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THE STATE OF LAND REFORM IN NAMIBIA

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ABSTRACT

Thirty-one years post-independence, the wealth in Namibia is still unequal and racially segregated as the colonial period left it. Land distribution plays a vital factor in maintaining these racial lines as most land belongs to the minority of the Namibian population, white people. This significantly leaves the majority of the population left out. Land also plays a vital role in agriculture as some people's livelihoods can benefit widely from agriculture.

Since Namibia gained its independence in 1990, the government has been focused on resettling previously disadvantaged Namibians through a land reform programme that has been based on two forms: The National Resettlement Programme, makes provision for the government to buy freehold land to resettle landless Namibians. It follows a "willing seller, willing buyer" rule. Secondly, Secondly, under the Affirmative Action Loan Scheme, of which people who were previously disadvantaged can apply for and receive subsidies from the Agricultural Bank of Namibia to buy land.

These programmes have not been as fast and effective for previously disadvantaged groups of Namibians as they have showed discontent. Through secondary data sources, this study seeks to investigate the extent to which land reform has been successful in Namibia and how it could be improved. Secondly, it seeks to evaluate the land reform policies and legislative laws surrounding it and thirdly, it seeks to evaluate land use for agricultural purposes. The sustainable livelihoods approach will be used as a theoretical framework to unpack land use for agriculture, which many Namibians rely on in order to survive.

Key Words: Apartheid, Inequality, Land Reform, Livelihood, Namibia, Sustainable Livelihoods Approach/Framework, Township

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Firstly, I would like to thank God for everything. I would also like to thank my supervisor, Professor Mohamed Saheed Bayat and my co-supervisor, Dr. Abdulrazak Karriem for their assistance and for not giving up on me.



DEDICATION

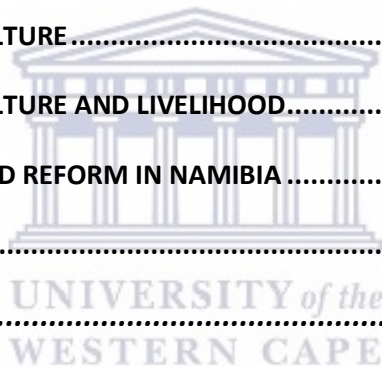
This thesis is dedicated to my mother, Albertina Njala Mabuku and to my father, Benjamin Chika Mabuku, who are my inspiration. I love you.



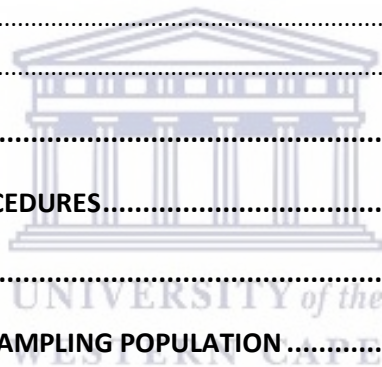
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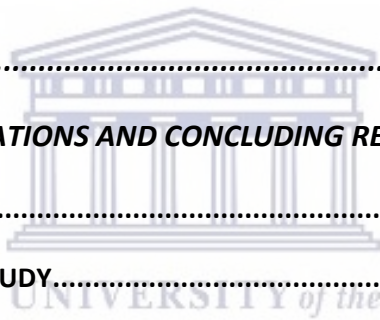
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List of Abbreviations

AALS – Affirmative Action Loan Scheme (by Agribank Namibia)

CA - Conservative Agriculture

CARE - the Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere

DFID - The Department For International Development

EIF – Environmental Investment Fund

FAO – Food and Agriculture Organization

FURS - Farm Unit Resettlement Schemes

IISD – International Institute for Sustainable Development

SID – Society for Information Display

LRAC - Land Reform Advisory Commission

MAWF – Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry

MLR – Ministry of Land Reform

ODI – Overseas Development Institute

SDFN - Shack Dwellers Federation of Namibia

SLA – Sustainable Livelihoods Approach

SLF – Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

UNDP - the United Nations Development Programme



DECLARATION

I declare that “The State of Land Reform in Namibia” is my own work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or assessment in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Ymetuku

SIGNATURE



CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

It is often stated that the Namibian pre-colonial struggle was a fight for the land (Adams and Devitt, 1992). According to Garcia (2004), the ruling party in Namibia, the ‘South West Africa People’s Organization’ (SWAPO), was handed a hugely uneven distribution of the land in the commercial area, along with large amounts of privatization of communal regions. SWAPO has been trying to tackle these land issues with a land reform process, which would simultaneously impact both communal and commercial systems.

Namibia officially came under European rule in 1884. It was then named *südwestafrikanische Schutzgebiet*, meaning South West Africa Protectorate. Although at this time most capital was invested in the mining sector, farming became a common activity among the German and South African settlers, who were granted lands in Namibia at extremely low prices. This indicates the first cause of the current Namibian land issue, and where the conflicts of land arose. The local people were forcibly removed from their lands and homes in order to give way to foreign farmers.

By the end of 1905, native Namibians were only allowed to own lands in the “Police Zone” – which was an area that white settlers occupied. Native Namibians were only allowed to own land if they had a special permit which was granted by the German Governor himself. The first permit was only granted from 1912. This lack of access to land enabled African labour to be exploited in terms of labour cost and supply within the colonial economy. This act was purposely put in place to give land only to white settlers, and deny black Namibians access to the same land, which led to denying black Namibians access to other services such as commercial agricultural production and this act forced them into wage labour.

Namibia was subjected to even tougher circumstances under South African colonial rule after it had been colonized by Germany.

42% of Namibia's agricultural lands were controlled by white farmers when Namibia gained its independence and its political status as a free and democratic state in 1990. While making up a very small proportion of the total population, white people owned more than 34 million hectares of land, which was mostly used for livestock farming. Conversely, black people who

constituted 90% of the population owned a mere 40% of all agricultural lands, which were largely devoted to subsistence farming under customary tenure systems.

Namibia's land reform process began shortly after Sam Nujoma (the first president after independence) was elected as president. The land reform process began due to the uneven distribution of lands and promises made by the SWAPO party during the resistance war and during the first election campaign.

According to Adams and Devitt (1992), recommendations for a land reform process were first made available at the National Land Reform Conference which was held in Windhoek, in June 1991. According to Garcia (2004), in 1995, the government has implemented a land reform programme in which rural livelihoods have been organized around the agrarian system, of which land tenure structures play a central role.

The desired outcomes of the land reform programme in Namibia, is poverty alleviation and the correction of socio-economic imbalances that depend on the agrarian system.

Although the first National Land Reform Conference was held in 1991, Lenggenhager and Nghitevelekwa (2018) state that today, thirty-two years after independence, wealth in Namibia is still unequally divided along racial lines, which were implemented in the colonial period. The distribution of land has played a key role in keeping these trends of inequality in place, and although there are a few efforts in place to address the land issue, many Namibians are unhappy with the slow pace of land redistribution. According to Gilolmo (2014), the majority of the Namibian population depends on land, in one way or another, in order to sustain their livelihoods and to survive. Urban townships constantly grow due to the lack of opportunities in rural areas which people can improve and sustain their livelihoods. This lack of support of people residing in rural areas shows that the Namibian agrarian system is not efficient. The problems that Namibia faces today, has been inherited from the colonial era's political situation, which benefited one part of the population (the minority) at the expense of the rest (the majority).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

According to Vermeulen (2009), throughout Southern Africa, land has played a crucial role in nation-building efforts during liberation movements towards independence.

In Namibia, agriculture and livestock are the main sources of income for most of the population. This is an indication of how progressive an effective land reform strategy would contribute to the well-being of the majority of Namibians (Adams and Devitt, 1992).

Wealth in Namibia is still racially unequal throughout its thirty-two years of independence. This inequality was integrated during the colonial period and the effects have since remained, which is a problem (Lenggenhager and Nghitevelekwa 2018).

This study investigates the efficiency of Namibian land reform and how it could be improved. Secondly, it evaluates the land reform policies and legislative laws surrounding it and thirdly, it evaluates land use for agricultural purposes.

1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to shed light onto Namibian land reform issues so that there is a more equal distribution of land of which poorer people can have access to land and thus live better lives and possibly create livelihoods. This can thus help alleviate poverty.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

With regards to evaluating the current state of land reform in Namibia, the following objectives have been formulated:

1. To investigate the extent to which land reform has been successful in Namibia, evaluate factors that have contributed to land reform structures, and identify how the land reform process can be improved.
2. To evaluate the history of government policy and legislative laws surrounding land reform.
3. To evaluate the need and use of land for agricultural purposes, through the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Bryman (2001) defines a research methodology as a technique used to collect data.

In this section, it explains how the research will be conducted, from identifying the problem to reaching a conclusion (Singh, 2006). The methodology implemented in this study will be discussed below.

1.5.1 Secondary Research

The issue of land reform in Namibia is a quite common one, therefore I would use secondary data to carry out the research. According to Johnston (2017), we live in a time when vast amounts of research and data are being collected and archived worldwide by researchers, which makes collecting secondary data much easier and practical.

1.5.2 Sustainable Livelihoods Approach

According to a definition cited in Riel (2015:8), “a livelihood involves the capabilities, assets (including both material & social resources) and activities necessary for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable once it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets presently and in the future without undermining the natural resource base”. This research will take a look at the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach in relation to livelihoods through land ownership and agricultural land use.

1.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This research will be based strictly on secondary data. The subject of land reform in Namibia is a quite common one, therefore I would use secondary data to carry out the full research. This research will therefore not be subject to any ethical issues.

1.7 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH

This research will be sectioned into six chapters, with each section being divided into separate sub-headings. The chapters will be as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter will highlight the background, contextualization and significance of the study. It is also to state the research problem and provide the main purpose and objectives of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter will review previous and relevant literature on land reform in Namibia. The literature reviewed will be divided into themes, subheadings and trends on land reform in Namibia. This section will also seek to identify the gaps and contradictions in the literature and attempt to fill in the existing gaps. This will also be the introduction of the theoretical framework of the study.

Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework

This chapter will highlight the concepts, models, theories and/or framework that underpin the study.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

In this chapter, the research methodology that will be used in this study will be described.

This chapter will explain and justify the research design, sampling methods and techniques which will be used.

Chapter 5: Data Analysis and Interpretation

This chapter will showcase the results, findings and data analysis. It will open up a discussion of trends in relation to the theoretical and conceptual framework used in the research.

Chapter 6: Conclusion, Recommendations and Concluding Remarks

This chapter will outline recommendations for future research. This chapter will also summarise and conclude the study by using the findings to provide relevant recommendations for future research.

1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter sets the tone as it introduces the study topic, as well as outlining the study background. It also covers what all the chapters will consist of such as the research problems, research objectives, and research questions investigated in the study. It also provides a brief description of the research methodology used, including the data analysis.

Chapter two, which is the literature review chapter will look at other data and literature done previously and relates to the topic.

CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Kaapama (2007), land ownership and the use of it thereof is a legacy of colonial injustice which was formed as a force against Namibia's indigenous people who have been oppressed by successful colonial administrations since the 1880s.

This took place by the colonial administrations putting in place policies and programmes to ensure that land use and ownership reflected a number of socioeconomic distortions. In this process, agricultural land that is among the best in the country, which comprised of farms and ranches, were exclusively owned by white commercial farmers. A study in 1976 made two observations in relation to this; absentee landlords owned 48% of these commercial farms, and the ownership of agricultural land was over-concentrated.

In the early 1970s, it was estimated that 16% of the farmers in the cattle-rearing district of Gobabis owned nearly 40% of the commercial farms in the area.

According to Hunter (2004), land ownership in Namibia, which used to be named South-West Africa, is heavily characterised by race. The majority of the population, at 94% are black and owned 48% of the agricultural land in 1990 while the minority of the population, at 6% are white and owned 52% of the agricultural land in Namibia.

Kaura (2001) asserts that Namibia's first land grab took place in the 17th century, with the migration of the Khoi-Afrikaner tribe, led by Jonker Afrikaner, into Namibia and the conquest of land. Related to the Hottentot/Nama tribes in the Cape, this tribe fled north across the Orange River and engaged in wars over land with the Herero tribes as well as the Ovambo tribes in Namibia's northernmost region. From 1840, Jocker Afrikaners settled in what is now Windhoek. All the indigenous people in that region were dispossessed by the Afrikaners.

SWAPO (South West Africa People's Organization) passed a resolution in 2002 (twelve years after independence) that urged the government to expropriate farms owned by absentee landlords, which amount to about 192 farms. Although this was within the legal and constitutional discretion governing the country, and was well within the framework of the

recommendations of the Land Conference in 1991, it was not implemented by the SWAPO government in charge. The land issue re-emerged with the new political government in 2004 (Melber, 2005).

