.3.5 Factors influencing land reform farms' development**

A significant majority of the farmers (93%) expressed that several influential factors in their farm development had not been comprehensively considered in the provision of support. These factors encompassed the size of the farm, the availability of support services, land ownership, the farm's inherent capabilities, and the adequacy of monitoring mechanisms for farm development. In contrast, a minority of 7% disagreed with this perspective.

Furthermore, 92% of the surveyed farmers asserted that they possessed ample land for production, although 8% held a contrary view. Regarding the provision of support services, 95% contended that these services were not rendered in a timely and suitable manner, while 5% held a differing opinion. Regarding tenure arrangements, 90% expressed dissatisfaction with the current leasehold arrangements, while the

remaining 10% expressed satisfaction. Moreover, 88% believed that their farms were well-suited for mixed farming, although 12% disagreed. In terms of monitoring farm development, 80% conveyed dissatisfaction with the current lack of monitoring mechanisms, while 20% expressed satisfaction.

Kirsten and Van Zyl (1998) and Van Rooyen et al. (1995) discuss a gamut of constraints faced by smallholder farmers, encompassing challenges related to production inputs, mechanisation, capital, marketing support, extension services, demonstration and research, training, education, and policy formulation. The majority of commodity organisations (75%) cited inflexibility in accessing funds as the predominant factor influencing current farm development, while the remaining 25% did not encounter challenges in accessing funds for development. These findings underscore the multifaceted challenges and discrepancies that characterise the landscape of farm development and support.

Several of the aggrieved farmers' concerns regarding the incomprehensive support package are presented hereunder.

*"Farmers should have enough land for expansion; therefore, land shouldn't be restrictive to what the farmer can do at that time but should allow for growth."*

*"Advisory services and financial support are not availed to farmers at correct time."*

*"Title deed of farms should be allocated to farmers using a criterion which government should determine for farmers who are doing well in farming."*

*"Look, delays in developing farmers by commodity organisations should be avoided, perhaps government should have proper monitoring of performance of commodity organisations".*

*"Size of land, which allows growth of the farmer".*

*“Tenure arrangement in the form of long-term leasehold is still not sufficient to attract loans, therefore, a title deed of land should be transferred to farmers.”*

*“Farmers should not be segregated into crop or livestock farmers, as most farms are mixed farms.”*

Several commodity organisation representatives’ responses concerning an incomprehensive support package are presented hereunder.

*“Currently, the processes to access funds are long and makes commercialisation difficult.”*

*“Farmers need to be given flexibility of accessing funds and not based on approvals from government, which takes long”.*

*“There should be flexibility, and flexibility mean when farmer need to buy seed, he should access money at the correct time, which also makes that farmer to buy quality seed, otherwise delays result in farmers buying any seed available in the market or second grade.”*

*“Bureaucratic processes in procurement of goods”.*

*“Let commodity organisation extend the relationship with other partners in the industry but now it’s not possible because I have no control to the money, I cannot enter into a contract with anybody.”*

*“So, you squeezed us out without access to funding”.*

*“Mentorship and incubation programme should be developed as stand-alone programmes for farmer development and not as just one activity within a particular programme.”*

### **5.3.6 Traits for effective farm development**

Baron (2000) posits that successful entrepreneurs possess distinctive psychological characteristics differentiating them not only from the general populace but also from unsuccessful entrepreneurs. In the context of assessing selected farmers’ suitability

for the support programme, 82% of the surveyed farmers emphasised their deservingness of funding due to their unwavering perseverance in farming, while the remaining 18% attributed their eligibility to their inherent capabilities for undertaking commercial farming.

The participants identified a spectrum of traits that should be considered for the future selection of farmers aiming for commercial-scale production. These traits include an unequivocal commitment to farming, unanimously regarded as paramount (100%), farming skills (endorsed by 82% of the respondents), and education (deemed important by 18% of the participants). Furthermore, experience in agriculture was considered vital by 62%, with the remaining 38% suggesting that experience in any type of business should also be a pertinent consideration.

However, the commodity organisation representatives assigned significance to traits such as farmers' attitudes, commitment, creativity, and educational level (75%), while 25% included factors such as passion and age as relevant criteria for the selection of farmers for farm support. It is noteworthy that aside from personality traits, various individual differences influence entrepreneurs' success. These encompass cognitive or mental abilities, knowledge acquired through education and experience, and specific skills (Fine, *et al.*, 2012; Hartog, *et al.*, 2010), all of which have implications for entrepreneurial ventures' effectiveness.

Several extracts from the farmers' statements concerning factors to be considered in selecting farmers for commercial farming are presented hereunder.

*"Farmers who have prior exposure to farming or farmers who are already in farming at various scales who could progress further in farming but hampered by lack of funding."*

*"Farmers who are already in farming and utilising their own funds, which shows commitment."*

*"As farmers, we were already farming using our own efforts, in most instances without government financial support and technical support from extension officers, which was not consistent."*

*“Knowledge of the farmer about farming should also be considered.”*

*“Farmers who are commitment to farming even if they lack some skills, as skills can be acquired.”*

*“It’s also important to do a lifestyle audit of farmers and check how an individual behaves when he/she get money, whether he/she uses that money for business development or for just entertainment or any other thing that doesn’t promote business”.*

*“If its livestock farmers, it should be farmers who are not farming with mixed commercial breed but those that are farming with a specific stud or commercial breed.”*

Several extracts from statements made by commodity organisation representatives concerning criteria for selecting farmers for commercial farming are presented hereunder.

*“This is a very interesting question that one has to be careful in answering it. The general challenge we have is that some of the supported beneficiaries were farm workers and already being a farm worker there is lack of education, it means you have to train and capacitate this person. In other words, education is key issue to consider”.*

*“Attitude, if you have a right attitude but not educated then you can be taught or trained.”*

*“Knowledge of farming because to become an owner of farm is different kettle of fish.”*

*“Passion for farming, which means committed to farming at all cost, therefore, spending 100% of your time in the farm.”*

*“Farmers with passion increase or expand farm by themselves”.*

*“Age is also an important factor”.*

*“Select mostly individual farmers”.*

*“Qualification or skills in agricultural business should be a priority.”*

### **5.3.7 Consultation with stakeholders for policy development concerning farm development**

The study revealed that farmers were not engaged when the government formulated policies designed to facilitate their farms' development. A significant majority (82%) of the surveyed farmers expressed a preference for consultation through farm visits, while the remaining 18% favoured a combination of farm visits and meetings. Matiwane and Terblanche (2012) also noted that, in many cases during the conceptualisation phase, farmers' requirements are often overlooked, despite their pivotal role in ensuring their farms' long-term sustainability.

Several of the surveyed farmers' responses concerning policy formulation are presented hereunder.

*“It is very important to involve farmers in developing documents as they have practical experience and knowledge on how things should be done.”*

*“Processes that government developed for procurement of goods are not all possible in the industry or aligned to industry norms.”*

*“As much as government makes decisions which are mainly meant to avoid financial risk, let those decisions be consulted with farmers, and let decisions not be one size fits all but be based on localities' practices.”*

*“Government should also consider entering into memorandum of understanding with agribusinesses like government smallholder voucher system wherein farmers get vouchers and receive supply from agribusinesses.”*

*“This lack of consultation results in a lot of deviations from the initial signed plan.”*

*“It is very important that farmers should be allowed to lead their own development.”*

### 5.3.8 Strength of support mechanisms offered by the government on land reform farms

The study aimed to ascertain the primary strength associated with the government's support mechanisms. A significant majority of farmers (98%) identified grant funding and the robustness of financial accountability systems as the principal strengths within these support packages. In contrast, a minor proportion (2%) emphasised grant funding alone as the primary strength. Additionally, all commodity organisation representatives (100%) highlighted grant funding as the predominant strength, mentioning its pivotal role in cultivating financially viable farmers. These insights underscore the critical role of grant funding and sound financial accountability measures in bolstering the government's support mechanisms.

Several extracts from the farmers' responses are presented hereunder.

*"Availability of grant funding and financial management systems through involvement of financial institutions or systems is good".*

*"Availability of grant funding for farmers and funding based on commodity thresholds or what is achievable for commercial farming."*

*"Grant assist farmers to become bankable in a long term."*

*"Farmer will have financial statements which will make them credit worthy for future access to credit."*

Several of the commodity organisation representatives' responses are presented hereunder.

*"Assisting the farmers in funding for goods which otherwise farmers couldn't afford."*

*"Financial support to farmers, which gives them a head start in the industry, and commodity organisations to support them. But inefficiency of utilising this strength is questionable."*

*"The willingness and commitment to support development of farmers on leased farms."*

*"The strength is accountability of allocated funds."*

### 5.3.9 Efforts considered in mitigation against climate change for smallholder farmers

The study also assessed participants' awareness of the implications of climate change for agricultural production as part of entrepreneurial traits. It is noteworthy that South Africa has experienced a warming trend over the past four decades, with average minimum monthly temperatures reaching 13.8 degrees Celsius and average maximum monthly temperatures of 26 degrees Celsius, as reported by the World Bank (2010). Climate change exerts direct effects on agricultural production due to the inherent sensitivity of agricultural commodities, rendering agriculture one of the most susceptible sectors to the risks and impacts of global climate change (Parry *et al.*, 1999).

The study's findings revealed that a significant proportion (90%) of the surveyed farmers possessed knowledge about climate change, while the remaining 10% lacked such awareness. Interestingly, 28% acknowledged the existence of minimal strategies and efforts aimed at mitigating the effects of climate change, while the majority, comprising 72%, had not implemented strategies in this regard. In contrast, among commodity organisations, 50% reported advising farmers to consider insurance to mitigate production-related risks associated with climate change, while the other 50% had yet to engage in such discussions with farmers. These findings underline the varying degrees of awareness and preparedness among participants concerning the complex challenges posed by climate change in the realm of agricultural production.

Several of the farmers' responses are presented hereunder.

*"Few of us as farmers do anything about climate change, hence we suffer too much when it's extremely hot or have too much rains."*

*"Funding doesn't even cover anything to guard against climate change."*

*"We know of it but nothing much is done by us as farmers."*

*"I am not sure if government can also support us with this climate change things."*

Several of the direct quotations from commodity organisation representatives are presented hereunder.

*“Government should intervene in having a crop insurance policy which subsidises farmers during disaster times.”*

*“We look at short grower cultivar, which in most cases are limited and those with big financial muscles buy them early.”*

*“At a farm level, climate variability can be mitigated by farmers having a multiperil insurance which covers for all disaster eventualities. However, this is unaffordable to most farmers.”*

*“Conduct training on risk factors, especially climate.”*

### **5.3.10 Crucial factors that provide surety for partnership and project execution**

The study delved into essential factors for establishing assurance among partners within the current partnership structure. A substantial portion of the farmers (62%) advocated for a partnership duration spanning 2-3 years, while the remaining 38% contended that the term should be specifically tailored to the respective commodity. Conversely, commodity organisations’ representatives expressed a preference for a more protracted relationship, with 75% of them favouring partnership durations of 5-10 years.

Regarding financial considerations, 75% of commodity organisations indicated a preference for receiving reimbursement amounting to 10% of the business plan’s value, while the remaining 25% favoured a higher reimbursement of 15% to sustain their project administration. Among the farmers, 92% emphasised that any form of reimbursement should ensure a commensurate value-for-money return, while a smaller fraction, constituting 8%, preferred the government to determine the most suitable remuneration system. These deliberations underscore the multifaceted nature of partnership dynamics and the varying perspectives held by key stakeholders within this framework.

Several of the farmers' responses are presented hereunder.

*"The length of the partnership should depend on the commodity supported, because five years is not practical on the ground, as commodity organisations are only available for one year citing lack of funds to continue supporting farmers."*

*"On average two years is practical for grains and livestock farmers, which farmers could have learned enough to conduct the whole production cycle and continue on their own."*

*"The partnership should depend on the commodity supported."*

*"Current five years in livestock farming is too much but should be restricted to at least three years. However, the principle should be that the length of the partnership should depend on the commodity supported."*

Several of the commodity organisation representatives' responses are presented hereunder.

*"We know challenges in agriculture. You can't achieve a success within five years."*

*"It is only after ten years which could have catered for all bad season."*

*"The partnership should not be less than five years, especially in deciduous fruits industry where orchards take about four years to bloom."*

*"Financially, the current reimbursement is not viable and put burden at commodity organisations who then uses various alternatives to sustain its support to farmers."*

*"Current reimbursement of 2% of BP cost percentage is not sufficient."*

*"There is an element of abuse of commodity organisation by government by paying peanuts".*

#### **5.4 SUMMARY**

The study's findings were substantiated by direct quotations sourced from both farmers and commodity organisations, offering valuable perspectives on the support mechanisms employed in farm development. These results shed light on the nature of the farms, their level of productivity, and the assistance provided to farmers in their pursuit of commercial agriculture. Contrary to the majority of productive land development farms being in the category of 501-1500 Ha, most farms utilised less than 500 Ha of land. Furthermore, the findings validate the type of partnerships established and the way they are executed between farmers and commodity organisations. The nature of these partnerships underscores an intricate relationship that bears direct consequences for the sustainability of the developed farms. Factors such as the selection criteria for farmers and other prerequisites for ensuring the successful commercialisation of these farms were also discussed. The subsequent chapter offers an in-depth and comprehensive discussion of these findings, providing a nuanced exploration of the insights gathered from the study.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses the results generated from data gathered from the farmers and commodity organisations' representatives who participated, as presented in the previous chapter of this study. The quantitative and qualitative data collected through surveys and group discussions depict the demographic, descriptive, inferential, and nonnumerical findings. This section explains the systematic and logical integration of quantitative data, establishing the correlation between the agricultural support program's effectiveness, the potential role of commodity organizations, and farmers' aspirations. Concurrently, the interpretation of findings introduces a model aimed at fortifying support for farms. Additionally, this chapter furnishes conclusions and implications drawn from the study, along with a concise summary. The presented discussion underscores the synergy between quantitative and qualitative data, offering a comprehensive understanding of the relationships at play. The proposed model encapsulates insights for enhancing support to farms, contributing to the broader discourse on optimising agricultural initiatives for sustainable development.

#### **6.2 DISCUSSION**

The discussion presented in this chapter provides insight into the combined results obtained from both qualitative and quantitative findings as a form of triangulation. This triangulation from quantitative and qualitative data sources sought to validate the data and ensure confidence in the study. The interpretation of the findings also resulted in a proposed model to strengthen the support provided to land reform farmers. Among other things, the discussion concludes the study by presenting the integrated support model and the implications emanating from the study.

##### **6.2.1 Access to land and tenure security**

Access to land is important for farmers engaged in agricultural development. Historical discriminatory laws in South Africa have deprived most of its citizens, particularly smallholder farmers, of such access. Scholars such as Kahn (2007) and Levin and Weiner (2003) report that by the advent of democracy, 82 million hectares of land was

held under the control of just 60,000 white landholders. Earlier chapters in this study elaborated on the government's efforts to rectify this situation through various reforms, aiming to ensure equitable land access for all citizens. The quantitative findings confirmed that all farmers supported under LDS have gained access to land through land reform initiatives, although primarily in the form of leasehold arrangements with the government, a form they perceive as insecure. Farmers contend that this insecure tenure structure hampers their ability to secure loans, establish long-term infrastructure, and enjoy social freedoms. The participants' responses underscore the challenges posed by this perceived insecurity.

*"Title deed is required for land, as financial institutions require security for disbursing loans."*

*"Farmers are unable to develop long-term infrastructure, as it doesn't guarantee that themselves and family will still be allowed to be in the farm."*

*"Impractical government approval processes for leases."*

*"Ahh, leases are insecure tenure arrangement."*

*"Title deed is good enough to allow for security of tenure and investment for farmers."*

*"Leases are not enough for landing farmers credit from financial institutions."*

The abovementioned extracts underscore farmers' need for a secure land tenure system in the form of a title deed. Such tenure provides them with the confidence that their occupation of agricultural lands will persist and enables their access to essential credit from financial institutions, a critical factor in maintaining agricultural production. Moyo (2016) corroborates this discussion that the colonial past of many countries in Sub-Saharan Africa seems to shape the notion of having land as a source of sovereignty rather than as a productive resource and as a result, most land tenure systems in African countries are absent or weak creating production sustainability challenges.

Consequently, it is warranted for the government to investigate the possibility of extending title deeds to farmers who currently operate under leasehold arrangements. This decision should be approached with care to ensure that the primary goal of allocating land to farmers for agricultural development remains intact. Hence, the government must engage in in-depth research to delineate the modalities for transferring land to farmers in a manner that guarantees uninterrupted agricultural use. The provided evidence underscores farmers' critical requirement for a secure land tenure system, preferably in the form of title deeds. Such tenure is pivotal for ensuring the continuity of their agricultural land occupation and securing essential credit from financial institutions, both of which are fundamental for sustaining agricultural production.

### **6.2.2 Funding and agricultural development**

Agricultural development is influenced by the availability of funding. Funding extends across various dimensions, including infrastructure development, production support, and the provision of machinery. In this study, land reform farms were funded for commercialisation. The results reveal that farmers received land development support government grants as their primary source of funding. The majority (69%) received between R6,000.000 and R10,000.000 once-off, a significant amount which can serve as a link to attract other forms of funding. These grants are designed to achieve specific goals. Their primary purpose is to promote black farmers and smallholders as prospective commercial farmers while simultaneously empowering them to ensure the future sustainability of their agribusiness ventures. The utilisation of the granted land predominantly revolves around commercial-scale livestock and crop production. Notably, 66% of the allocated land falls within the substantial range of 501 to more than 3000 hectares, strongly underscoring the alignment with commercial-scale production, where land size plays a crucial role. Moreover, the group discussions revealed that most of the farms are suited to mixed farming, wherein more than one commodity can be implemented. However, the study also found a significant challenge pertaining to funding. While funding was allocated for various essential purposes, including infrastructure development, mentorship, machinery acquisition, and the provision of production inputs, a substantial 59% of the respondents reported that the funding provided fell short of adequately covering their operational needs. This funding inadequacy can be attributed to certain operational mechanisms.

One notable factor contributing to this funding shortfall is the bureaucracy associated with the disbursement of funds. The surveyed farmers mentioned being required to open bank accounts, which leads to unnecessary delays between funding application and disbursement – an average of 24 months. These delays bear substantial consequences, resulting in price escalations for business plan items originally priced several months before fund approval. Inflated costs become a burden for farmers, as they cannot be fully covered by the belated funds. Despite these challenges, interactions with the study participants revealed several positive developments. Farmers have begun selling livestock and are witnessing improved crop yields. Their income from farming is on an upward trajectory, a pivotal factor for ensuring their commercial farming ventures' sustainability. These incremental improvements, although modest, signify that the benefits of commercialisation are beginning to materialise.