According to Subramanian (1998), Namibia has one of the largest land areas in Africa, at 82.4 million hectares. Despite this, it is also the driest country in sub-Saharan Africa, with a mean rainfall of less than 400 millimetres in all except the northeast. Rain-fed cultivation below 400 mm is only possible on a small scale and carries a high risk of crop failure. Stock farming and the hunting and gathering of game are the most common uses of land.

Generally, land rights are grouped into four categories: land owned by the state that is used for military bases, game parks, and nature conservation, whose boundaries are governed by state, municipal, and private law; commercial farmland, which refers to all freehold agricultural land; and communal land, which refers to any land reserved for indigenous Namibians by the German and South African governments.

The Namibian climate is dry, and land is scarce, which causes disputes about land use, access, and ownership. The land in Namibia is scarce since it consists of primarily semi-desert areas, which makes it impossible to cultivate, for agricultural purposes (Vermeulen, 2009).

With Namibia having a dry climate, land use in most regions is not ideal for water-reliant small-holder farming, but is better for grazing animals and ranching.

Land with agricultural potential is quite limited in Namibia, except in Caprivi, Kavango and the Ovambo regions in the north. These circumstances make it clear why the German colonial settlers of 1884 were fixed on certain areas of land to keep for themselves and then created large livestock farms to generate livelihoods for themselves (Hunter, 2004).

The land has long been an integral part of the subsistence of indigenous peoples and play a crucial role in their traditional customs and beliefs, as well as in their political and socio-economic lives. Historically, indigenous people never owned land individually, but held and used it as communal property. Rangelands were open spaces of communal lands that neighbouring communities used to graze livestock and hunt game (Vermeulen, 2009).

According to Hangula (1995), pastoral or agricultural activities were conducted on the land by indigenous people. The Caprivi, Kavango, and Ovambo communities, who live in northern parts of the country where rain falls throughout the year, practice annual rain-fed cropping.

Throughout the Southern parts of the country, it is much drier and pastoralist communities like the Hereros, Namas, and Damaras herd their cattle for grazing and to hunt. German colonists

had been at odds with Southern tribes since 1884, predominantly over land. In addition to displacing these indigenous tribes from their lands, the Germans also restricted their use of the rangelands they had identified by fencing them off and turning them into cattle or game ranches (Hangula, 1995).

2.2 LAND POLICIES PRE-INDEPENDENCE

2.2.1 German Colonial Rule

1884 was the year when the German colonial forces arrived in South West Africa. Negotiations for land were attempted by the German government, but soon more forceful methods were employed. During the German occupation in 1890, the area between the Orange and Kunene rivers was declared a German colony. It was announced that this area of the country, which lies primarily south of the so-called Red Line, would become the Polizei-zone (Police Zone) and form part of government land. German colonialists were allotted land to farm in this southern part of the country and settle there. From then on, Germany systematically colonised and occupied lands, resulting in dispossession of land thereof, of the indigenous people (Kaura, 2001).

According to Hangula (1995), The indigenous people who managed to hold onto to their land, mainly in the northern parts of the country, have continued to live under the customary system of communal tenure. In the south, where the German occupied land, property rights were a part of the freehold system. German colonial authorities formulated the first land policy in Namibia in 1892 with the passing of a proclamation delimiting "Crown Lands" and establishing "native reserves." From 1915, the South African government would use this as a basis for further restraining indigenous communities to specific areas.

Between 1898 and 1907, the Germans and Nama and Herero communities in the southern parts of the country fought many wars of colonial occupation. In 1902, freehold farmland accounted for six per cent of the total land area, and communal lands comprised 30 per cent of the land area. Following the Herero-German and Nama-German wars of 1903-1908, Herero and Nama ancestral lands were confiscated by the Germans (Erichsen, 2008). This war, the "Herero and Namaqua genocide" led to the genocide of the Herero and Nama tribes of Namibia between 1904 and 1908 in which Many Herero and Nama people were massacred by German imperial troops. According to Ngatjiheue and Petersen (2021), for the first time in German history, the Ovaherero and Nama massacres of 1904-1908 have been

acknowledged as genocide and offered an apologized. In addition, Germany has also offered to support Namibia's development through programs worth about 1,1 billion Euros (18,6 billion N\$/ZAR). over a period of 30 years as a form of compensation for all the lives lost. The Herero and Nama traditional authorities, as well as opposition parties have since rejected the offer.

According to Odendaal (2006), In 1911, freehold farmland represented 21% of total land area and communal land had been reduced to nine per cent. As a first step toward establishing exclusive white areas, the Police Zone was established in 1912. In the Police Zone, German settlers owned 1331 farms and 90% of all livestock by 1913. There was much less space available for indigenous people to own livestock as they had lost their land and were confined to specific areas. Land was taken from indigenous communities and only a small amount of land was available to them for grazing and they were confined to live in designated areas with no options to own stock (Kaura, 2001).

According to Sachikonye (2004), black people would make an alternative means of living by hiring out their labour to white commercial farmers.

It was in this way that the labour supply system and wage structure were developed. Through the racial imbalance in land and livestock ownership, black Namibians were economically disadvantaged.

According to Garoeb (2001), Indigenous black people lived mostly in northern parts of the country, north of the Red Line, where land dispossession did not occur and communities lived undisturbed in their traditional agricultural lands. Werner (2001) states that redistribution is only intended for white commercial farms south of the Red Line, since these lands were taken over by colonists from Germany for extensive livestock farms and ranches.

2.2.2 South African Colonial Rule

According to Diescho (1994), during World War I, German colonial forces were defeated in Namibia, which was then called South West Africa, by South Africa, who held it as a League of Nations mandate for 75 years. Under the rule of the South Africa, Namibia's ethnic black population distribution was radically changed and reconstructed since 1915.

Namibia adopted the policies of segregation prevalent in South Africa by institutionalizing and intensifying the ethnic differences between native groups. Divide and rule/conquer policies were used against ethnic groups on the base of all social, economic, and cultural development.

Geingob (2005) has stated that, in spite of the current patterns of land ownership and development, apartheid's political and economic effects are still evident.

According to Werner (2001), by the time South African administration took control of the Police Zone, white owned farms had already been in place from Germany rule, and was continued by the South African administration.

According to Odendaal (2006), as part of the South African government's mandate in 1920, Crown Lands were set aside and distributed to coloured people and Asians living on native reserves, which were being established by the German colonial administration. They were evicted from areas that were designated as European settlements (Kossler, 2000).

According to Hangula (1995), all black indigenous people of the country were forced to “return” to their ancestral place of birth. The police zone excluded native Namibians from occupying, using, or renting any other land. This did not affect the northern areas of Caprivi, Ovamboland and Okavango, since no land was seized in these areas (Odendaal, 2006).

According to Odendaal (2006), there were 11 740 black people living on 2 813 741 hectares of land in the Police Zone in 1925. Simultaneously, the Police Zone accommodated about 1 106 whites with 7 481 371 hectares of land. It is clear here that white people, the majority of the population, had access to approximately twice as much land as black people.

According to Werner (2001), in 1926, 16 native reserves occupied approximately 2,4 million hectares of land for the exclusive use of black Namibians. In native reserves, the land was communally owned and held as a non-freehold title. By the 1950's, a total of 5 214 white farm units (39 million hectares) had been established in the Police Zone by the 1950's; which were occupied by 5 216 white farmers. In 1965, there were 8 803 farm units, meaning some white farmers owned more than one.

Along with the creation of separate development areas for two race groups, black and white, different governance systems were also established from the sixties onwards. The homeland communities were ruled by black traditional leaders. There was a limited degree of autonomy for these tribally based legislative assemblies and executive committees. In addition to managing and allocating the communal lands, they were responsible for administering the homelands. These decisions were subject to confirmation by the South African authority that ruled the rest of Namibia as well, to which the Namibian authorities were subjected (Hangula,

1995). Traditional authorities were used by the South African government to defend its policies and administration of racial segregation. As a result of isolation and land tenure differences, white and black dominated areas were sharply separated into two socio-economic zones, one communal, one commercial.

White people held freehold titles to the commercial areas, while the communal areas (with almost 33 million hectares of land) were held by black people (De Villiers, 2003).

Currently, the issue surrounding land distribution in communal areas is primarily about rights to ownership, environmental degradation, and land scarcity, which are all caused by too many people and livestock living in these areas. The unequal division of land between whites and blacks was evident. Despite being a minority of the total population, the white population still received 75 percent of the land, despite only making up eight percent of the entire population (Diescho, 1994).

In 1980, the Representative Authorities Proclamation 8 established second-tier governments (known as AG 8). These authorities were entrusted with land in the homelands, and were able to lease or assign land on a communal basis to their ethnic communities (De Villiers, 2003). At this time, South Africa remained the owner of the land and the Cabinet had to issue a certificate confirming that the land transaction was legal. Only after Namibia gained its independence in 1990 would the constitution of Namibia replace the 'AG 8' (Odendaal, 2006). Upon Namibia's independence in 1990, and South Africa's rule over the country ended, changing patterns of local government and administration would undo the legacy of apartheid on local authorities. Namibia's new constitution (1990) will determine these structures, which will have multiple platforms dealing with local authority structures, constituencies as well as responsibilities. As a result of independence, the traditional leaders' position became unassertive (Hangula, 1995).

2.3 RACIAL INEQUALITY

According to Lenggenhager and Nghitevelekwa (2018), thirty-one years post-independence, wealth in Namibia is still racially unequal as this inequality has been put into place during the colonial period and the effects have remained. Land distribution plays a vital role in maintaining this pattern and level of inequality. Many Namibians have been unhappy with the approaches to land reform, and in the past few years, there has been an emergence of new forms

of inequality through corruption. This has called for the need to not only distribute land but also wealth more evenly among racial and socio-economic groups.

More than 70% of Namibia's population lives on communal land, but fewer than 5000 individuals - out of a population of just over 2.5 million - own freehold farmland.

Currently, land ownership and distribution in Namibia are characterized by deep racial and class inequalities. Due to colonialism and apartheid, this inequality exists today in which many non-white people were dispossessed of their land.

2.4 CLASS INEQUALITY

Arguments over land reform in Namibia are usually associated with the redistribution of formerly white-owned ranches to black indigenous people (as this was the group that was majorly dispossessed from their land), rather than landless, poorer people. It is no surprise that the people that benefit the most in the independent Namibia are the black elite. They are in a good position and this is strengthened by their belief that subdividing the land into ranches is the most environmentally sound method of managing it because it is environmentally destructive to practice traditional open-range pastoralism.

This elite class is close to the leaders in politics and therefore make them the immediate beneficiaries of privileged policies (Adams, 1993).

2.5 LAND POLICIES, POST-INDEPENDENCE

The new government was drawn to land redistribution when independence was acquired in 1990, when unequal land distribution and high unemployment rates plagued the country. However, in the middle of two conflicting racial groups, the government was caught in the middle. Across the country, white farmers were concerned about the economic and environmental impact of redistributing commercial farms to resettle communal farmers, as well as unemployment among black farmworkers. Black communal farmers increasingly sought commercial farms to relieve pressure on communal grazing lands (Odendaal 2011).

2.5.1 The Land Reform Conference – 1991

Following independence, the government was requested to convene a national conference in order to reach the widest possible agreement on the land question (De Villiers, 2003).

According to Melber (2019), in June 1991, a large national conference on land reform was held in Windhoek, Namibia. This conference adopted a broad consensus document, which is the

core of the land issue in Namibia. This was named the Land Conference. It was obvious that government saw land reform and the land question as a priority. As a result of this conference, land reform rules were designed with a view toward accommodating a range of views and interests regarding the use of land (Horsthemke, 2004).

Namibia's reconciliation policy and the Namibian Constitution shaped the Land Conference (Werner, 2001). In this consultative process, stakeholders from all parts of the country, including marginalised communal farmers and prosperous commercial farmers, were invited to participate. A forum was held and research data was presented where all stakeholders were able to express their concerns and grievances (Werner, 2001). The main focus of the Conference was “what should the basis for land reform and in particular the restoration of land rights be?” (De Villiers, 2003).

According to Melber (2019), among other things, the land conference recommended: - commercial farmland is redistributed on a willing seller-willing buyer basis of which a willing seller decides to sell and a willing buyer may buy, with priority given to the government to purchase farmland for resettlement; - Implement a land tax; reallocate underused land; limit the size and number of farms owned by foreigners; eliminate absentee landlordism; provide special protection to disadvantaged communities (in particular the San people) in communal areas (former reserves).