The study emphasises the significance of grants in empowering previously disadvantaged farmers to transition into self-sustaining commercial agricultural operators. The findings underscore the pressing need to streamline funding mechanisms, reduce bureaucratic delays, and ensure that grants align more closely with farmers' financial requirements. Addressing these issues is pivotal in enhancing the agricultural sector's contributions to economic development and food security. The World Bank (2002) highlights the necessity to optimise funding channels for smallholder farmers, ensuring their sustainable development and mitigating risks associated with resorting to informal, high-cost borrowing, thereby averting potential debt spirals.

### **6.2.3 Farmers' entrepreneurship in agriculture**

Within the context of land reform, farmers find themselves operating within a commercial farming framework requiring specific behaviours and actions for them to be considered entrepreneurs. Commercialisation, in this context, plays a pivotal role in driving agricultural development and fostering economic growth (Gray, 2002; Barrett *et al.*, 2012). This perspective underscores the significance of endowing land, as an economic asset, to individuals who exhibit the requisite traits for efficient utilisation, intending to promote commercial farming.

Entrepreneurial traits essential for farmers to succeed in the realm of commercial farming encompass innovation, risk-taking, self-belief, and motivation. The findings indicate that despite most surveyed farmers having spent nearly two decades on their farms, only 58% have actively sought funding for farm development. This behaviour contradicts their expressed desire to access land for commercial farming and their commitment to pursue commercial farming, as revealed in the survey.

During the group discussions, farmers reiterated their perspective, emphasising that they were already engaged in farming, often without financial support from the government and technical guidance from extension officers. This viewpoint was intended to reinforce their commitment to commercial farming. Nevertheless, there is a gap between their aspirations and their actions.

These differing views highlight the need to instil an entrepreneurial culture among these farmers. Entrepreneurs typically do not wait for external assistance to realise their dreams; they are self-reliant, innovative, and unafraid of taking calculated risks. Most farmers expressed that they had no intention to expand their farming operations beyond government support. This underscores their heavy reliance on government assistance and raises concerns about the long-term sustainability of these ventures.

Considering the insights gleaned from the study's participants, it is apparent that many of them may lack the requisite entrepreneurial acumen to thrive in commercial farming without government support. Furthermore, discussions with commodity organisations' representatives revealed the importance of selecting farmers with the right attitude, qualifications, farming knowledge, and passion for farming. These attributes are considered vital for fostering an entrepreneurial culture among land reform farmers.

It is essential to note that these farmers have received government support for approximately five years on their journey toward commercialisation. Consequently, their commercial ventures may not achieve immediate success, but as suggested by researchers (Van Vuuren and Van Tonder, 2008; Kahan, 2012), they could undergo evaluation through the five stages of business development, which include establishment, survival, early growth, rapid growth, and maturity. These stages reflect the gradual progression and evolution of commercial endeavours. This section emphasises the need to bridge the gap between farmers' expressed intentions to

engage in commercial farming and their behaviours. The cultivation of an entrepreneurial culture, characterised by self-reliance, innovation, and a willingness to take calculated risks, is imperative. Furthermore, it is essential to identify and support farmers who demonstrate the desired attributes and passion for farming to ensure the long-term sustainability of their commercial ventures. The phased approach to evaluating their progress, as suggested by existing research, provides a framework for assessing the maturity and success of these agricultural businesses over time.

#### **6.2.4 Partnership arrangements for farm development**

The partnership between commodity organisations and land reform farmers is examined as a mechanism for grooming farmers with the expertise required for sustainable commercial farming. Kane-Berman (2016) indicated that after 1994, partnership arrangements between the commercial and emerging sectors continued through commodity organisations, agricultural cooperatives, training associations, non-profit organisations, and large companies. However, there is a growing concern, as highlighted by Hall *et al.* (2015), within the emerging agricultural sector regarding the effectiveness of such partnerships. The research presents a dichotomy between the quantitative and qualitative findings implying that the current partnership arrangement might not be optimally effective for farm development.

The study reveals that a low percentage of the surveyed farmers received skills development training, while a similar percentage had access to networking opportunities and exposure to the industry. Although commodity organisations may excel in matters related to agricultural production, they may not possess the necessary expertise in the intricate aspects of commercialisation. This potential lack of expertise leads to the need for thorough due diligence when forming partnerships, ensuring that potential partners possess the capacity and competence required to deliver on the intended plan.

Several factors contribute to the current partnership arrangement's suboptimal performance, one of which is the lack of integration with local agricultural extension offices, which could play a crucial role in reinforcing the support provided. Discussions with commodity organisations' representatives revealed varying views concerning their roles within the partnership. Some emphasise their commitment to ensuring that

land reform farms evolve into commercial enterprises through mentorship and farmer capacity building, while others view their role primarily as advocates who create development platforms rather than actively engaging in farmers' development.

The findings from the commodity organisations and farmers collectively imply that the current partnership structure is unlikely to fully achieve its intended objectives. This raises questions about the effectiveness of the existing arrangement, indicating that a thorough overhaul of the partnership may be necessary.

The partnerships between commodity organisations and land reform farms are integral to promoting sustainable commercial farming. However, the study identified several challenges and areas for improvement in this partnership arrangement. The collected data highlights the need for a more balanced distribution between skills development, networking opportunities, and exposure to the industry among farmers. This can potentially bridge the gap between commodity organisations' expertise in production and farm commercialisation's holistic requirements.

Moreover, integrating the partnership with local agricultural extension offices is highlighted as a crucial step in ensuring that the support provided is consistent and reinforced by the broader agricultural community. The varying perspectives within commodity organisations regarding their roles in the partnership, with several regarding their role as "ensuring commercialisation of farms through mentorship and capacity building of farmers" and others regarding their role as "advocacy for development which means creating development platform and not to literally develop farmers" underlines the need for clarity in defining and aligning these roles to achieve the intended objectives effectively. Given these findings, a re-evaluation and potential restructuring of the partnership arrangement may be necessary to enhance its overall efficacy. This re-evaluation should involve stakeholders in commodity organisations and land reform farms to ensure that the partnership aligns with the objectives of sustainable commercial farming while addressing the concerns raised by the participants in this study.

### **6.2.5 Building capacity among smallholder farmers**

The significance of capacity building among smallholder farmers, particularly those aspiring to transition into commercial farming, cannot be overstated. Building capacity

encompasses a spectrum of skills, including technical, financial, governance, and social networking proficiencies. However, a notable concern raised by numerous farmers is the lack of effective capacity-building initiatives implemented by commodity organisations.

Quantitative data gathered from the farmers revealed that almost half of them had received technical training, with a limited percentage having received management training. This falls significantly short of what is necessary, especially given the complex and skill-demanding nature of successful commercial farming operations. Issues were identified with the appointment of mentors to guide and support farmers, and in cases where mentors were assigned, some lacked the essential skills required for imparting knowledge to the farmers. This mismatch between the expected support and the provision of skills is a point of concern, as highlighted by this study's qualitative findings.

*"Mentors should have skills to transfer to farmers and currently most don't have". (Farmer)*

*"Mentors should have no vested interest to compete with farmers and this will remove their jealousy when farmers progress in farming". (Farmer)*

*"Our mentors develop farmers and link them to opportunities within the sector." (Commodity organisation representative)*

*"Mentorship should be developed as a stand-alone programme for farmer development and not as an activity within the whole programme." (Commodity organisation representative)*

The critical aspect of ensuring farms' continuing sustainability within the existing framework appears to be in a precarious condition. Farmers are displaying a readiness to acquire a diverse range of skills through mentorship to proficiently shoulder the responsibilities inherent in commercial farming. In contrast, commodity organisations appear to either dismiss the lack of requisite competence among their mentors or advocate for a restructuring of the mentorship programme, aligning it with their terms and preferences. This stark disparity highlights a vital issue that demands attention to bridge the gap between farmers' desire for skill development and the programme's

effectiveness. Consequently, addressing this inappropriateness is essential to facilitate a more harmonious and productive mentorship framework that can support smallholder farmers in their pursuit of sustainable commercial agriculture.

#### **6.2.6 Stakeholders' participation in effective farm development**

The importance of stakeholder engagement in agricultural support programmes is unambiguous, as evidenced in this study. Government-sponsored grant support, in isolation, lacks the necessary supplementary mechanisms required to ensure farming enterprises' sustainability. This underscores the need to involve a diverse array of stakeholders to comprehensively enhance these initiatives. It is a recognition that an overreliance on government intervention in the form of grants alone falls short of fostering long-term agricultural viability.

Various scholars (Greenberg, 2013; Sebola,2018) suggest that, with adequate support, black farmers in South Africa have the potential to succeed and significantly contribute to the success of the agricultural sector and the broader economy. However, such support needs to encompass a wide range of stakeholders involved in commercial farming. The study illustrates that the government has provided funding for farm commercialisation without establishing the necessary linkages between various stakeholders, including credit markets, market and value chain integration, and utility support. Credit markets play a pivotal role in ensuring the consistent provision of financial support to farmers. Market and value chain integration are essential for sales and income enhancement in farming, and utility support ensures security within farming communities and provides critical bulk infrastructure support.