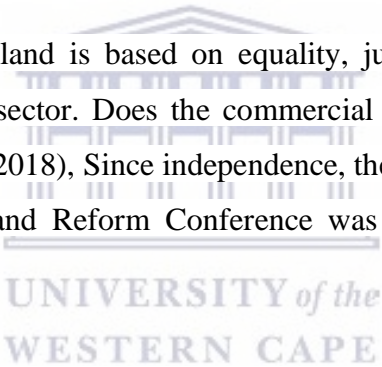
Another issue raised was foreigners and absentee landlords owning and using commercial farms. It was suggested that these landowners, along with those who own underutilized land, should be a target for land reform expropriation. Land ceilings and a land tax were proposed as an incentive for owners to sell underused and unutilised land, as well as to provide additional revenue for the state to acquire more land. In addition, there was a proposal to retain, develop, and expand communal areas (De Villiers, 2003).

Generally, the poor live together in communal areas, their access and rights to land should be enhanced and protected, for all. Fencing that has been erected illegally needs to be removed and prohibited in future. In order to achieve this, land allocation and administration in communal areas would need to be democratized while still keeping the respect of ethnic communities in terms of their rights and customs. There had to be a clarification of the role of traditional rulers and the establishment of land boards to oversee the distribution of communal land. Among the topics discussed at the land conference was the plight of farm workers and women in agriculture. An agreement was reached on the need for labour codes to protect

workers' rights. The farm workers should be permitted to reside on farms after retirement and also be permitted to graze on the farms. Women should be given the right to inherit land and property and they should also be given ownership rights on the land they cultivate (Werner, 2001). The country still needs a national land use plan so that land acquisition may be guided and so foreign investment and economic growth may be balanced (De Villiers, 2003).

According to Hunter (2004), during the 1991 Land Conference, resolutions were passed that explicitly stated that the Government has to expropriate land. SWAPO's Congress of 2002 passed a resolution urging the government to expropriate foreign-owned farms. There have been calls for the expropriation by some trade unions and some members of Parliament as well. For a smooth expropriation process, amendments had to be proposed by the government. Also, according to the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act of 1995 [No. 6 of 1995] and the Constitution of Namibia, expropriation is allowed.

On the one hand, the issue of land is based on equality, justice, and on the other hand, productivity in the agricultural sector. Does the commercial land reform work to alleviate poverty? According to Melber (2018), Since independence, the issue of land has been a hotly contested one. The National Land Reform Conference was held in 1991. The following recommendations were made:

- 
- Commercial farmland is to be redistributed on the basis of the willing seller-willing buyer principle, of which the government must have first priority to purchase farmland for resettlement;
 - Introduction of the tax of land;
 - Relocation of underutilized land;
 - Limitations on the number and size of farms on privately owned land;
 - Absentee landlordism and foreign ownership of land should be eliminated.

According to Subramanian (1998), Even though the conference established some guiding principles, it failed to develop a mandate for future action. SWAPO's lacks the sense of urgency in addressing land issues in Namibia and this indicates that land reform is not a top priority at the moment. It is believed that the consultative process was used by the government to consolidate its power. Despite the fact that there has yet to be any implementation of the

conclusions established at the conference, but it is understood that the government is broadly supportive at present.

The following are some of the relevant resolutions:

- According to Namibian law, citizens of the country are free to reside wherever they like on its territory. People who seek access to communal land should take into account the rights and cultures of the local communities. Landless people and those without access to adequate land for subsistence should be prioritized.
- Due to the complexities involved, it is impossible to reclaim ancestral lands in their entirety.
- Land rights should be protected for disadvantaged groups and communities (such as the San).
- While no one should be forced to leave communal land, it may make sense for large communal farmers with large numbers of livestock to acquire commercial land outside communal areas. To allow small farmers to grow their crops, larger farmers should reduce their use of farmland in communal areas in the future.
- Commercial farmers should not be allowed to keep their rights to communal grazing lands, and commercial farmers should not be allowed to keep their rights to communal grazing lands.
- It should be prohibited in the future for one individual to own multiple farms and to own very large farms.
- It is important to retain, develop, and expand CAs (Conservative Agriculture) where necessary.
- Farmland should not be owned by foreigners, but can be leased to them.
- It is incredibly important to expropriate absentee land.
- A traditional leader's role in allocating and distributing communal land should be recognized, and they should work together alongside regional and local government institutions within land administration.
- A number of factors are considered in deciding which lands should be redistributed, including absentee ownership, underutilization, and undercapitalization of land, as well as multiple farm ownership issues. The criteria has identified about 7 million hectares (roughly 10% of the land suitable for agriculture). However, the farms identified are scattered across the country, which limits the options for extending existing Cas.

The initial enthusiasm for a consultative land reform programme seems to have faded over the years. A new conference was only initiated in 1994 by non-governmental organizations to review the current reform measures and to provide an additional forum to have opinions on the land reform programme heard. A smaller conference, the People's Land Conference, was held at Mariental in 1997 (Keulder, 1997). Namibian Non-Governmental Organisation Forum (NANGOF) had been tasked with lobbying the government on draft legislation and policies (Werner, 2001). NANGOF was asked to help draft the Communal Land Bill, but the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Bill did not allow for stakeholders to engage in its process as it was decided upon in parliament without their approval (Werner, 2001). Due to the government's reluctance and the landless people's lack of organisation, consultations between the two are disappointingly few.

2.6 LAND POLICIES, PRESENT DAY NAMIBIA

According to Iileka (2018), after almost three decades after independence, 70% of Namibia's commercial farmland is still owned by white farmers, which was revealed at the national land statistics symposium in Windhoek, Namibia, by the Namibia Statistics Agency.

In the total 39 million hectares of freehold agricultural land, approximately 27 million hectares of this land is owned by whites, including foreigners, while only 16% is owned by blacks, and 14% (5,4 million hectares) is owned by the government.

Garcia (2004) states that, Namibia is a multi-ethnic and multilingual society. About 60% of Namibia's total population has Bantu origins, while 10% have European roots. Khoi and San groups represent the remaining 30% of the population. This is a major paradox, as it is, in fact, the 10% of Namibians with European origins who control all aspects of the economy, in terms of both productive and consumption.

This minority group of the population lives a standard that is comparable to those living in most developed societies, while the majority of the population has to face realities of 'former' colonial oppression through recurrent situations of underdevelopment and deprivation.

According to Namibia Statistics Agency (2018), in 2018, 48% of land was privately owned (freehold), 35% was communal land belonging to the state and administered by customary authorities, and the remaining (17%) was state land linked to national parks and restricted areas.

There is an ongoing battle among the previously disadvantaged groups in which they constantly have to scramble for the little freehold land that which has been bought by the government for resettlement. The land reform discussions constantly fail to address the way in which land is being transformed into money, and who profits from it (Lenggenhager and Nghitevelekwa, 2018).

Furthermore, Adams (1993), states that, in Namibia, just like in other parts of southern Africa, land reform arguments mostly indicate to the redistribution of land from formerly white-owned freehold ranches - to blacks, rather than the landless and the actual people that are in need of this land. The people who are benefiting in post-colonial Namibia are the black elite. Due to the black elite having close political ties, they are the immediate beneficiaries of this policy.

2.7 LAND REFORM PROCESS

Windhoek held a land conference in 1991 to address commercial land ownership after independence. A policy was adopted during the Land Conference that said that land acquired through colonialism would not be seized from European decedents. Namibia's postcolonial government chose established and implemented a policy which aims at redressing Namibia's history of unequal land ownership through a process of national reconciliation which is in accordance with Article 16 of the constitution (Harring & Odendaal 2002). In Article 16 of the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia of 1990, it states:

1. In any part of Namibia any individual may own, purchase, sell or transfer immovable property, and may bequeath any such property to his or her heirs or legatees, providing that Parliament may by law regulate or prohibit non-Namibian citizens from acquiring property in the country.
2. Expropriation may be undertaken by the State or a competent body authorised by law in the public interest, provided just compensation is paid according to requirements and procedures determined by Parliament.

In addition, the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act (No. 6 of 1995) contains several provisions which include the following:

- A requirement that any commercial farm is to be proposed to the Namibian government for resettlement purposes, before it is offered for sale (Part III of the Act);
- A restriction on the possession of multiple land holdings by one individual (Part VIII);

- A restriction on the ownership of commercial farmland by non-Namibians (Part VI). (Odendaal, 2010)

2.8 NATIONAL RESETTLEMENT POLICY

According to Geingob (2005), the National Resettlement Policy (2001), have set the following objectives/policies were set:

- To correct historical imbalances in the distribution of natural resources, especially land.
- To prepare the target groups or self-sufficiency by enabling them to produce food on their own.
- To integrate small-holder farmers into Namibia's economy through open-market production, and to make a significant contribution to the country's GDP.
- to create jobs income-generating activities such as farming.
- To relieve human and livestock pressure in communal areas.
- To reintegrate citizens back into society after long periods of displacement caused by colonialism, war, and other factors.

The Ministry of Lands stated that the original policies and objectives remain the same, the only change that was made is that they are now including well-off people from previously disadvantaged groups. As a result of these changes, the Ministry of Lands is not under enormous pressure economically, and the government has not exhausted its resources, such as those supporting services available to beneficiaries.

2.9 LEGISLATIVE LAWS

According to Kaapama (2007), one of the reasons for the elevated status of the postcolonial land reform agenda is mass mobilization was at the centre of the liberation agenda and it brought through the hopes of not only ending colonialism, but also the eradication of disenfranchised Namibians from participation in national development processes by creating a conducive environment and creating an era suitable for their participation.

Creating such an environment was not going to be an easy one to achieve as, in order for Namibia to create a fair environment, the inequalities created by the colonial era must be addressed, including the uneven land ownership distribution in commercial agriculture.

According to Lenggenhager and Nghitevelekwa (2018), since independence in 1990, the land reform programme has been concentrated around two methods of redressing historical wrongs. The National Resettlement Programme, which allows the government to purchase freehold land for the purposes of resettling landless Namibians. It follows the “willing seller, willing buyer” rule. Secondly, The Affirmative Action Loan Scheme allows previously marginalized people from Namibia to apply for and receive subsidised loans to buy land from the Agricultural Bank of Namibia. Namibians are not completely content with these measures to settle the issue of land, therefore, for a long time, people have been urging a review of land reform and a new approach be explored.

In Namibia, property rights are protected by Article 16 of the constitution but nowhere in the constitution is there any mention of rights to land (Ingle, 2011). According to Melber (2018), In addition to civil and political rights, article 16 also includes the protection of property:

- Any person may earn, acquire, own and dispose of any property in Namibia individually or collectively and pass on their property to their heirs or successors, provided that the parliament may enact legislation discouraging or regulating acquisition of property by foreign citizens.
- In accordance with legislative requirements and procedures, a competent state body may expropriate property in the public interest.

As a consequence, existing socio-economic inequalities were officially recognized. About 48% of Namibia's land is privately owned. This land is owned by less than 5,000 mainly white farmers, while close to 2.5 million Namibians rely on communal land for their livelihood (approximately 17% of the land is state-owned and largely nature reserves). Land ownership and distribution patterns reflect class inequalities and perpetuate racial inequalities.

According to Ingle (2011), by 2005, Namibia had three main components to its land reform program:

- The Agricultural Land Reform Act of 1995 provides for redistributive land reform. The program is intended to benefit "Namibian citizens who do not own or have access to agricultural land... foremost those Namibians who have been socially, economically or educationally disadvantaged by past discriminatory laws and practices." Ex-SWAPO combatants are given preference and income is not a consideration, but applicants must

possess fewer than 150 large stock units. As the selection process for beneficiaries is not transparent, and given the loophole created by the lack of an income means test. This is precisely what has happened and the new elite have asserted their interests with vigour prompting Werner to account this programme “a dreadful failure”.

- Tenure reform relates to the communal areas which are governed by the Communal Land Reform Act of 2002 which serves effectively to formalize traditional leaders’ post-independence loss in stature and power. Control of land in communal areas is supposed to reside with Communal Land Boards about whose actual functioning little seems to be known other than that an inordinate amount of discretion resides with Namibia’s Minister of Lands in the allocation of customary land rights.
- The Affirmative Action Loan Scheme (AALS) whereby “well-established and strong communal farmers” are assisted to purchase commercial farms via state- subsidized low-interest loans made by the Namibian Agribank. After 1996 part-time farmers were allowed to participate as well. Werner reports that “four times as much land was acquired by previously disadvantaged Namibians” under this scheme than through the official resettlement process and in 2003 he was optimistic about its prospects notwithstanding a growing backlog of defaulters. Alas, by early 2005 the scheme had degenerated into a fiasco that need not be detailed here save to quote Agribank’s Chairman, Hans-Gunther Stier, to the effect that “the term ‘sustainability’ was ignored” when Agribank gave out its loans. Insight bills the AALS as “loans that actually make rich blacks poor” and Stier spoke of the imminent “collapse of Namibia’s agriculture industry” although with the benefit of hindsight that seems to have been a trifle alarmist.