This assertion is grounded in the survey data, which indicates that a significant 93% of current farmers in production express dissatisfaction with their existing market conditions, and they are largely disconnected from integrated value chains. Several farmers who participated in the focus group discussions highlighted the importance of the government collaborating with agribusinesses for the supply of goods as an important support initiative. Commodity organisation representatives emphasised that the government cannot successfully promote farmers' development without involving other relevant stakeholders.

While the government's financial grant support has made a commendable effort, it should be regarded as an initial step towards fostering agricultural commercialisation. Grants alone are insufficient to sustain farming operations; they should be complemented with loan funding to provide a more comprehensive financial framework catering to farmers' diverse needs. It is essential to recognise that the successful implementation of plans necessitates robust monitoring mechanisms. In essence, this section highlights the critical need for a holistic approach to agricultural support programmes. This approach should involve not only government grants but also robust partnerships with diverse stakeholders. Government funding must be aligned with other support mechanisms such as credit markets, market integration, and utility support to create a more resilient and sustainable farming ecosystem. These findings emphasise various elements' interdependence in the agricultural value chain and the importance of coordinated efforts among multiple stakeholders.

Therefore, the researcher underlines the paramount importance of stakeholder collaboration in agricultural support programmes, particularly in the South African context. The inclusion of a broad spectrum of stakeholders, such as credit markets, value chain integrators, and utility support providers, is crucial for ensuring the long-term viability and success of farming enterprises. Grants, while valuable, should be part of a larger strategy that incorporates various forms of financial support and ongoing monitoring to drive the agricultural sector's growth and sustainability.

### **6.2.7 Farmers' adaptation to climate change and efficient energy sources**

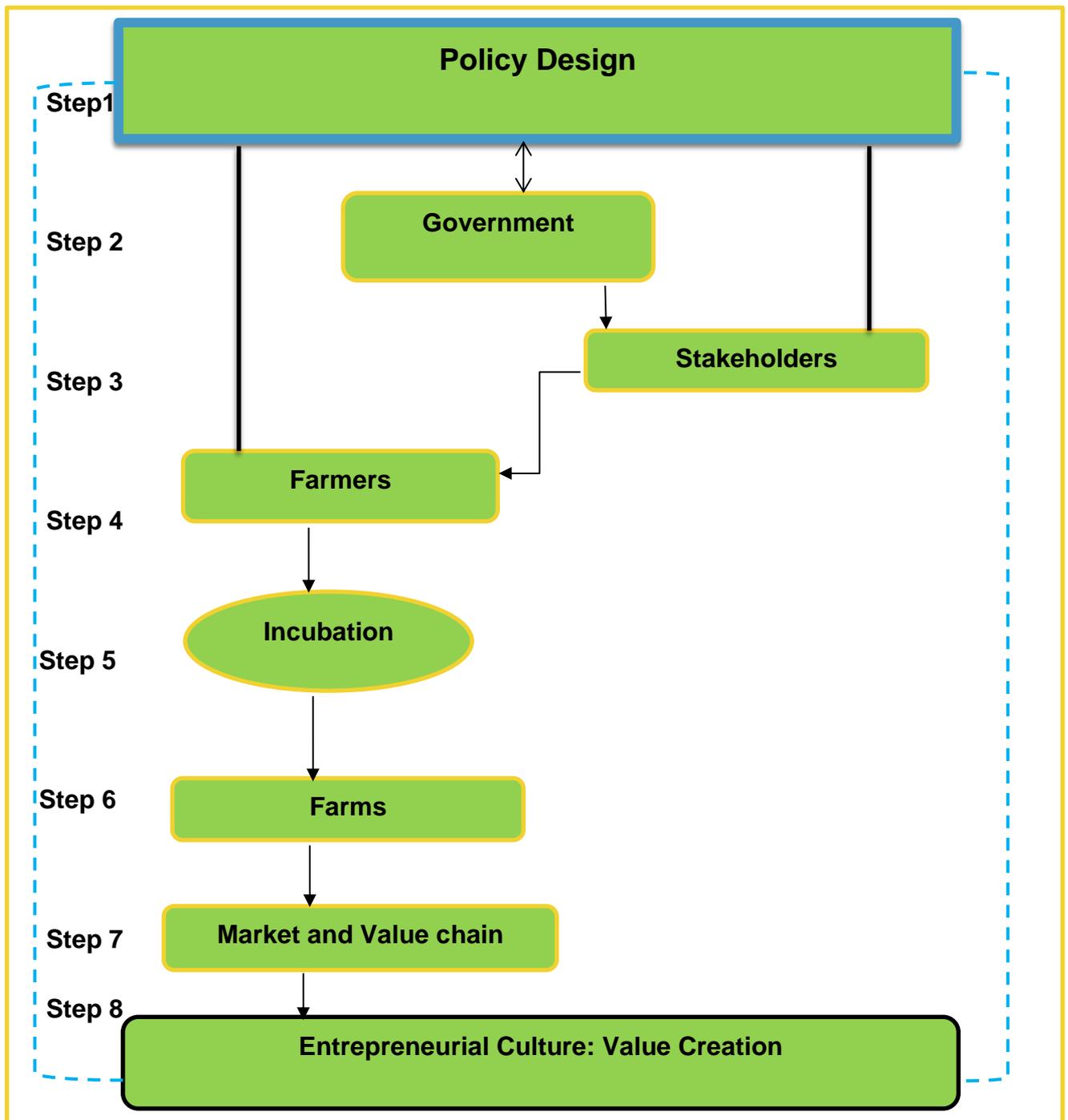
Numerous external factors exert significant influence on farmers worldwide, with climate change a prominent concern. Specific to South Africa, additional factors such as an erratic energy supply exacerbate the challenges. According to the World Bank (2020) report, South Africa has witnessed a sustained warming trend over the past four decades, underlining the pressing issue of climate change. Alarming findings from surveys reveal that most farmers, despite aspiring to become commercial operators, lack formal strategies for mitigating the impacts of climate change on their production. This is further corroborated by discussions within farmer groups, where it was affirmed that most farmers are inactive in addressing climate change-related issues, leading to adverse consequences when faced with extreme weather conditions, be it excessive heat or heavy rainfall.

Furthermore, a significant proportion of the surveyed farmers rely on electricity as their primary energy source for various farming operations, with no alternatives in place. Compounding this concern is South Africa's ongoing challenge of an unreliable electricity supply, which hampers both social and commercial activities.

The collective absence of alternative energy sources and climate mitigation strategies threatens the progress and sustainability of farmers venturing into commercial agriculture. Consequently, it becomes imperative to recognise the critical importance of integrating energy supply diversification and climate variability mitigation into the core success factors aimed at supporting and fostering agricultural growth. These scientific observations underscore the urgency of addressing these external factors to ensure the agricultural sector's resilience and long-term prosperity in South Africa and similar agricultural contexts globally.

### **6.3 PROPOSED INTEGRATED SUPPORT MODEL FOR LAND REFORM FARMS' DEVELOPMENT**

Figure 6.1: Integrated support model for land reform farms (Source: Author, 2023)



**Figure 6.1: Integrated support model for land reform farms (Source: Author,2023)**

Figure 6.1 above serves as a framework that can be adopted as an integrated approach to developing land reform farmers intending to produce at commercial levels.

The integrated support model functions as an illustrative framework, providing a paradigm to guide land reform farms' development by identifying and defining a set of fundamental concepts. This model not only identifies the diverse array of stakeholders

engaged in the process but also highlights their respective contributions. Additionally, it highlights the essential factors influencing farmers and identifies components with the potential for directly impacting land reform farms' progress.

This model was crafted through the amalgamation of secondary data and the empirical findings acquired during this study. The framework is structured into eight distinct components, including policy design, government support, stakeholder engagement, farmer selection, farmer incubation, farm selection, market integration, and value chain integration. All these components are underpinned by an entrepreneurial culture and a commitment to value creation. The model should be executed in an integrated manner as explained in the ensuing sections.

### **6.3.1 Step 1. Policy design**

Policy design is at the core of formulating support mechanisms for farmers. Sutton (1999) posits that policy development is a rational, balanced, objective, and analytical process geared toward problem-solving, achieved through a deliberative exchange between government entities and various societal actors. This follows the finding that the government's limited engagement with stakeholders in shaping land development support policies results in discontent among numerous farmers and stakeholders.

Matiwane and Terblanche (2021) underscored the significance of consultation in developing agricultural support programmes. Consultation is pivotal in ensuring that such programmes are relevant and practical. The proposed framework advocates for a revision of policy design procedures, with the government taking the lead in this endeavour while actively involving all pertinent stakeholders, including farmers. Such a policy revision can lead to the establishment of attainable objectives that allow for farmers' progressive development, as well as the creation of a service delivery model suitable for practical implementation. Additionally, a problem aimed at resolving specific challenges within the land reform and agricultural development domain should be strengthened.

### **6.3.2 Step 2. Government**

Numerous studies have presented compelling evidence firmly establishing the intricate connections between land policy, economic growth, poverty reduction, and

empowerment (Kahn, 2007; Moeng, 2011). Given the agricultural sector's pivotal role in fostering economic growth, generating employment opportunities, and alleviating poverty within the nation, it is of paramount importance that government-funded land reform programmes actively augment or, at the very least, sustain agricultural production levels (Weidemaan, 2004).