Namibia only passed its first major land reform legislation in 1995, five years after it gained independence. Article 16 of the Namibian constitution stipulates that in order to expropriate freehold lands, Parliament must enact a law specifying the criteria for expropriation (Werner, 2001). Under the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act (Act 6 of 1995), the government may acquire agricultural freehold land for purposes of land reform and can redistribute it to disadvantaged Namibian citizens or those without access to land.

In Namibia, there are two main legal frameworks governing land reform:

- **The (Commercial) Land Reform Act** - a legal framework in which the government acquires land for the purpose of resettlement, and it works on the "willing buyer-willing seller" principle. This principle works in a way in which all the farms acquired by the state for resettlement purposes to date have been bought at market prices from willing sellers. Many argue that this process is significantly slowing down the process of land redistribution. This Act was adjusted in 2003, giving more power to the government to expropriate land "in the public interest", by way of "the payment of just compensation", although expropriation has not yet commenced in Namibia.
- **The (Communal) Land Reform Act** – a legal framework that regulates the allocation of land in communal areas, previously administered by traditional authorities. This Act is meant to ensure that all procedures pertaining to the transfer of land in communal areas are democratic, and to provide land tenure security to the poor in those regions.

In addition to these two main legal land reform processes, there is also the **Affirmative Action Loan Scheme**, which is employed by the Agribank of Namibia.

This scheme provides financial assistance through subsidized loans, to communal peasants that wish to acquire a farm in a commercial zone. The main objective of the loan scheme is not only to achieve a new racial equilibrium within the commercial zone but also to reduce pressures in overgrazed communal areas (Garcia, 2004).

The Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act of 1995 states that agricultural land owned by the government, is to be for the redistribution to Namibians “who do not own, or otherwise have the use of, agricultural land, or adequate agricultural land and, foremost, to those Namibian citizens who have been socially, economically or educationally disadvantaged by past discriminatory laws or practices” (Hunger Notes 2004). Furthermore, Garcia (2004) states that the land reform process in Namibia has been established on a “willing-seller, willing-buyer” principle, in which the government is the first priority option on any commercial farm for sale.

In 2003, out of an estimated 243,000 landless Namibians, only 30,720 have been resettled. Critics have argued that the country’s land reform process has been moving along very slowly and has only delivered very few tangible benefits to the landless. The government has often stated that some of the land that is offered by the commercial agriculture sector is sometimes

not suitable for resettlement purposes. Namibia's land reform process is constantly criticized by those who feel that its pace is stagnant, and others who question its benefits (Garcia, 2004).

The National Resettlement Program has only acquired 3 million hectares of land to date, while the Affirmative Action Loan Scheme and private commercial banks acquired 6.4 million. White people still own approximately 70% of the freehold agricultural land. Only approximately 16% of it is owned by previously disadvantaged people (blacks and coloureds) (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2018).

According to Garcia (2004), the government's resettlement schemes were only used by 37 400 Namibians out of 243 000 eligible for resettlement in 2003.

Meanwhile, thanks to Agribank's Affirmative Action Loan Scheme, from 1992 to 2001, black farmers were able to purchase 2 088 990 hectares of land, distributed among 368 ranches. This means that the estimated overall quantity of land transmitted thus far to black farmers through both the governmental land reform programme and Agribank's loan scheme is estimated to be around 3 million hectares, which represents 8.3% of all Namibian commercial lands.

According to Adams and Devitt (1992), about 4,200 commercial farmers, whom are mainly white, occupy more than half of the agriculturally usable land. A further 120,000 black rural households rely on the rest for shelter and, in varying degrees, a source of income. Although urban land, where real profits are made today, is still largely owned by the old (colonial) elite, independence birthed a new elite - a black elite that has close ties to government and international investors. This new elite benefits from land resettlement policies and redistribution, rather than the most disadvantaged people. In Namibia, an estimated 70% of the population is still dependent on agriculture and livestock as the main source of income. This clearly indicates how an effective land reform strategy would contribute significantly to the well-being of the majority of Namibians.

According to Lenggenhager and Nghitevelekwa (2018), the previously disadvantaged are left to scramble for the little freehold land that has been acquired by the government for resettlement. Throughout these disparities, new forms of inequality have emerged such as this "new" elite, who tend to benefit, rather than the most disadvantaged.

Under section 14 of the Agribank's Affirmative Action Loan Scheme, the criteria for the compulsory acquisition of agricultural land are outlined, including land that is underused,

excessive, owned by a foreign national, or where the willing buyer - willing seller mechanism has failed. There are four categories of expropriation. According to international law, the law is not discriminatory if applied in general to all foreign nationals with just compensation (Treeger, 2004). Section 25 of the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act (Act 6 of 1995) establishes the relevant criteria for determining the amount of compensation payable for expropriated land. The question arises: Should just compensation be based on the actual market value of the expropriated property? A property's market value is only one of many factors that determine its value. For commercial farmers, this is usually the best option.

2.9.1 The Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act (Act 6 of 1995)

According to Odendaal (2006), section 14 (2) under the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Amendment Act (Act 14 of 2003), any type of commercial agricultural land may be expropriated by the Minister. Therefore, any property owned by a black or white Namibian, foreigner or absentee landlord, absentee landlord or full-time farmer would be eligible for acquisition by the government if it can be better utilized.

Technically, the legitimacy of the reason for the expropriation of property also depends on whether 'public interest' is included in the legislation and what its exact meaning is. The term 'public interest' has been included in section 14(1) of the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Amendment Act (Act 14 of 2003). Therefore, land can be expropriated for the purpose of redistribution under the Land Reform and Resettlement Programme (Odendaal, 2006).

This act also contains other provisions and they are as follows:

- Government should be given first preference to buy a farm when one goes on the market for sale (willing seller - willing buyer)
- Multiple land holdings cannot be owned by one single owner at a time
- Non-Namibians cannot own commercial farmland
- Land Reform Advisory Commissions should be established to assist the government in the identification of suitable farms for resettlement and the facilitation of dispute resolution.

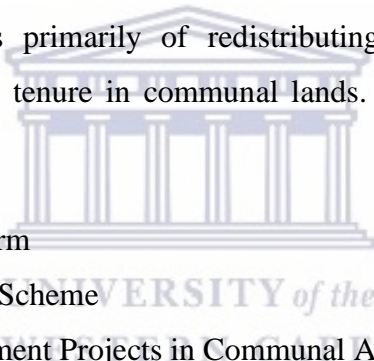
According to De Villiers (2003), The Land Reform Advisory Commission (LRAC) was established in line with the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act (Act 6 of 1995) to provide advice and recommendations to the Minister of Lands, Resettlement and Rehabilitation

(MLRR) on land allocation and utilisation. At that time, the LRAC was tasked with identifying beneficiaries after an opening for applications of land ownership was placed. By 2001, still no advertisements had been placed that invited applicants to apply. The Land Tribunal and Regulations Board is to resolve any price disputes between the sellers and the government on the basis of the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act (Act 6 of 1995) (Werner, 2003).

According to Odendaal, 2006), Namibia historically did not have a land tax, but in 2001 the Agriculture (Commercial) Land Reform Amendment Act imposed a land tax on commercial agricultural land. This policy seeks to convince landowners to give up part of their land units because the cost of maintaining the facility would become too high. Moreover, more land for resettlement can be bought by collecting these much-needed revenues (tax) for the funds. In 2005/06, the first tax instalment was collected.

2.9.2 The Communal Land Reform Act

Namibia's land reform consists primarily of redistributing commercial farms to black Namibians as well as reforming tenure in communal lands. Three strategies address these concerns:

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1. Redistributive Land Reform
 2. Affirmative Action Loan Scheme
 3. Development of Resettlement Projects in Communal Areas

According to Sherbourne (2004), the Affirmative Action Loan Scheme (AALS), which was applied for the first time in 1992, is a subsidy program that allows formerly disadvantaged farmers to purchase commercial farmland. AALS is based on three rationales:

- To encourage disadvantaged people to be farmland owners
- To transfer large livestock to commercial farmland, from communal areas
- Aid the disadvantaged groups in becoming qualified commercial farmers and who can contribute to the economy

Essentially, the key goal of the land reform program is to give access to land with secure tenure to previously disadvantaged communities so they can improve their standard of living. People from the KhoiSan tribe, soldiers, destitute Namibians, people with disabilities and people living in overcrowded communities are the priority groups targeted by the organization (Okafor, 2006). According to Mosotho and Tsiu (2008), In accordance with the 2001 National

Resettlement Plan's (White Paper) objectives, these beneficiaries are to be provided with access to land through the Farm Unit Resettlement Scheme (FURS) programme:

- Alleviate poverty
- Rectify historical inequities and ensure equitable land access
- Provide the opportunity for self-sufficiency
- Assist smallholder farmers in entering the national - and market economies
- Reduce the pressure of livestock and humans on communal lands
- Create employment through full-time farming
- Provide full-time employment through farming

According to the Ministry of Land and Resettlement (MLR), economic indicators are used to identify and choose applicants who could qualify for assistance (Okafor, 2006).

2.10 BENEFICIARIES

Only limited socio-economic data is available on AALS beneficiaries. The majority of beneficiaries seem to have serious difficulties repaying their loans.

In 2004, over two thirds of beneficiaries were in arrears with loan repayments, according to the Legal Assistance Centre. There are a number of reasons that may have contributed to these difficulties. A major factor is the rising land prices. The market price of agricultural land has always been significantly higher than the production value of land. Based on NAU estimates, Agribank's fair agricultural potential value ranges from 60 to 80 percent of market value in large stock farming areas.

The market price for a farm is much higher than its fair agricultural potential value, which means that any farmer can have difficulty servicing the loan for its full purchase price through agricultural production alone. Many recipients of AALS were further constrained by lack of livestock to use their commercial farms to the fullest extent. In order to repay their loans, many had to sell their livestock instead of building up their commercial farms. Many of the beneficiaries were not able to repay their loans by the eighth year because they had spent the capital they accumulated during the grace period. Using off-farm income, such as wages earned in the city, is the best way for part-time farmers to repay their loans regularly (Werner & Kruger, 2017).

2.10.1 AALS beneficiaries

Agribank carries out the AALS (Affirmative Action Loan Scheme) project on behalf of the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry. It was introduced in 1992. Affirmative Action loans were initially only available to full-time farmers, but an amendment in 1996 allowed part-time farmers to apply. AALS loans require applicants to own 150 large or 800 small stock, or the equivalent in cash, in order to qualify. In terms of the AALS, Agribank offers loans for a 25 year period at government-subsidised interest rates. A mortgage bond is required as a security and productive use of land is required. The farmer may only dispose of his or her land during the first ten years with Agribank's approval in agreement with the conditions set by the Minister of Agriculture, Waters, and Forestry. If a person sells their property within ten years, they must pay back any government subsidies (Werner & Kruger, 2017).

2.10.2 FURS beneficiaries

Farmers' Unit Resettlement Scheme (FURS) are group holdings for individuals or a group of individuals who cannot form a cooperative but would like to engage in agricultural production as a group (Werner & Kruger, 2007).

A study by Werner & Odendaal (2010) produced the following findings. The Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act stipulates that allocated farm units must be used exclusively for agricultural purposes. Deviations have to be approved by the Minister. Livestock farming is the main agricultural activity practised by land reform beneficiaries. In 2004, a survey found that only 27 percent of households grew crops, mostly in small plots for their own consumption.

Also in 2004, off-farm income contributed 55 percent to 100 percent of beneficiary household income. Sixty-nine per cent of beneficiaries had jobs or businesses, and farming was not their main occupation. Forty-five percent of those interviewed were wage earners, while 12 percent were self-employed. Almost three quarters of labor force employees are government workers, most of whom are based in Windhoek. A wide range of beneficiaries were received, ranging from poor people to newspaper distributors to governors and permanent secretaries. The majority worked in administrative positions.

A PTT study concluded that the "clear dominance of public sector employees as beneficiaries implies that individuals working for the government have an information advantage about resettlement...Those outside the public sector clearly are at a disadvantage." Before they were resettled, most land reform beneficiaries had access to income from off-farm sources. This means that access to off-farm income should be viewed as an extra but not necessarily as a reaction to tough agricultural conditions.

For many beneficiaries, farming on redistributed land was an additional source of income, rather than the reverse. Only 31 percent of beneficiaries regard farming as their primary occupation, and only 45 percent remain on the farms permanently while their primary beneficiary works in the city. Fifty-five percent of households lived in urban areas. Seventy-eight percent of those working wage jobs visited their farms on a monthly basis. Farm laborers and family members stayed behind to tend to the farm while they were away.