Greenberg (2013) previously reported that the government's involvement in providing support to black farmers, encompassing financial assistance, research and development initiatives, and extension services, remains notably inadequate. However, this study's findings revealed the government's efforts in the form of grant funding for both land acquisition and land development. These efforts are laudable, as they strive to rectify historical imbalances and create economic stability within the agricultural sector. Nevertheless, it is imperative to acknowledge that these efforts fall short of fully empowering land reform farmers as illustrated in this study.

Consequently, the model highlights the necessity for strengthening these initiatives and partnerships, enhancing project and partnership monitoring, strengthening market access and raw material supply, risk mitigations and policy flexibility to accommodate the shocks associated with evolving industry dynamics. Moreover, it is recommended that the government assumes a coordination role among diverse stakeholders to ensure the comprehensive and effective realisation of these objectives.

### **6.3.3 Step 3. Stakeholders**

The pivotal role of stakeholders inclusive of farmers' participation in formulating regulations for farm development and the practical execution of these regulations cannot be overstated. Denoti *et al.* (2016) and Kilelu *et al.* (2017) highlight that stakeholder engagement results in the exchange of knowledge, skills, and resources, culminating in a competitive economic advantage for all parties involved. As illustrated in Chapter 5 of this study, the adopted protocols for land development support were crafted without due consultation with pertinent stakeholders inclusive of farmers, and their implementation necessitated the involvement of various stakeholders. This scenario gave rise to a discrepancy during implementation, where the execution methods were not universally acceptable to all stakeholders.

Nonetheless, this situation remains amenable to rectification by actively engaging all relevant stakeholders in the process of revising the implementation protocols, particularly during the design phase. Such an approach would make the protocols more applicable, ensuring the attainment of the desired objectives, specifically land reform farms' commercialisation. The key stakeholders must be identified, and their roles defined within this revised framework. The principal stakeholders and their prospective involvement are explained in the ensuing list.

- **Financial institutions.** These entities are crucial in the provision of consistent financial support in the form of loans, facilitating the financial aspect of the initiative.
- **Agribusinesses.** Their involvement is pivotal in establishing connections for the provision of goods and services, as well as facilitating market access and integration within the value chain.
- **Government departments.** These departments are responsible for providing grant funding, overseeing the programme, and offering utility support, which encompasses water allocations, crime prevention, and ensuring compliance with statutory legal requirements.
- **Government institutions.** These entities contribute significantly to the initiative by providing research and development support, as well as participating in infrastructure development, encompassing both bulk and production-related infrastructure.

#### **6.3.4 Step 4. Farmers' selection**

An internal investigation conducted by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) and various scholars identified a significant shortcoming in the Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy, namely the inaccurate selection of beneficiaries, which has led to the inclusion of ill-suited individuals who manage their farms inefficiently (DRDLR, 2019; Kepe and Hall, 2017). The insights gained from these studies provide compelling evidence that the process of selecting farmers can be pivotal in determining farm development initiatives' outcomes, whether successful or unsuccessful.

The abovementioned studies' findings revealed that the existing criteria for selecting farmers for land development support are limited and can be significantly enhanced by considering a more comprehensive set of factors. These factors encompass farmers' aspirations, their entrepreneurial attributes, including personality traits and cognitive abilities, as well as their skills, education, and prior experience in the field of agriculture. In addition to personality traits, certain individual variances also influence entrepreneurial success, including cognitive or mental acumen, knowledge acquired through education and experience, and specific domain expertise (Fine *et al.*, 2012; Hartog *et al.*, 2010). Hartog *et al.* (2010) define cognitive ability as the capacity to comprehend intricate concepts, adapt effectively to the environment, learn from experience, engage in diverse forms of reasoning, and surmount challenges through deliberate thought processes. Involving the youth as part of succession planning in agriculture is of paramount importance.

Therefore, the department must collaborate with relevant stakeholders to devise a comprehensive selection matrix incorporating these multifaceted factors. Such a matrix will ensure the accurate and strategic selection of farmers who have the intent and aptitude to engage in commercial-level agricultural production and factor in youth participation.

### **6.3.5 Step 5. Incubation process**

The term "incubation" primarily finds its application within business contexts, describing a distinctive and exceptionally adaptable amalgamation of processes, infrastructure, and human resources crafted to nurture and foster emerging and small businesses' growth. This nurturing encompasses guidance and support through the initial phases of development and adaptation (UKBI, 2012). The significance of capacity development among land reform beneficiaries has been consistently emphasised in previous studies concerning land reform, as reviewed in the present study. One of the prominent issues underscored in these studies pertains to the critical role of capacity building in enabling farmers to operate at a commercial level. This involves elevating their social and business skillsets to meet commercial production demands and sustain their agricultural enterprises.

It is well-documented that land reform farmers, especially startups, are expected to perform within an exceedingly competitive business environment. In this study's context, the concept of incubation should be harnessed as a resource to support these startups, enhancing their prospects for success. The support mechanisms within this incubation framework should provide an avenue for entrepreneurs to undergo a structured incubation period. During this period, they are equipped with the necessary technical, business, and social skills. This capacity-building phase should precede any comprehensive investment consideration for commercial farm production. Dedicated land reform farms should be utilised for incubating aspiring farmers aiming for commercial-scale farming. It should also encompass on-farm capacity building for those who have already been allocated farms. The foregoing assertions are supported by research indicating that startups benefiting from an incubator have notably higher odds of survival (Ferguson and Olofsson, 2004).

The model delineates an incubation process characterised by the key elements described hereunder.

- **Government Initiation.** The government should instigate the incubation programme and serve as the primary driver thereof.
- **Collaborative Programme Design.** The execution programme development should be a collaborative effort, involving all pertinent stakeholders within the realm of commercial agricultural production.
- **Government Sponsorship.** The government assumes the principal role as the programme's sponsor, providing the necessary financial and logistical support.
- **Implementation Through Stakeholders.** The programme is implemented through a consortium of relevant stakeholders, including commodity organisations, government agencies, educational and training associations (SETAs), and other entities.
- **Government Oversight.** The government is responsible for the programme's monitoring and supervision of the progress and outcomes.

### **6.3.6 Step 6. Farm selection**

Lahiff (2009) emphasises that South African land reform's trajectory has been significantly influenced by the specific approach it has adopted for farm planning. This approach predominantly accentuates the land's physical attributes, its historical context, and its inherent agricultural potential. This study's findings corroborate the notion that the type of land, contingent on its inherent capabilities and size, plays a pivotal role in guaranteeing the envisioned developmental initiatives' success.

Given that development support's primary objective is to revitalise production on a commercial scale, this study's outcomes, as presented in Chapter 5, validate the notion that farm selection should hinge upon the land's capacity to yield the requisite agricultural commodities. Furthermore, the size of the land must align with the demands of large-scale agricultural operations. Moreover, it is paramount to align farmers' aspirations and capabilities with the land's inherent capacity. Acquired lands should also be aligned with the essential requisites for food security at the household level and concurrently adhere to national food security imperatives or agribusiness.

### **6.3.7 Step 7. Market and value chain integration**

This study emphasises the persistent challenge smallholder farmers, including those settled on land reform farms, encounter concerning access to both favourable markets and integration into value chains. In many instances, the development support programme's design phase has traditionally overlooked the creation of both favourable market access and value chain integration. Rather than focusing on integrated value chains, the predominant approach has been channelling funds into farm development, leaving farmers susceptible to selling their produce at any available market, irrespective of pricing considerations. It was commonly believed that financial resources were the ultimate solution to unlocking these farms' full potential. However, this perspective has proven inadequate, as land reform farms have continued to grapple with both favourable market access and integration into value chains, irrespective of the quality and quantity of agricultural produce they generate.

A credible market and value chain integration plan must be integrated into the support model to ensure sustained agricultural production. In this context, the support model proposes the incorporation of the key elements described hereunder.

- **Market Segmentation.** Focusing on specific target markets to align with the agricultural produce being cultivated.
- **Production Aggregation.** Amalgamating similar produce from multiple farms to enhance efficiency and competitiveness.
- **Farm Linkages into Value Chains.** Facilitating the connection of farms with various value chains to augment income opportunities.

Considering the foregoing discussion, the researcher contends that improved access to markets and integration into value chains will bolster farms' commercialisation and long-term sustainability. This perspective is corroborated by the World Bank (2013) and the DPME (2015), both of which assert that market access expands agricultural investments, thereby creating opportunities for agribusiness to become integrated into value chains and foster sustainable agribusiness practices.

#### **6.3.8 Step 8. Entrepreneurial culture and value creation**

This model's ultimate resilience relies on cultivating an entrepreneurial ethos among farmers and the concurrent generation of economic value from their farms, positioning these lands as robust economic assets. Central to this concept is the imperative to substantially augment farmers' entrepreneurial traits, as delineated earlier, while prudently harnessing land as a pivotal economic asset.

Essentially, the model's effectiveness hinges on key elements, including policies' strategic design, farmers' proficiency and commitment to production discipline, the astuteness demonstrated in decision-making processes, and the judicious exercise of financial acumen. These factors collectively drive the model's operationalisation, forging a resilient foundation for the economic prosperity of agricultural development on land reform farms.

#### **6.4 SUMMARY**

This chapter interpreted and discussed the study's findings. Participants acknowledged their desire to access land for commercial production but expressed grievances concerning the precarious nature of their land tenure security, which has a direct and adverse impact on the sustainable utilisation of these lands. Participants

further recognised that although the government allocated grant funding to promote commercial farming, the funding processes are inefficient.