2.11 GROUP RESETTLEMENT SCHEMES

Werner & Odendaal (2010) conducted a study based on the MLR (Ministry of Land Reform) 's 14 group resettlement schemes across the country. The MLR's group resettlement projects differ from those of other farms where large groups of people have been settled in that they are defined by specific official memberships and by project coordinators appointed by the MLR. There is a huge difference in the ethnic makeup of the group resettlement schemes in the Omaheke region and Hardap region. Drimiopsis and Skoonheid beneficiaries in Omaheke are almost exclusively of San origin, whereas those on Westfalen and Bernafey hail from diverse ethnicities, including Caprivian, Kavango, Nama, Damara, and Owambo. In Omaheke, the San population is relatively large, which explains this. The 1 200 ha Westfalen resettlement scheme was started in 1997.

The majority of its beneficiaries come from Namibia's north-central regions. According to the official beneficiaries, seven of them were settled there after their resettlement applications were successful. Some people had lived on the farm without the permission of the MLR but applied for resettlement and were permitted to remain there. The 3730 ha Bernafey scheme was also started in 1997.

MLR allowed the farm workers to stay on and continue cultivating the gardens after buying the farm. However, some farm workers were not aware and thus failed to apply for resettlement in 2002 when the Ministry advertised for applications. As a result, there were unofficial or

illegal occupants of the farm. 11 beneficiaries were officially resettled on Bernafey after the advertising and selection process concluded. The Drimiopsis and Skoonheid schemes did not have an official selection of settlers. Beneficiaries were assigned to one of the schemes based on their proximity to former places of work and residence. In Omaheke, group resettlement began around the time of independence as farm workers, primarily San, lost their jobs on commercial farms. Without employment or a home, they squatted in road reserves.

According to Werner & Kruger (2007), FURS and AALS beneficiaries mostly depended on livestock farming for their livelihoods. Owning their own piece of land is very important to almost all beneficiaries, not only because they enjoy farming and rural life, which is a question of lifestyle, but also because it enables them to better manage their livestock.

In the Omaheke region, only a few women on the two group resettlement schemes engaged in crafting as a livelihood strategy, but they required external assistance to obtain materials and market their finished products. Crafts sales generated very little income. There was also very little benefit from utilizing natural resources. Hardap almost has no veldkos (plant foods), and firewood is its most abundant natural resource. Despite Omaheke offering more veldkos (plant foods), beneficiaries of the group schemes only received limited amounts following the rainy season. Rainfall and the size of the land area available to gatherers determine the success of plant foods as a livelihood strategy.

Beneficiaries of FURS and AALS benefited from the use of a local tree to produce droppers for fencing. Another option of livelihood for resettlement beneficiaries is piecework on commercial farms, but findings indicate that almost only group scheme beneficiaries had access to piecework, and that they did so only periodically rather than continuously. It appears that none of the FURS beneficiaries have done piecework.

As most beneficiaries depend on extensive livestock farming and have no feasible alternatives, they are vulnerable to external shocks, particularly drought. Almost every farmer reported large losses because of drought. A reasonable assumption is that beneficiaries of FURS are more vulnerable to drought than beneficiaries of AALS because their small units limit their ability to manage their range in ways that minimize drought effects.

In Omaheke, where many of the beneficiaries are San, group resettlement schemes may provide some protection against external shocks. Even though their own food production provided some protection against hunger, it was the government's food aid programs that kept them from starving.

For many beneficiaries of the FURS and AALS, cheap labour is critical to their financial well-being. There are examples of farm labourers employed by land reform beneficiaries being paid much less than the minimum agricultural wage.

Many former farm labourers lost their residence, employment, and ability to acquire land when the government bought commercial farms. This is important as the improvements of livelihoods came at this expense. It assisted with livelihoods of the new farmers but not of the previous farmers.

In addition, it appears that there is still no clear policy statement on the compensation of these previous workers.

The MLR evaluates resettlement land largely based on its eligibility for extensive livestock ranching. AALS farmers select their own land for acquisition. The results of the study suggest that the current resettlement model is too narrow and not well aligned with the needs, aspirations, and expectations of many beneficiaries, particularly those with few assets.

Beneficiaries' needs, aspirations, and expectations are more diverse than is commonly recognized in the public discourse on land reform and resettlement. Currently, land reform thinking assumes that all beneficiaries will become large-scale farmers or small-scale farmers. Many beneficiaries, however, required access to land not for the purpose of farming commercially but for the purpose of gaining a safe and permanent place to live, despite the fact that none of them had a livelihood after Land Reform formal lease agreement.

It was found that many of those in the sample, and those in the larger community of beneficiaries, were pensioners without ties to a community area. They would not have had a safe place to live and access to a small plot of land for their few goats or cattle if resettlement hadn't taken place. As part of the resettlement program, a small garden and space for livestock were provided along with residential land.

In 1990, several options for land reform were developed for the National Conference on Land Reform and the Land Question. The first was for the purchase of freehold farms adjacent to communal lands; this would increase livelihoods after land reform. Similar to FURS, the main

cost would be to pay farm owners. If this option is adopted, it would assist poorer communal stock owners who feel severely restricted in their access to grazing. Another option is to integrate the farming and ranching sectors into group farming. In spite of this, it has been pointed out that obtaining the members of group farming projects to make corporate management decisions is difficult, and very few group ranches survive. Additionally, it appears that the vast majority of FURS beneficiaries are unlikely to buy into group-based farming. South Africa has tried another model, which is not widely discussed, which involves joint ventures. Since agrarian reform began in South Africa, joint venture projects have been commonly used.

A joint venture usually involves former farm workers with land rights or land reform beneficiaries eligible for government subsidies and a commercial farmer or company as a partner. Joint ventures for agricultural production provide land reform beneficiaries with capital and land, while commercial farmers or companies provide expertise that empowers them. Joint ventures have their pros and cons.

There have been no partnerships between resettlement beneficiaries and the private sector (i.e. commercial farmers funded by donors) in Namibia. A joint venture involving the agricultural sector in the resettlement programme did not appear to have been envisioned by the MLR when it drafted the National Land Reform Policy. The South African model of equity sharing is a good model to observe and learn from, if the option of joint ventures is deemed an option for widening livelihoods' options among resettlement beneficiaries. Equity sharing happens when resettlement beneficiaries on a farm come together, combine their grants and invest in the farm by buying equity.

In most cases, farmers and beneficiaries form a trust into which they invest funds in their joint venture. While continuing to serve as resettlement beneficiaries, the beneficiaries become eligible for board representation, which allows them to participate in management decisions.

Approving the budget is a crucial management decision, which includes setting wages and wage increases. There are several advantages to joint ventures that other models do not have: not only do they keep beneficiaries employed, but they also share in decision-making and profits, which increases labour productivity. Moreover, joint ventures retain the commercial farmer's managerial skills to the benefit of all, while simultaneously transferring their

management skills to the beneficiaries through training. In the high-value agricultural sector of South Africa, equity-sharing is highly common in land reform.

In this way, beneficiaries gain access to the means of production and have control over them while simultaneously gaining managerial expertise and economies of scale.

Preconditions for the implementation of an equity-sharing project include: the feasibility of the farm; very good labour relations; a willingness to be equal when making decisions and share wealth, and a commitment to fulfilling this; and a capacity-building program to support workers. Initially, beneficiaries were and are able to buy equity through government subsidies or loans facilitated by donor funding. As per Agribank, joint ventures, for example between a commercial farmer and an AALS resettlement farmer, can be financed.

The tenure security and credit issues of land reform do not affect all the beneficiaries equally. AALS beneficiaries register freehold title over their land and are therefore the undisputed owners of that land. Their title allows them to use their land as collateral for credit if they need it. FURS beneficiaries have a tough time securing stable, formal tenure. In mid-2009, 190 farm units in different parts of the country were issued lease agreements under the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act of 1995 (ACLRA), which provides for 99-year leaseholds.

For FURS beneficiaries to become successful small-scale commercial farmers, the lease agreement must allow for maximum flexibility in the management of the land, subject to national laws on natural resources, of course. Agribank has been offering loans to FURS beneficiaries since 2009, even though there were no lease agreements registered at the time.

202 loan applications were approved in December 2009, committing a total of N\$12.9 million. In order to meet the bank's requirements, the applicants had to provide proof of ownership or an allotment letter. Tenure security support after settlement comes in the form of post-settlement support.

It is well known that subsidy support was provided to white farmers during the pre-independence era and AALS farmers demanded the same support. One of the major criticisms of AALS is that there is no support after post-settlement. Many FURS beneficiaries were allocated land with inadequate infrastructure to enable them to successfully farm. In many cases, there were no boundary fences or they were dilapidated. Among all infrastructure problems, the most problematic one was that many beneficiaries did not have their own

boreholes, which led to tensions and disputes with neighbours. These problems have been acknowledged by the MLR and are being addressed.

Mandimika (2020) states that, due to mismatches between beneficiary needs and land size, as well as the difficulties in integrating land delivery with rural development, land reform has been slow to implement. In addition, the willing-seller-willing-buyer system does not adequately address the land demands of the poor or the need to alleviate poverty, causing governments to look to other methods of redistribution of land.

2.12 LIVELIHOOD TRAJECTORIES

According to Werner & Odendaal (2010), one major characteristic of AALS farmers is that they previously farmed on communal land. In some way or another, they have all been exposed to communal farming before buying their own farm, whether as children watching farming practices or as farmers involved in communal farming.

Even though AALS farmers share many characteristics within farming, their life stories, life experiences, and career paths as farmers are quite different. Livelihood trajectories are certain pathways which have been established in order to categorise the development paths of AALS farmers as a way to better understand livelihoods. Four common livelihood trajectories pertaining to AALS farmers were identified.

Namely:

- Ideal trajectory
- Cyclical trajectory
- Part-time trajectory
- 'Broekskeur en vasbyt' trajectory

First, we have the 'ideal trajectory', which offers a farmer's ideal path of development under the AALS. AALS's policy objectives closely align with this trajectory.

Considering that personal and farming experiences are rarely in accordance with what is considered ideal, other deviations have been created from ideals, namely the 'cyclical', 'part-time' and 'broekskeur en vasbyt' trajectories. In this case, the individual would be a full-time communal farmer or someone who works full-time elsewhere, keeping large herds of livestock on communal lands.

This category of farmers purchased land outside of the community with the help of the AALS in order to make room for small, upcoming communal farmers as envisioned by the AALS policy, or they moved out of the community due to increased competition from other livestock farmers there. The 'ideal' trajectory is for the new commercial farmer to become a medium to large commercial farmer, plus one who is always up to date on their loan repayment to Agribank while producing enough to cover costs. Agribank's policy stipulates a loan period of 25 years, and this category of farmer is envisioned as successful that he/she can repay the entire loan well within that period. While the ideal is rarely achieved in any endeavor or aspect of life, some AALS farmers are approaching this 'ideal' livelihood trajectory.

Through the cyclical trajectory, AALS beneficiaries had started farming, acquired livestock in communal areas, then bought a commercial farm under the AALS program, but later faced dire financial straits so they sold either parts of or in some cases the entire farm to settle debt. It is likely that those who sold their farms returned to communal areas.

The 'part-time' trajectory is the same as both the 'ideal' and 'cyclical' trajectories in the beginning – in terms of switching from communal to commercial farming under the AALS. These farmers engage in full-time or part-time off-farm employment to support farming activities and in the end he/she resigns/retires (or would like to retire/resign) to become a full-time AALS farmer.

Lastly, the 'Broekskeur en vasbyt' or 'neither here nor there' describes the trajectory of mostly especially full-time AALS farmers throughout Namibia. In short, these farmers struggle to make ends meet, but repay the AALS loan every year, even if it is by a miracle.

Some farmers in resettlement groups also experience the 'welfare trajectory'. This occurs when a farm worker loses his/her job and thus becomes unemployed, then, as the beneficiary enters a group resettlement program, he engages in income-generating activities outside of the program, but struggles to survive and is dependent on remittances from the state and/or assistance from donors.

Along with these, there is also an expansionist trajectory that represents most AALS farmers' aspirations, although it has not been achieved yet.

2.13 FARM LABOUR

According to Werner & Kruger (2017), when farm workers are taken into account, the effect of redistribution of land on aggregate poverty levels is further diminished. A small number of

farm workers benefited from land redistribution. Although there have not been much data on this, people assume that the majority of workers on farms purchased by the state for redistribution had to leave the farms at some point. This implies a loss of employment without any compensation. To date, there is no integrated plan to accommodate farm workers within the broader framework of land reform and rural development. This issue of farm workers is a challenging one for the Namibian government and land reform. Currently, one farm worker and his dependents could live on and be supported by approximately 1,000 ha of freehold farmland.