The discussions highlighted the entrepreneurial qualities necessary for farmers to thrive in a commercial farming environment. The implementation of the LDS (Land Development Support) programme was noted to occur through partnerships with commodity organisations, and the effectiveness of such partnerships in achieving their objectives was emphasised. Equally important were discussions concerning farmer empowerment through mentorship, active stakeholder engagement, and adaptability to changing agricultural conditions. These were considered critical aspects for sustaining farmers' interests and the effective execution of farming operations.

Additionally, a proposed integrated support model was outlined. This model encompasses all facets of support, beginning with policy design for farm development, involving farmers in the decision-making process, ensuring access to farms, and establishing support mechanisms. These components were thoroughly examined as potential enhancements to the existing LDS support processes.

## **6.5 CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

The study's primary focus was on investigating the relationships among the government support programme, commodity organisations' roles, and farmers' aspirations in the land reform context across South Africa's nine provinces. This research drew extensively upon existing theoretical literature on this subject, and the empirical findings presented in this study are relevant to the broader context of land reform and smallholder farming within the country.

- This study's empirical findings reveal the government support programme's value in providing access to land and financial resources for commercial agricultural production. Farms' development was evident, primarily due to the utilisation of sizable land parcels capable of sustaining commercial farming, supported by available funding.
- However, it is essential to note that further research is warranted to assess the long-term impact of this support, considering potential delays in fund disbursement and other challenges that arise during the implementation process.

- Conversely, the roles played by commodity organisations in supporting farmers in their farm development were relatively modest. Farmers did not derive much value from the partnership.
- The study identified a misalignment between farmers' aspirations and the necessary entrepreneurial attributes, which is a critical factor in ensuring their success in commercial ventures.
- Selecting farmers for commercial farming requires precision and alignment to bridge the gap between individual aspirations and entrepreneurial traits, thus fostering a harmonious relationship between farmers and farms.
- In the context of partnership arrangements, commodity organisations are expected to have a substantial impact, particularly in skills development and facilitating market access. Therefore, conducting due diligence to inform the selection of partners for farm development is of the utmost importance.
- It is widely acknowledged that land reform should revitalise agricultural production. Any initiative aimed at promoting this concept is commendable, but it must be meticulously structured, subjected to periodic evaluations of its impact, and open to ongoing improvements.
- Support for land reform farm development can be impactful when implemented in an integrated manner. The researcher's proposed model (Figure 6.1) can contribute towards guiding integrated support mechanisms.
- Consultation among stakeholders on policy development should serve to shape the farmers' support programme and improve ownership of development by intended farmers.
- It is important to recognise that this study represents only one facet of the government's multifaceted efforts to support farmers. Further research is required to comprehensively explore this field and provide a more holistic understanding of requisite support collaborations utilising a bigger sample of farmers, commodity organisation, Implementers / key government officials and agribusinesses.

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## Appendix A: Ethics Approval letter



### **GENERAL/HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (GHREC)**

14-Nov-2022

Dear Mr Ramakgodu Mphahlele

#### **Application Approved**

Research Project Title:

**EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF GOVERNMENT AND NON-GOVERNMENT SUPPORT PROGRAMS (COMMODITY ORGANISATIONS) ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF LAND REFORM FARMERS IN SOUTH AFRICA**

Ethical Clearance number:

**UFS-HSD2022/1532/22**

We are pleased to inform you that your application for ethical clearance has been approved. Your ethical clearance is valid for twelve (12) months from the date of issue. We request that any changes that may take place during the course of your study/research project be submitted to the ethics office to ensure ethical transparency. Furthermore, you are requested to submit the final report of your study/research project to the ethics office. Should you require more time to complete this research, please apply for an extension. Thank you for submitting your proposal for ethical clearance; we wish you the best of luck and success with your research.

Yours sincerely

**Dr Adri Du Plessis**

**Chairperson: General/Human Research Ethics Committee**

205 Nelson Mandela  
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## Appendix B: Participants Consent letter

### DECLARATION LETTER

#### Dear Participant

I am currently conducting a study on Impact of government and nongovernment support on development of land reform farms in South Africa. I would like you to participate in this study as part of a requirement for completion of my PhD degree with University of Free State (UFS). You have been purposively selected as a farmer benefitting from Land Development Support programme (LDS). The findings of the research will be submitted to UFS and shared with the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development (DALRRD). Participation in this study is voluntary and your assistance is highly appreciated. Confidentiality of participants is guaranteed.

**Title of the study:** Evaluating the impact of government and non-government support programme on the development of land reform farms in South Africa.

#### INTERVIEWER DECLARATION:

I,.....declare that I have asked questionnaires as recorded. I declare that all responses which have been recorded are a true reflection of the respondent.

Signature:.....

#### PARTICIPANT CONSENT:

I,.....,agree to participate in the above mentioned study without any compensation as a participant. I also understand that my responses will be treated with strictest confidentiality.

Signature:.....

---

## Appendix C: Department's Research Approval letter



### agriculture, land reform & rural development

Department:  
Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development  
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

#### OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR-GENERAL

Private Bag X833, Pretoria, 0001; 184 Jeff Masemola Street, Pretoria, 0001  
Tel: 012 - 312 8911; E-mail: [queries@drdlr.gov.za](mailto:queries@drdlr.gov.za); Website: [www.drdlr.gov.za](http://www.drdlr.gov.za)

Reference: 2/14/1/P

Mr RB Mphahlele  
P.O. Box 74026  
**LYNNWOOD RIDGE**  
0040

Dear Mphahlele

### APPROVAL TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, LAND REFORM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Thank you for your application providing details of your research in relation to your thesis.

The Department has no objection to your request to conduct research; however, the following must be adhered to:

- The final copy of your research report must be submitted to the Department prior to your final submission to the Institution of study.
- Files and records may not be removed from the Department's archives.
- Photocopies of official records may not be made for public purposes.
- Names of individuals from official records may not be published.
- Access to the records must be arranged in collaboration with the Head of Office, or in the case of National Office, with the Directorate: Information and Innovation Management Services.
- The Department reserves the right to restrict access to files of a sensitive nature.
- Access to classified information will not be granted if you have not been security cleared.
- Supply annual proof of registration from your University to the Department.

The Department will not be responsible for your travelling and accommodation expenses during this time of conducting the research.



Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development: Departement van Landbou, Grondhervorming en Landelike Ontwikkeling  
Muhasho wa zwa Vhulimi, Mbusedzedzo ya Mavu na Mveledziso ya Mahayani uMnyango Wezolimo, Izinguquko Kwezomhlaba  
Nokuthukiswa Kwezindawo Zasemakhaya Ndzawulo ya Vurimi, Anlwiso wa Misava na Nhluvukiso wa Matikoxikaya Litiko  
Letekulima, Tingucuko Kutemhlaba Nekutfutukiswa Kwetindzawo Tasemaphandleni UmNysingo wezokulima, ukuBuyiselwa kweNarha  
nokuThuthukiswa kweNdawo zemaKhaya-Kgoro ya Temo, Peakanyoleswa ya Naga le Tihabollo ya Dinagamagae Lefapha la Temothuo,  
Kabobotjha ya Naha le Tihabollo ya Dibaka tsa Mahae Lefapha la Temothuo, Pusetsoinaga le Tihabollo ya Metsemagae iSebe  
lezoLimo, uBuyekezo lwemiHlaba noPhuhlisoIamaPhandle

**APPROVAL TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT  
OF AGRICULTURE, LAND REFORM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

You will need to sign the attached indemnity letter before conducting research in the Department.

Your co-operation to meticulously adhere to the afore-mentioned will be highly appreciated.

Kind regards

Name: Mooketsa Ramasodi  
Reason: ADG  
Date: 2020/12/01 10:19:35 CAT  
Location: Pretoria

**MR RM RAMASODI  
ACTING DIRECTOR-GENERAL: AGRICULTURE, LAND REFORM AND  
RURAL DEVELOPMENT  
DATE:**



Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development · Departement van Landbou, Grondhervorming en Landelike Ontwikkeling  
Muhasho wa zwa Vhu- Iimi, Mbuedzedzo ya Mavu na Mveledziso ya Mahayani-uMnyango Wezolimo, Izinguqoko Kwezomhlaba  
Nokuthukiswa Kwezindawo Zasemakhaya-Ndzawulo ya Vurimi, Antswiso wa Misava na Nhluvukiso wa Matikotikaya-Litiko  
Letekulima, Tingucuko Kutemhlaba Nekutfutukiswa Kwetindzawo T asemaphandleni · UmNyango wezokuLimo, ukuBuyiselwa kweNarha  
nokuThuthukiswa kweeNdawo zemaKhaya-Kgoro ya Temo, Peakanyoleswa ya Naga le Tihabollo ya Dinaga- magae · Lefapha la  
Temothuo, Kabobotjha ya Naha le Tihabollo ya Dibaka Isa Mahae · Lefapha la Temothuo, Pusetso dinaga le Tihabollo ya Metsemagae ·  
ISebe lozoLimo, uBuyekezo lwemiHlaba noPhuhlisolamaPhandle

## Appendix D: Questionnaire

evasys	<b>EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF GOVERNMENT AND NON-GOVERNMENT SUPPORT</b>	
University of the Free State	Ramakgodu Mphahlele	
Department for Sustainable Food Systems and	Farmers Questionnaire	

Mark as shown:      Please use a ball-point pen or a thin felt tip. This form will be processed automatically.  
Correction:      Please follow the examples shown on the left hand side to help optimize the reading results.

### 1. GENERAL INFORMATION

1.1 Type of land reform programme

1.2 Type of tenure arrangement

1.3 Number of years signed for leasehold

1.4 Type of farm (crop ,horticulture, livestock, mixed)

1.5 Type of partnership

1.6 Type of registered legal entity

1.7 Total size of land (Ha)

1.8 Year of land acquisition

1.9 Total cost of land at acquisition

### 2. OFFICE USE INFORMATION

2.1 Province

2.2 District

2.3 Date information /data capture

## 2. OFFICE USE INFORMATION [Continue]

2.4 Type of Commodity organization

## 3. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

- 3.1 Gender of farmer  
 Male  Female
- 3.2 Age of farmer  
 18 - 35 years  36 - 50 years  51 - 65 years  
 66 - 80 years
- 3.3 For how long has the legal entity been in operation?  
 1 - 3 years  4 - 6 years  7 - 10 years  
 More than 10 years
- 3.4 For how long have you being member of legal entity?  
 1 - 3 years  4 - 6 years  7 - 10 years  
 More than 10 years
- 3.5 Who initiated the establishment of the legal entity?  
 Government  Farmer  Commodity organisation  
 Other
- 3.6 What is the main activity of the legal entity?  
 Agricultural development  Eco-tourism  Other
- 3.7 How many members are there in the legal entity?  
 1 - 5  6 - 10  11 - 15  
 More than 15
- 3.8 What is the age group of members in the legal entity?  
 18 - 35  36 - 50  51 - 65  
 > 65
- 3.9 Are you aware or informed about the legal requirements of being an owner of legal entity?  
 Yes  No
- 3.10 Is the legal entity affiliated to any farmer organisations?  
 Yes  No
- 3.11 Is the legal entity currently operational?  
 Yes  No
- 3.12 As a member of the legal entity did you receive any training on governance matters?  
 Yes  No

## 4. AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT INFORMATION

- 4.1 What is the total size of productive land?  
 100 - 500  501 - 1500  1501 - 3000  
 >3000
- 4.2 What is the total size of land supported?  
 100 - 500  501 - 1500  1501 - 3000  
 >3000
- 4.3 Is the land suitable for production?  
 Yes  No
- 4.4 Does the farm have a business plan?  
 Yes  No
- 4.5 If yes to question 4.4, who developed the business plan?  
 DALRRD  Commodity organisation  Farmer  
 Commodity organisation and farmer  Other
- 4.6 Type of farm enterprise:  
 Livestock  Grain  Horticulture  
 Deciduous fruit  Poultry  Vegetables  
 Mixed enterprises  Other

#### 4. AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT INFORMATION [Continue]

- 4.7 How many years of production under LDS?  
 1-2  3-4  5-6  
 More than 6
- 4.8 How many Ha of land was utilised before LDS?  
 None  10 - 100  101 - 500  
 501 - 1000  > 1000
- 4.9 How much livestock was available before LDS?  
 None  <100  101 - 200  
 > 200
- 4.10 How much poultry did the farm have per cycle before LDS?  
 None  < 1000  1000 - 10 000  
 10 001 - 100 000  > 100 000
- 4.11 What was the number of cattle purchased through LDS?  
 < 10  10 - 50  51 - 100  
 101 - 250  > 250
- 4.12 What was the number of sheep purchased through LDS?  
 < 10  10 - 50  51 - 100  
 101 - 250  > 250
- 4.13 What was the number of goats purchased through LDS?  
 < 10  10 - 50  51 - 100  
 101 - 250  > 250
- 4.14 What is the number of poultry purchased per cycle through LDS?  
 None  < 1000  1000 - 10 000  
 10 000 - 100 000  > 100 000
- 4.15 How many Ha of grain was developed through LDS?  
 None  10 - 100  101 - 150  
 151 - 300  > 300
- 4.16 How many Ha of deciduous fruit was developed through LDS?  
 None  10 - 100  101 - 150  
 151 - 300  > 300
- 4.17 How many Ha of horticulture was supported through LDS?  
 None  10 - 100  101 - 150  
 151 - 300  > 300
- 4.18 How many Ha were harvested for grain?  
 None  10 - 100  101 - 150  
 151 - 300  > 300
- 4.19 How much tons per ha was harvested for grain?  
 None  1 - 3  4 - 7  
 8 - 10  > 10
- 4.20 How many Ha were harvested for horticulture?  
 None  10 - 100  101 - 150  
 151 - 300  > 300
- 4.21 How much tons per ha was harvested for horticulture?  
 None  1 - 3  4 - 7  
 8 - 10  > 10
- 4.22 How many Ha were harvested for deciduous fruits?  
 None  10 - 100  101 - 150  
 151 - 300  > 300
- 4.23 How much tons per ha was harvested for deciduous fruits?  
 None  1 - 3  4 - 7  
 8 - 10  > 10
- 4.24 What was the number of cattle produced?  
 10 - 50  51 - 100  101 - 250  
 > 250
- 4.25 What was the number of goats produced?  
 10 - 50  51 - 100  101 - 250  
 > 250



## 5. SOURCE FUNDING AND INCOME [Continue]

- 5.12 What was Net Income received from produce?  
 R100 000 - R500 000       R500 001 - R1000 000       R1000 001 - R3000 000  
 R3000 001 - R6000 000       > R6000 000
- 5.13 Is the income received sufficient to support subsequent production?  
 Yes       No
- 5.14 Is the income received sufficient to support your livelihood?  
 Yes       No
- 5.15 How much was the Net income before LDS?  
 None       R100 000 - R500 000       R500 001 - R1000 000  
 R1000 001 - R3000 000       R3000 001 - R6000 000       > R6000 000
- 5.16 If answered "None" to question 5.15, how much income was received over the past 12 months?  
 None       R350 - R2000       R2001 - R10 000  
 R10 000 - R50 000       > R50 000
- 5.17 What is the source of non-farming income?  
 None       Employment       Government grants  
 Business       Other
- 5.18 In order of priority, what are the needs of the farm?  
 Infrastructure, machinery, equipment and production inputs       Production inputs and machinery       Machinery, infrastructure and production inputs  
 Equipment, machinery, production inputs and infrastructure

## 6. EDUCATION AND SKILLS DEVELOPMENT

- 6.1 What type of skills did the farmers have before LDS?  
 None       Technical       Business  
 Other
- 6.2 What is the educational level of the farmers?  
 None       Primary       Secondary  
 Tertiary
- 6.3 What skills were acquired through LDS?  
 None       Technical       Business  
 Other
- 6.4 Who offered technical skills during LDS support?  
 None       Agribusiness       Academic institutions  
 Commodity organisations       Department Extension officers       Other
- 6.5 Number of farming experience in years:  
 < 5       5 - 10       11 - 20  
 21 - 30       > 30
- 6.6 Are the skills acquired useful for farm development?  
 Yes       No
- 6.7 How are skills transferred to farmers?  
 Hands on       In classroom setting       Not transferred to farmers  
 Other
- 6.8 Are farmers offered financial skills?  
 Yes       No
- 6.9 Are financial skills offered by commodity organisations?  
 Yes       No
- 6.10 Do you think financial skills are relevant for your development?  
 Yes       No
- 6.11 Do you attend any short courses relevant to your operations?  
 Yes       No
- 6.12 Are you a member of any farmers study group?  
 Yes       No

## 7. SUPPORT OFFERED BY NON-GOVERNMENT INSTITUTION

- 7.1 Does the farm have an appointed mentor?  
 Yes       No

## 7. SUPPORT OFFERED BY NON-GOVERNMENT INSTITUTION [Continue]

- 7.2 What type of partnership arrangement is utilised in the farm?  
 Mentorship  Joint venture  Equity  
 Commodity arrangement
- 7.3 Who appointed the mentor?  
 No one  Commodity organisation  Farmer  
 Government
- 7.4 Is the mentor accessible to the farmer?  
 Yes  No
- 7.5 Who initiated the partnership?  
 Government  Farmer  Other
- 7.6 How many years is the partnership arrangement?  
 1 - 5  6 - 10
- 7.7 Do you find the partnership effective for farm development?  
 Yes  No
- 7.8 Is the commodity organisation knowledgeable about the commodity produced?  
 Yes  No
- 7.9 What benefits are derived from the partnership?  
 None  Discounts on purchases  Networks  
 Skills  Other
- 7.10 What is the main weakness in this partnership?  
 None  Lack of mutual respect  Lack of understanding of roles and responsibilities  
 Poor quality of service by commodity organisations  Lack of oversight by government  Other
- 7.11 Is the farmer an equal partner in this partnership?  
 Yes  No
- 7.12 Is the farmer aware of his/her role in this partnership?  
 Yes  No
- 7.13 Are you intending to continue with the partnership beyond the LDS?  
 Yes  No
- 7.14 Do you feel valued in this partnership?  
 Yes  No
- 7.15 Are you utilising any advanced technologies to mitigate against climate change?  
 Yes  No