According to the Land Reform Advisory Commission's guidelines, settlers in the central and northern cattle ranching regions should receive at least 1,000 ha of grazing land, and at least 3,000 ha or more in the more arid south. However, by evicting farm workers in favor of new settlers, government would be solving one problem by creating a new one: a large number of unemployed farm workers. Through this, one can assume that redistributive land reform has a limited ability to reduce poverty significantly.

Through resettlement, employment in agriculture is expected to increase.

One third of beneficiary households depended on family labour, while 57% of beneficiary households employed one-two workers, according to the PTT survey. There was 1 worker per 1,000 hectares in households that had been resettled, indicating no increased labour was created through freehold settlements.

Resettlement farmers were also penalizing labourers, as the average wage paid was below the minimum wage required by law. Similarly, it was not uncommon for food rations to be slightly lower than the legal requirements. Among the reasons given for this state of affairs were that the beneficiaries were just beginning their farming careers and could not expect to pay high wages, and the workers failed to work a full day due to a lack of constant supervision (Werner & Odendaal, 2017).

2.14 LAND USE FOR AGRICULTURE

The viability of the current land reform model and the size of minimum farms remain controversial. Sustainable farm size is determined largely by how economically viable it is in the commercial sense. In the National Land Policy, the requirement that economic viability of farms be maintained prior to the subdivision of large scale farms was clearly outlined.

In terms of the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act, the Land Reform Advisory Commission (LRAC) determines what is a viable unit. The LRAC is composed of stakeholders from various sectors and line ministries. As a result, the LRAC was left to determine the minimum farm size, an acknowledgement that the number of farming units needed to achieve profit levels was not limited to economic factors alone. Although there is a cut-off point under which land can no longer be farmed economically, any area above this cut-off depends on the income expectations people have.

The smaller the farms in arid regions, the more vulnerable they are to droughts. Farmers on small farms have very few options for integrating highly flexible farming techniques. Moreover, climate change will further compound this problem in semi-arid and arid regions of the world. It was only possible to receive such levels of income under certain circumstances. The farmers were required to make full use of their farming units as a fundamental condition. Furthermore, the success of the current small-scale model depends on:

- Beneficiaries must have sufficient livestock or have the means to own it.
- If beneficiaries do not have sufficient herds to fully utilize the unit, they will need to access off-farm income or other financing options in order to sustain their cash needs until the production system produces a surplus.
- Beneficiaries should have experience managing medium-sized enterprises (such as a 1,000-ha farm), or at least the potential to manage such enterprises.

In the above calculations, the risks associated with farming in an environment with unpredictable and unreliable rainfall have not been taken into consideration. Consequently, income and expenditure are expected to fluctuate greatly over time. Furthermore, the small size of farming units coupled with the need to use them fully in terms of stocking rates prevents

small-scale farmers from practicing flexible range management. PTT states that such strategies are crucial for mitigating the effects of drought on grazing areas, livestock, along with people. Loans or credit can be used to make beneficiaries more resilient and provide them with enough stock to fully utilise their farms and withstand shocks. Consequently, the profitability and robustness of a farm of a certain size depend to some extent on the kind of support it can receive (both financial and technical).

In light of the above information, it appears that the current small-scale farming settlement model may not meet the needs of the poor. In the absence of relevant skills and assets on the land, poor people are unlikely to sustain themselves on the land. Several beneficiaries have struggled to utilize their land to the fullest extent and have to rely on alternative sources of income in order to survive.

According to Werner and Odendaal (2010), small-scale commercial farming units are Namibia's predominant model for land reform and resettlement. According to the National Resettlement Policy, in the higher rainfall areas, in each agro-ecological region, a viable commercial/subsistence farm has a minimum size of 1000 ha, and in the more arid southern regions is 3000 ha. Beneficiaries are expected to be able to live independently on these units. In accordance with its own objectives and criteria, the current small-scale commercial farming model is neither financially nor commercially viable. This observations is captured by rough gross margin calculations.

2.15 LAND USE FOR AGRICULTURE AND LIVELIHOOD

According to Kruger (2009), agriculture has been the backbone of most African countries for centuries, providing jobs for over 70% of the workforce and contributing more than half of a country's gross domestic product (GDP). Over 50 percent of the African youth leave primary and secondary schools, thus ending up in rural areas to work as farmers.

2.16 SOCIAL IMPACT OF LAND REFORM IN NAMIBIA

In determining what social impact Namibia's land reform process has had, one has to consider the fact that the reform process has been gradual and conservative.

About 37,000 people from 6,600 families had been resettled by November 2003. Reforms will continue to be slow due to a lack of financial resources as well as a lack of political will.

By the mid-1990s, however, less than 20 freehold farms had been acquired for redistribution, while N\$20 million per year would have been allocated for the purchase of land for resettlement under the 1995–2000 and 2001–2005 National Development Plans.

The pace of reform, however, is still "too slow" for many Namibians, despite these financial commitments which have accelerated farm acquisitions (Werner 2003).

2.17 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter commences with discussing the history of land ownership in Namibia based on race and class during the colonial period, under apartheid laws. The chapter progresses with detailing land ownership in Namibia currently, thirty-one years post-independence. It discusses the current land reform laws and what the government's aims were and are in terms of land reform. The processes and the social impacts related to land reform are also discussed briefly such as the introduction of the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework, which is further discussed in the next chapter, chapter three, the theoretical framework.



CHAPTER 3

3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 INTRODUCTION

According to UNDP (2017), a livelihood refers to the skills, assets (both social and material) and methods communities and individuals use to survive. Sustainability is the ability for individuals and communities to cope with stress and/or crises as well as maintain existing assets and skills without relying on natural resources. A tool called the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF) is used in order to better understand how people develop and maintain their livelihoods. This framework is used to analyze how various factors can impact subsistence decisions, as well as how these factors interact with one another. The SLF approach will be used to look at how previously disadvantaged groups maintain their livelihoods through land use and agriculture.

3.2 SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS FRAMEWORK

According to Krantz (2001), the SL approach has three insights into poverty. Firstly, despite the fact that economic growth is necessary for poverty reduction, there is no automatic connection between the two, since it depends on the ability of the poor to take advantage of the expanding economic opportunities.

Secondly, the poor have defined poverty as not only characterised by income, but also by poor health, illiteracy, a lack of social services, etc., along with vulnerability and feelings of powerlessness in general.

As a final point, it is now recognized that the poor themselves often know what they need and how to improve it. They should, therefore, be part of developing policies and projects aimed at improving their situation. The SL concept cannot be applied in a unified way.

According to Solesbury (2003), The Department for International Development (DFID) adopted the 'sustainable livelihoods approach' (or SLA), as a core principle of its pro-poor policymaking strategy in the White Paper on international development released in 1997. The concept of SLA first appeared in the 1980s, and its inclusion in the White Paper marked its transition to policy. Using context, evidence and links, this Working Paper describes the

success of this transfer from research to practice and policy, identifies defining events in the narrative, and examines how it was achieved.

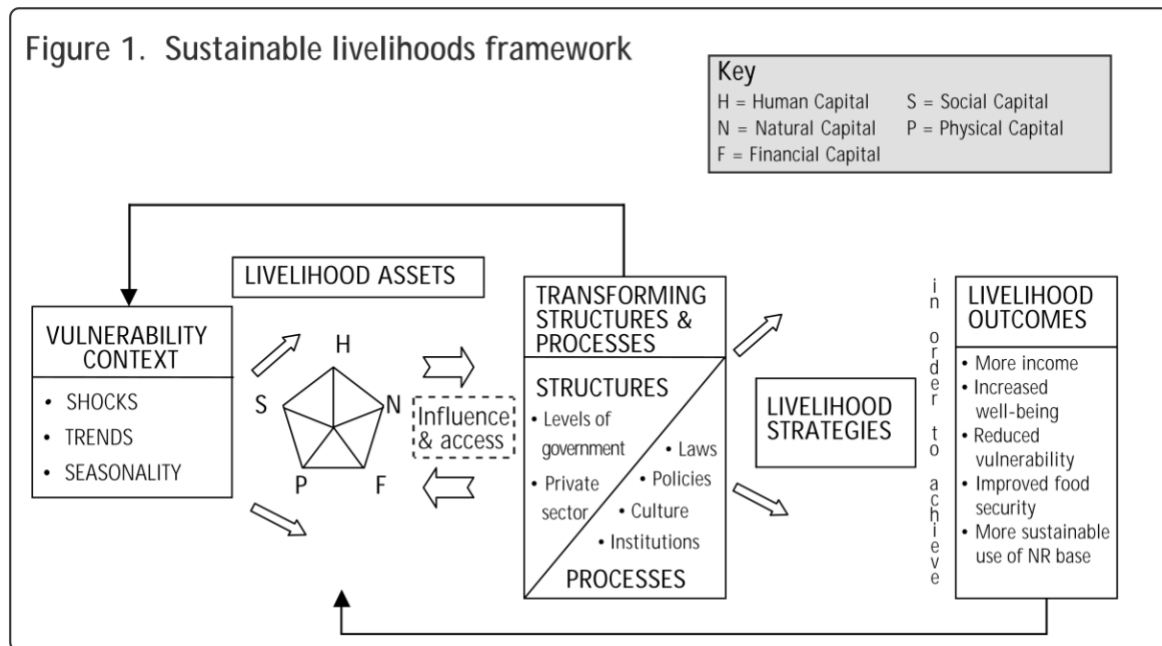


Figure 1

Source: DFID, 1999.

To understand livelihoods, the SLF adopts a systems approach, and provides ideas based on:

- The goods or money which people need;
- The way in which people earn a living;
- The context in which a particular type of support is intended;
- Any factor that could strengthen the ability of subsistence to cope during stressful times.

According to UNDP (2017), this framework, illustrated in Figure 1, includes interrelationships that are influenced by context, behaviours, capital, institutional influences, and dynamic subsistence strategies. A high probability exists that there is a strong connection between: (a) the structures and processes for change along with the level of vulnerability in a given context, and (b) the level of achievement regarding livelihoods and the assets which influence livelihoods.

In the diagram, the arrows indicate several highly dynamic relationships.

There is a degree of influence in all the arrows, but no direct causal link is indicated. The diagram summarizes the main components of the livelihoods ecosystem, as well as key factors influencing them. It does not provide a comprehensive list of the factors to be considered, and should be adapted to meet the needs of individual project needs.

Essentially, as stated by Krantz (2001), SL provides a more methodical and integrated method for addressing poverty.

3.3 HISTORY AND DEFINITION

According to Krantz (2001), UNDP (United Nations Development Programme), DFID (Department For International Development), and CARE (Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere) all apply the SL approach differently.

UNDP uses the SL approach primarily as a framework for identifying and implementing integrated support activities to enhance vulnerable and poor groups' resilience, adaptive and coping strategies. Though this is an open-ended process, improvements in technologies as well as economic and social investments are given certain consideration. In addition, governance and policy issues that affect the livelihoods of people are discussed. Many of the support activities are organized as part of specific SL programs, typically implemented at a district level with implications at the household and community levels. Organizations such as CARE are mandated to provide relief assistance and development programs to the neediest and most vulnerable in society.

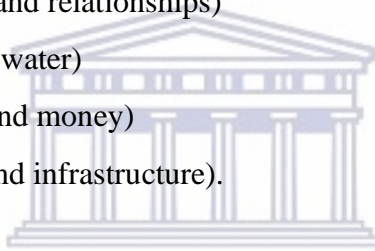
CARE has been using the Household Livelihood Security (HLS) concept as a framework for analyzing, designing, monitoring, and evaluating its programmes since 1994. HLS is derived from the classic definition of livelihoods developed by Chambers and Conway (1992), which integrates three fundamental elements: human capabilities (such as knowledge, skills, health, and psychological orientation); physical access to assets; and economic activity. How these three factors interact determines what type of livelihood strategy a household will adopt.

CARE aims to strengthen poor people's capacities so they can take initiative in securing their own livelihoods. It emphasizes empowerment as a fundamental aspect of its approach. The primary objective of DFID since 1997 has been to eradicate poverty. Among the three specific objectives is to promote sustainable livelihoods by developing policies and actions. DFID's definition is based upon the IDS (Institute of Development Studies) definition, which is a

modified version of the original Chambers and Conway definition: A livelihood is the combination of capabilities, assets (like material and social resources), and activities that enable you to earn a living. For a livelihood to be sustainable, it must be able to withstand and recover from potential/future shocks and stresses, as well as maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, and not depleting natural resources (Krantz, 2001).