## 8. FARMERS ASPIRATIONS TO CONDUCT AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

- 8.1 Number of years you have been allocated the farm:  
 1 - 5  6 - 10  11 - 20  
 > 21
- 8.2 Why did you previously want to access land from government?  
 To farm commercially  To farm at subsistence level  Leisure  
 Residence  Other
- 8.3 Do you currently have intentions to farm at commercial scale/produce for markets?  
 Yes  No
- 8.4 Were you consulted during the drafting of LDS programme?  
 Yes  No
- 8.5 If you would of liked to be consulted, in what way could they have consulted with you in drafting of LDS programme?  
 Meetings  Farm visit  Through farmer organisation  
 Other
- 8.6 Is the LDS programme suitable to meet your farm needs?  
 Yes  No
- 8.7 Were you consulted during the drafting of the farm business plan?  
 Yes  No
- 8.8 Do you take full ownership of the drafted business plan?  
 Yes  No
- 8.9 Is the current supported enterprise your preferred choice?  
 Yes  No

## 8. FARMERS ASPIRATIONS TO CONDUCT AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT [Continue]

8.10 Were you consulted in choosing the enterprise to be supported?

- Yes  No

8.11 Who chose the supported enterprise?

- Commodity organisation  Farmer  Other

8.12 Did the government consult you to determine your overall farm needs?

- Yes  No

8.13 Are you aware of the risk and uncertainty associated with commercial farming?

- Yes  No

8.14 Are you prepared to take any risk associated with farming at commercial level?

- Yes  No

8.15 How will you react if your production gets affected negatively by diseases, natural and market disasters?

- Leave farming  Source employment  Source for best business opportunities  
 Mitigate disaster and continue farming  Other

8.16 How do you devote your time in farming?

- Part time  Full time

8.17 Do you know of the statutory requirements for being a legal entity owner?

- Yes  No

8.18 Do you have intentions to expand the current farm development on your own?

- Yes  No

8.19 Are the plans for farm expansion documented?

- Yes  No

8.20 Do you know of any funders for agricultural development beside government?

- Yes  No

8.21 Which funders beside government do you know?

- None  Commercial banks  Development banks  
 NGO's  Other

8.22 What type of funding will you most consider for future farm developments/expansions?

- Grants  Loans  Own capital  
 Farm profits  Other

8.23 Have you ever tried to source funding for farm development from other funders before LDS support?

- Yes  No

8.24 What are the challenges in sourcing funding from other funders except government?

- Lack of collateral  Lack of credit worthiness  Lack of skills  
 Lack of markets  Other

8.25 Who is mainly responsible to ensure farm productivity after farm allocation to the farmer?

- Farmer  Government  Both farmer and government

8.26 Do you think you can sustain production beyond the current partnership arrangement?

- Yes  No  Not sure

8.27 Are you aware of how climatic change will affect your operations now and in the future?

- Yes  No

8.28 Do you have any mitigation strategies against climate change?

- Yes  No

**Thank you for your time and participation**

## Appendix E: Interview Schedule (Farmers' Focus Group)

### EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF GOVERNMENT AND NON-GOVERNMENT SUPPORT PROGRAMME ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF LAND REFORM FARMS IN SOUTH AFRICA

#### FOCUS GROUP: LAND REFORM FARMERS

**Number of participants:**

**Commodity produced:**

**Date:**

**Start time:**

**End Time:**

#### **PARTICIPANT CONSENT:**

##### **Dear Participant**

I am currently conducting a study on Impact of government and nongovernment support programme on the development of land reform farms in South Africa. I would like you to participate in this study as part of a requirement for completion of my PhD degree with University of Free State (UFS). You have been purposively selected as a farmer benefitting from Land Development Support programme (LDS). The findings of the research will be submitted to UFS and shared with the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development (DALRRD). Confidentiality of participants is guaranteed. Participation in this study is voluntary and your assistance is highly appreciated.

I,.....,agree to participate in the above mentioned study without any compensation as a participant. I also understand that my responses will be treated with strictest confidentiality.

Signature:.....

**Main Objective:** To propose an integrated support model which promotes the development of land reform farms.

**Question 1:** Which stakeholders are relevant in development of land reform farms?

**Question 2:** What roles should those stakeholders undertake in farmer development?

**Question 3:** what are the main challenges you experienced in accessing support from government?

**Question 4:** Based on your experience how can the challenges experienced in accessing support from government be resolved?

**Question 5:** What makes you think you are that type of farmer who deserved support?

**Question 6:** What type of farmer should be considered for support under LDS?

**Question 7:** What are other support mechanisms that you know which can be integrated into LDS?

**Question 8:** As a farmer how can other support mechanisms be integrated into the support you are receiving from LDS?

**Question 9:** Which factors could influence the successful development of land reform farmers?

**Question 10:** How important is it for land reform farmers to be at the centre or lead decision making which affect their development?

**Question 11:** How do you think the current partnership model with commodity organisation(s) promote you to be developed to become commercial farmers?

**Question 12:** What type of land should be considered for development of land reform farmers who aspire to farm commercially?

**Question 13:** How long should the partnership between commodity organisation and land reform farmers be to ensure your successful development?

**Question 14:** What type of tenure arrangement should land reform farmers have for sustainable farm development?

**Question 15:** How should partnership between various stakeholders and land reform farmers be regulated to ensure transparency and accountability?

**Question 16:** What are the weaknesses in the current partnership arrangements with commodity organisation and the department?

**Question 17:** What is the strength in the current partnership arrangements with commodity organisation and the department?

**Question 18:** How do you think with the current support received under LDS, you have the potential to be successful in commercial production or as agripreneurs?

**Question 19:** How important is the need for succession planning in your operations?

**Question 20:** Is there any cultural norms which are considered for succession planning?

**Question 21:** How can LDS model be re-modelled to effectively support land reform farmers?

**Question 22:** What are the main priorities for your farm development?

**Question 23:** Explain how should government consult you as farmers for needs assessment which should be considered for your development?

**Question 24:** How do think your operation should be mitigated against current climate variability due to climate change?

**Question 25:** Please indicate what could be done to ensure that aspirant commercial farmers operate as a unit or collectively in order to share experiences and knowledge?

## Appendix F: Interview Schedule (Commodity organisation)

### EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF GOVERNMENT AND NON-GOVERNMENT SUPPORT PROGRAMS (COMMODITY ORGANISATIONS) ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF LAND REFORM FARMS IN SOUTH AFRICA

#### INTERVIEW SCHEDULE: COMMODITY ORGANISATION

OFFICE USE INFORMATION	DETAILS
Type of commodity	
Number farms support under LDS	
Date information /Data captured	
Venue	

#### **PARTICIPANT CONSENT:**

##### **Dear Participant**

I am currently conducting a study on Impact of government and nongovernment support on development of land reform farms in South Africa. I would like you to participate in this study as part of a requirement for completion of my PhD degree with University of Free State (UFS). You have been purposively selected as a farmer benefitting from Land Development Support programme (LDS). The findings of the research will be submitted to UFS and shared with the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development (DALRRD). Participation in this study is voluntary and your assistance is highly appreciated. Confidentiality of participants is guaranteed.

I,.....,agree to participate in the above mentioned study without any compensation as a participant. I also understand that my responses will be treated with strictest confidentiality.

Signature:.....

**Main Objective: To determine the potential role that Non-government organisation (commodity organisation) can play in contributing towards the success of land reform farms.**

**Question 1:** What role should commodity organisation play in development of land reform farms if any?

**Question 2:** What is the best way that government should reimburse the role of commodity organisation in developing land reform farms?

**Question 3:** How long should the partnership between commodity organisation and land reform farmers be for successful development of farms?

**Question 4:** What are added advantages/benefits that land reform farmers get from partnership with commodity organisations

**Question 5:** How should partnership with land reform farmers be regulated to ensure transparency and accountability?

**Question 6:** How should project management be conducted for the development of land reform farms?

**Question 7:** What are the weaknesses in the current partnership arrangements with farmers and department?

**Question 8:** What is the strength in the current partnership arrangements with farmers and department?

**Question 9:** Based on your experience which other stakeholders should form part of land reform farms development?

**Question 10:** What roles should other stakeholders partake in farms development?

**Question 11:** Is government department best positioned to lead stakeholders in farms development and why?

**Question 12:** Which stakeholder is best positioned to lead other stakeholders in farms development and why?

**Question 13:** What type / traits of a farmer or Jockey should be identified for agricultural support by government?

**Question 14:** What do you think should be done with the farmers supported under LDS to be successful in commercial production or as agripreneurs?

**Question 15:** How can LDS model be re-modelled to effectively support land reform farms?

**Question 16:** What measures can you recommend for government to continue supporting development of land reform farms?

**Question 17:** Given the recent climate variabilities, how did you support farmers to mitigate against them?

**Question 18:** In what way have you assisted farmers to access markets or be part of value chain integration?

**Question 19:** Please explain the latest technologies which you think should be considered for land reform farms?

**Question 20:** Please explain how you have been advising farmers to sustain their production?

## Appendix G: Proofreading certificate



### *Proofreading Certificate*

It is hereby certified that this thesis has been proofread and edited for spelling, grammar and punctuation by a professional English language editor from [www.OneStopSolution.co.za](http://www.OneStopSolution.co.za)

Client

RAMAKGODU BENJAMIN MPHAHLELE

EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF GOVERNMENT SUPPORT PROGRAMME ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF LAND REFORM FARMS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Editor

Michele van Niekerk

Name

Signature

17 November 2023

Date

I cannot guarantee that the changes that I have suggested have been implemented nor do I take responsibility for any other changes or additions that may have been made subsequently. The track changes of the language editing will be available for inspection upon enquiry, for a period of one year.

Contact

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18 Woltemade str  
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6045

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