According to Hall (2007), Sustainable livelihoods literature emphasized the need to ensure that Livelihoods improved in a sustainable manner, in addition to being a result of policy interventions. Thus, Sustainability requires that the improved outcomes last over time or continue to improve. There are five dimensions of livelihood assets, or capitals, in the well-known 'livelihoods pentagon', which illustrates these dimensions and the interdependence between them. They are the following:

- Human capital (education and skills)
- Social capital (networks and relationships)
- Natural capital (land and water)
- Financial capital (loans and money)
- Physical capital (assets and infrastructure).



Under its SL approach, DFID aims to enhance its poverty reduction effectiveness in two ways: by implementing a set of core principles for poverty-focused development based on people-centered approaches, responsive participation, multi-level implementation, sustainability, and dynamic operations. The second is to ensure that support activities are geared towards improving poor people's livelihoods by embracing a holistic approach. The SL Framework is a central element of DFID's approach, an analytical structure that shows how various factors relate to each other and constrain or enhance livelihood opportunities. The SL approach is used by all three agencies to alleviate poverty.

Their definitions of what constitutes sustainable livelihoods are also similar. Although UNDP and CARE use it to plan four specific projects and programmes, DFID uses it more as a framework for analysis as opposed to using it as a procedure for programming. Furthermore, the primary focus of CARE is the improvement of household livelihoods in a community. UNDP and DFID work at the community level as well, but emphasize the importance of tackling policy environments, macroeconomic reforms, and legislation to reduce poverty effectively (Krantz, 2001).

According to Solesbury (2003), the sustainable livelihoods approach (SLA) has been well aligned with its institutional and political context in a number of ways. The SLA conformed to broader shifts in development approaches in the 1980s and 1990s, focusing on wellbeing and sustainability rather than economic growth.

NGOs and supportive researchers had negotiated this shift throughout 1987 and within the first UNDP Human Development Report in 1990. The mid-1990s brought a new perspective to DFID as it sought to redefine its role and approach international development with a distinctive and timely approach during the change of government in 1997. During the early 1990s, the sustainable livelihoods approach was able to win the attention of key policy-makers in a number of donor institutions, DFID in 1997, as well as Natural Resources Department staff, who were used to competing theoretical and empirical knowledge. There were a number of factors that led to this attempt's success - including a broader international climate that encouraged people-centred approaches, and a need to establish a new phase of DFID's development practices.

According to Knutsson (2006), the purpose of the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework is a good example of knowledge reconfiguration. Research methods (participatory research, surveys, qualitative interviews) are complemented by a wide range of variables (food security, income generation, natural resource access, social mobilization, etc.), within one single framework, knowledge is reconfigured.

3.4 CORE PRINCIPLES OF SLF

According to Saab (2009), the key principles of SLF include the following:

- People-centred
- Holistic
- Multi-level
- Responsive and Participatory
- Done in partnership
- Sustainable - Economically, institutionally, socially and environmentally
- Dynamic

As a framework for understanding how people live, the livelihoods perspective, originally developed in the 1990s, remains widely acknowledged. For a while, it was out of style partly due to the fact that it was rooted in a development approach (as opposed to a research one) which also fell out of style - as development approaches usually do.

Yet it seems that it is again being used more widely, and one would hope that it will be applied with greater rigor this time, since in the past 20 years, we have gained a more nuanced understanding of its limitations. In developing countries, the livelihoods approach was a response to overtly technical and technocratic approaches, which were primarily geared towards improving agricultural productivity and efficiency. Although they provided technical advice, their apolitical perspectives meant they did not explicitly analyse why people made their choices or what restrictions they might face in applying different 'solutions'. An understanding of livelihoods has in its core a preoccupation with knowing how different groups of people live and the reasons behind the choices they make. Consequently, it rejects the ideas that the wellbeing of people can be understood by analyzing merely the technical or financial factors that determine how people earn their living, or that this is an adequate basis for designing policies or interventions that will lead to improved social outcomes.

Two perspectives often seen as polar opposites are brought together in a livelihoods approach. One aspect of this theory is that it takes people as active agents who can make their own decisions and come up with their own strategies.

Furthermore, it has essentially become what is now commonly referred to as a political economy analysis, because it examines how people's possibilities and choices are shaped by the larger structures of society within which they live - politics, power, institutions, culture, and so on. In essence, a good livelihoods analysis is not easy because it requires holding two radically different perspectives simultaneously.

It is important to embrace the multiple forms and variety of livelihoods of people, avoiding the easy generalisations of certain macroeconomic and planning approaches less likely to be applicable to the poor or to those in conflict; As well, it must speak from the perspective of society as a whole, rather than just the individual and household, and avoid the apolitical thinking that can often be seen in development (Levine, 2014).

According to UNDP (2017), in order to apply the SLF, one needs to understand vulnerability in a particular context, a strategy for securing livelihoods, and an analysis of different types of capital, which were briefly discussed above. These are:

- **Human Capital:** The ability to engage in different strategies and achieve one's own livelihoods depends on a number of factors, including work skills, experiences, and physical health.
- **Social Capital:** The social resources that populations will rely on in order to achieve their goals.
- **Natural Capital:** The natural resources (water, soil, air, genetic resources, etc.) that can be used as inputs to create additional benefits, including food chains, protection against soil erosion, and resources for livelihoods.
- **Physical Capital:** The production inputs and basic infrastructure needed to support and sustain livelihoods.
- **Financial Capital:** The financial resources such as money of which people use in order to achieve their objectives in terms of livelihoods.

3.5 LIMITATIONS OF USING SLF

According to Levine (2014), there have been distinct types of criticism aimed at the frameworks. On a theoretical basis, critics have criticized the SLF for a perceived inability to address pertinent issues like violence and conflict or gender relations, or for emphasising material assets and economics in an unfair way.

According to Saab (2009), other types of criticism include the following: lack of practical experience, inability to deal with politics and rights, time consuming and expensive, the need for multidisciplinary teams and specialist training, the difficulty of quantifying information collected through SLA and finally, no defined role for markets/economics. Moreover, none of the SL methods discussed here addresses how to identify the poor who are being assisted. Also, the distribution of local resources and livelihood possibilities may be impacted by informal social-dominance and power structures.

CARE and UNDP do not mention power relations, but DFID emphasizes them as one aspect of examining 'transforming processes'. Social relations are shaped by gender, and to the extent that the relations between men and women are marked by marked inequality and social dominance, this is clearly part of the problem. While all three agencies pay some attention to

gender, they do not really address the issue of giving women the time and space they deserve. The main principle in SL is to start with an open-ended and broad analysis - but that requires highly flexible planning conditions, which rarely arise. It is vital that already identified/decided sector development initiatives complement people's livelihood strategies and improve their capacity to cope with the constraints and opportunities common among the poor. It is possible to apply some of the SL approach to this end. Finally, SL may be too far out of reach for many local development administrations if it is applied consistently, giving rise to the risk that it remains a donor project and a consultant initiative.

In order to prevent this from occurring, counterpart staff should be involved in the decision-making process from the get-go, and be trained on using the approach, or start with a simplified version (Krantz, 2002).

3.6 STRENGTHS OF USING SLF

According to Krantz (2001), this approach emphasizes the multiplicity of resources people use to build their livelihoods, producing a broader perspective of which resources matter to the poor, including physical resources, as well as human and social capital. This approach also facilitates a better understanding of poverty by highlighting how multiple factors at various levels influence or constrain how poor people have access to resources and assets of different kinds and thereby determine or constrain their livelihoods. Basically, the model provides a more realistic assessment of whether direct or indirect effects can be realized on people's living conditions than one-dimensional productivity criteria or income criteria.

According to Saab (2009), positive aspects include the following:

- An analysis of development problems from a broad perspective
- Instead of focusing on project objectives, consider livelihood outcomes
- Analysis of complexity
- The principles are clearly identified and all this makes it easier to predict potential impacts and outcomes.

For three reasons, the SL system has been used to reduce poverty. First, we must realize that even though economic growth is vital for reducing poverty, there is no link between the two, as it all depends on whether the poor can take advantage of growing economic opportunities.

Consequently, for appropriate support to be provided to the poor, it is important to identify what exactly constrains or hinders them from improving their situation. Secondly, it is becoming increasingly apparent that poverty - as perceived by the poor themselves – includes other dimensions such as illiteracy, poor health, and a lack of social services as a state of vulnerability and feelings of powerlessness in general. In addition, since different dimensions of poverty are interconnected, it is becoming apparent that even improvements in one aspect of poverty can have positive repercussions on the other. Increasing a person's educational level may improve their health standards, which in turn may improve their productivity. As a result of reducing the vulnerability of poor people to risk, they may be more likely to engage in previously untested but more productive economic activities, and so on. Lastly, it is now recognized that the poor themselves often know best their own situation and needs, and as such they should be involved in the design of policies and projects intended to improve their lives. They are more likely to follow through on their ideas if they have some say in the design. The poor's participation in a project therefore improves its performance (Krantz, 2001).

3.7 APPLICABILITY OF SLF TO THE STUDY

According to Krantz (2001), the vast majority of conversation on SL so far has been about rural areas and people who farm or make a living from primary self-managed production. Moreover, in developing countries, the livelihoods approach was a reaction to overtly technical approaches, which mainly focused on improving agricultural productivity and efficiency (Levine 2014).

The reason why the SLF approach is applicable and relevant to this study is through land used for agricultural purposes. Agriculture is a livelihood for many people. It is also important to look at how sustainable these livelihoods are, by observing these individuals' and communities' ability to counter stress and/or crisis, and to maintain existing skills and assets without exploiting the supply of natural resources. The Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act specifies that agricultural units must be used exclusively for agricultural activities and ancillary activities. The minister may grant an exception. Livestock farming is the most common form of agriculture among land reform beneficiaries. 87 percent of resettlement beneficiaries were livestock farmers, according to one survey. However, for 71% of beneficiaries and their households, earnings from off-farm sources were their primary source

of income. Off-farm income contributed between 55 and 100 percent of beneficiary household income in 2004 (Werner and Kruger, 2007).

3.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework was explained in detail from its history, definition and changes from its introduction in 1987. SLF was also discussed in terms of its principles, limitations, strengths including its applicability to this study. The design and methodology will be discussed and described in chapter four.



CHAPTER 4

4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This study's methods and plan are outlined in Chapter 4. In chapter four, the methodology for the research study is outlined as well as the steps that will be taken throughout the study. Essentially, chapter four outlines the methodology of the research study and the plan that will be followed throughout. This chapter outlines the entire research methodology, including the research paradigm, the methodological paradigm, and the research approach. A sampling method is then designed using this information. In Chapter four, we also discuss how the study will be reported, the method of data analysis that will be used, and the ethical concerns associated with the study.

4.2 DEFINITION OF RESEARCH

Research is defined as the systematic effort of individuals to understand a phenomenon in order to increase their knowledge of it (Anrusha, 2019).

When research is undertaken, it is often to find a solution to a problem or to generate new knowledge or inventions (Mouton, 2001).

4.3 WHAT IS RESEARCH METHOD AND METHODOLOGY?

Researchers collect data using research methods. For a particular project, the research method may include interviews, observation, or data collection via written or visual means. Research methodology⁷ refers to the principles and philosophy that guide research. Researchers need research methodology as a guide on how to learn or solve problems (Anrusha, 2019).

4.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF RESEARCH DESIGN

In conjunction with research design, the research process or methodology is a constructing process in which methods and tools are employed under the guidance of research design. The design of the study expresses how it is intended to accomplish specific objectives. In choosing the methodology and process of research, we consider both the end result and the importance

of the result. In all research, it is therefore imperative to discuss the underlying philosophical assumptions, the approach, the strategy, the research design and the methodology (Mouton, 2001)

4.5 EXPLORATIVE STUDY, DESCRIPTIVE STUDY AND CAUSAL STUDY

4.5.1 Explorative Study

An exploratory study is appropriate when researchers do not have a clear understanding of the problems they will encounter during the study. Explorative studies are conducted to understand a problem, help solve it, and to confront any new problems that may arise. Non-probability sampling is used in exploratory research, specifically judgmental or purposive sampling. The purpose of exploratory research is to address research questions that are in the early stages of development (Anrusha, 2019).

4.5.2 Descriptive Study

In descriptive statistics, data is summed up and described so that it is clear and understandable. In descriptive analysis, raw data is converted into descriptions of elementary characteristics, such as central tendency, distribution, and variability (Jenkins, 2021).

In descriptive research, the purpose is to shed light on current problems by gathering data that enables researchers to describe the situation more completely than was possible without this technique. The descriptive technique uses probability (random) sampling design (Anrusha, 2019).

4.5.3 Causal Study

A causal (explanatory) research design reveals how one variable affects, or explains, another variable. Explanatory research aims to explain why certain events occur and it predicts future events. Most causal design researchers assume that changes in one variable (independent variable) will lead to changes in another (dependent variable) and that the two variables thus correlate with one another (Anrusha, 2019).

4.6 RESEARCH PROCESS

The conceptual map of the complete research process was established using the 6Ps framework of Oates. The 6Ps of research consist of the following:

1. The purpose
2. The product(s)
3. The process
4. The participants
5. The paradigm
6. The presentation.

A thesis is described as a logical argument supported by references to the work of others and by the author's own actions, thoughts and suggestions (Mouton, 2001).

4.7 RESEARCH STRATEGY

A research strategy connects researcher philosophy with data collection and analysis techniques. As the researcher attempts to answer the research question, the research strategies layer emphasizes the use of one or more strategies (Anrusha, 2019).

In literature a diverse number of research strategies are discussed such as the following: ethnography, grounded theory, case studies and surveys. Grounded theory is a qualitative approach that uses existing data to generate and validate theories as a method of study in ethnography. A case study strategy refers to an empirical study of a particular phenomenon, case, or incident over time in order to establish and draw generalizations. Lastly, a survey method uses a representative sample of the population to examine causal variables of different data types and follows a quantitative methodology (Kana, 2017).

4.8 CHOICE OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.8.1 Quantitative

In quantitative research, the aim is generally to present a broad picture of the population as a whole. Quantitative study plans are specific, structured, reliable, and valid, and are explicitly defined and recognised. Quantitative research involves empirical evaluations that include mathematical measurements and analyses in order to determine research objectives. Once a correlation is revealed in a quantitative study, the researcher should determine why the correlation exists (Jenkins, 2021).

4.8.2 Qualitative

Researchers will be able to study complex phenomena within a context by using qualitative methods such as interviews, observations, and documents. A qualitative study informs the researcher how and why effects occur. This type of research focuses on understanding, explaining, describing, uncovering, and clarifying situations, emotions, attitudes, perceptions, meanings, and morals of people within the social sphere (Jenkins, 2021).

This research is based on and seeks to investigate the state of land reform in Namibia. This research follows a qualitative research methodology.

4.8.3 Mixed methods

In the research process phase of a study, or series of studies to understand the research problem completely, the process of collecting, analyzing, and combining quantitative and qualitative data is defined as research. It has been proposed that mixed methodology is the use of a mixture of focused and probability sampling approaches, open-ended and closed-ended data collection techniques, and narrative and multivariable analysis.

The mixed approach refers to a method of study combining qualitative and quantitative data in an orderly manner. Research designs that combine both methods can be categorized as mixed method based on questions, methodologies, data collection, and analysis inferences (Anrusha, 2019).

4.9 TIME HORIZON

Time horizon (cross-sectional or longitudinal) refers to the idea of a deadline or possibility of completing the study. There could be a snapshot taken during a specific time period, called a cross-sectional snapshot, or a series of snapshots taken over a long time period, called a longitudinal snapshot. The study will use the cross-sectional approach since it will be conducted within a specific timeframe. In addition, most academic research projects are time-limited, and most researchers examine a particular phenomenon at a particular time (Anrusha, 2019).

4.10 TECHNIQUES AND PROCEDURES

In a study, the techniques and procedures ensure that the data collection methods and analyses used in a study, are appropriate and understandable. It is imperative to employ appropriate

techniques and procedures to facilitate a better understanding of research objectives and findings. Therefore, an appropriate research process was ensured by utilizing the onion layer. In the following sections, the following will be examined: the sample population and methods used, as well as measuring instruments and the importance of validity and reliability.

4.11 POPULATION

Refers to the total collection of objects or individuals that are being considered for research. A researcher must also determine the requirements that must be met by the population so that the results can be generalized (Jenkins, 2021).

4.12 TARGET POPULATION SAMPLING POPULATION

In research questions, the target population is the event, person, or record that has the sought after information. A researcher may obtain the sample from a group of items that has similar characteristics, which is called the population (Jenkins, 2021).

In this study, the target population is Namibia.

4.13 MEASURING INSTRUMENT

According to several authors, researchers use a variation of instruments to collect data. The raw data is recorded using questionnaires, standardised tests, laboratory notes, observational forms, and calibration logs. Primary data are usually collected using one of three methods: observation, interview, or questionnaire (Jenkins, 2021).

4.14 SECONDARY RESEARCH

Some social research questions are possible to be investigated by using data collected prior by other researchers or for other purposes outside of research, this is secondary research. In essence, any primary data type can be used as secondary data (Hox and Boeijs, 2005).

This study will only use secondary data – which is data that has already been written/conducted. This data will be used to answer the research questions and provide information for recommendations and the conclusion. The secondary data will consist of books, journals, articles, newspapers, websites, government records, policy documents, theses and published

work. The issue of land reform in Namibia is a quite common one, therefore the researcher would employ secondary data and publicly available data to carry out the full research.

4.15 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

Validity refers to the credibility of the findings. A simpler way to understand would be to consider how well the findings represent the truth in the objective world. Validity is determined by whether the results of a test accurately reflect the phenomena being studied and the test actually measures what it should be measuring. This indicates that a measuring instrument needs to be valid before it can be adopted in a study.

Reliability is based on the accuracy and precision of the measurement. Measurement quality is linked to reliability. The reliability of a study contributes to its credibility. Also, it emphasizes that if the study is repeated, there is no difference in results. For a study to be considered reliable and consistent, it must yield the same results every time. The reliability of a measure refers to the consistency (Govender, 2017)

4.16 PRETESTING

According to Babonea and Voicu (2011), pretesting generally refers to testing a set of questions on individuals who belong to the target population before the survey goes live, and it dates back to the founding of the modern survey, in the mid 1930s.

Pretests may be conducted both in the field and in the office. It is common to conduct pretests with methods that are anticipated for the main study on the target population. Pretesting should be conducted by experienced interviewers, according to most researchers, as they would be better at spotting errors and identifying problems. In addition, two types of pretests are available for survey questionnaires: participating (declared) and undeclared.

Participating (declared) pretests require informing the respondents that it is a pretest. The idea here is to involve the participants in the pretest in this activity rather than have them simply fill out a questionnaire as if that's all they have to do. They should be asked about their reactions to the questions, their wording, and how they have been arranged.

Respondents can also be asked to rephrase a question in their own words, to think aloud as they formulate an answer, or to do other things that will be briefly discussed.

The purpose of this pretesting technique is to ascertain whether the questionnaire has been understood by the respondents by asking them to provide their immediate reactions and thoughts. However, respondents are not notified that they are participating when an undeclared pretest is being conducted. In this case, pretesting is conducted in a similar way to that of the actual survey. A post-interview survey of respondents can be conducted in connection with individual questions or answers, however, the number and scope of the survey questions will be much smaller and more narrow than in the case of a declared pretest. Its purpose is to determine how well the survey questions "flow", whether the skip patterns work, and how much time is needed to complete the interview. By conducting a pretest, we are able to determine whether our choice of analysis and standardization is correct.

4.17 PILOT STUDY

An intended outcome of a pilot study is to check the feasibility of the intended project outcome. Pilot studies evaluate the questionnaire for face validity, content validity, construct validity, as well as reliability, so it can be eliminated from the main study if it contains ambiguous, incoherent, and incomprehensible items. An established and widely-accepted method of assessing reliability and validity is the pilot study (Kana, 2017).

4.18 TYPES OF DATA SOURCES

There are several ways to collect data or information (Mouton, 2001).

Data can be categorized into two categories: primary and secondary. The primary data in a study is obtained through direct observation of the phenomenon under study. In contrast, secondary data is retrieved through other media, including internal or external reports, magazines, or websites, as well as books and scholarly journal articles. Secondary data is not data that was attained first hand, like primary data.

Primary data sources are the original data that a researcher uses for that specific research project. Primary data allows people to collect their own information, which improves research integrity and relevance (Anrusha, 2019).

This study will only use secondary data. The concept and theoretical construct of the study will be guided by secondary data sources.

4.19 DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

According to Govender (2017), Once a research design and a sample size are determined, the next step is to collect data. there are two main methods which include self-completion questionnaires and interviews. As questionnaires are distributed in large quantities simultaneously in a number of ways, they are considered less expensive. Additionally, it is considered to be less time-consuming. In this process, there are two disadvantages, including respondents not answering the questionnaire and non-response bias.

According to Kana (2017), in research, the method of data collection and the quality of the collected data are very important because they determine the integrity of the research output while the selection of the research approach (quantitative or qualitative) is linked to the type of data expected. According to Jenkins (2021), the collection of data can range from simple observations to a complex survey of multinational companies. The method chosen will largely determine how the data is collected. The purpose of research instruments is to collect information relevant to a research project. In addition to the data collection method to be used, a researcher should also consider the type of data to be collected, which may be primary or secondary in nature. Primary data is data which is original and collected for the first time whereas secondary data, is data collected and analysed by others.

This research study only makes use of secondary data. The secondary data was collected by conducting a literature review on the topic, along with the use of sources such as published books, journals and internet articles.

4.19.1 Advantages of Secondary research

According to Cheng & Phillips (2014), the benefits of using the secondary research approach include the following:

- It does not require a lot of time since information is available, it would simply depend on how much information is needed
- Low cost or free
- It allows other researchers to generate new insights from the previous analysis
- There is a wide range of sources available

- It provides a wide range of information that has been developed over time. This helps in determining different trends and data can be compared over time

4.19.2 Disadvantages of Secondary research

According to Cheng & Phillips (2014), the disadvantages of using the secondary research approach include the following:

- Secondary data is collected in the past therefore the data may be out-of-date at the time at which it is needed
- Secondary research is available to anybody therefore findings can be similar and not unique as per each researcher
- Secondary data sources can give you a huge amount of information, but quantity does not always mean that one will get the appropriate information they need

4.20 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

In terms of ethics, we examine how research is to be conducted in a moral and responsible manner. Researchers are required to respect ethical considerations of participants when they administer questionnaires or conduct (individual or group) interviews permitted by an ethics committee. Furthermore, if the research has a negative impact on participants, the researcher will be held responsible and accountable for that impact (Anrusha, 2019).

The concept of research ethics involves finding out what kind of behavior is acceptable and permissible in the research process. There is a dual meaning to research ethics. It may be applied to research involving humans, animals, or the environment or it may pertain to the integrity and honesty of the researcher (Mouton, 2001).

According to Jenkins (2021), ethical issues and considerations exist in research, as they do in all human interactions. Ethics in research refers to the way a researcher conducts themselves towards the rights of those who are a subject of that research, as well as those who are affected by that research. Research ethics pertains to questions regarding research topic formulation and clarification, research design and access, data gathering, data analysis and storage, data analytics, and the results of research. The purpose of ethics in research is to ensure that no harmful or adverse effects occur as a result of research. Anyone involved in research needs to understand what constitutes proper and improper conduct. In designing research, researchers

should consider ethical concerns involving the research subjects, the sponsors, the researcher, and the research team.

As stated above, this research will be based strictly on secondary data. The issue of land reform in Namibia is a quite common one, therefore I would use secondary data to carry out the full research. This research will therefore not be subject to any ethical issues.

4.21 INFORMED CONSENT

According to Mandal and Parija (2014), the principle of informed consent underpins any study based on the assumptions of autonomy and self-determination. To be genuine and effective, it must be done in a language participant understands and caters to their cultural, psychological, and social needs. The consent form should contain true and complete information, and no information should be omitted, no matter how small or insignificant it may seem. During research, researchers place their health and lives at risk for the sake of science, and this must be respected at all times. Any research that involves human subjects must rely on informed consent as the basis for trust. Any research is incomplete without it. It's the central doctrine of any research. Researchers must adhere to it as a fundamental principle of research. Providing informed consent protects the subject's well-being by making sure they understand the nature, purpose, and risks of providing a biological sample or undergoing a medical intervention. Each research volunteer risks his/her life and health for the sake of science. The knowledge of this must be respected at all times during the research process. Consent is closely related to the principles of autonomy, self-determination, respect for human dignity and affirmation of human rights.

4.22 ANONYMITY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

According to Anrusha (2019), after the researcher obtains the respondent's approval, he or she is responsible for adhering to the procedures outlined in attaining anonymity and confidentiality, as shown below:

- Respondents should be informed of their right to decline to answer any questions or participate in the study;
- Obtain consent for interviewing respondents;

- Disclosure of any deception used with respondents, along with the reasons for using deception;
- Plan field interviews;
- Restricting access to data instruments where a respondent can potentially be recognized;
- Providing participant information only when there is written consent;
- Identification of respondents should be restricted.

4.23 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

According to Mouton (1996), data analysis is carried out by identifying themes and patterns in data and drawing conclusions from them.

According to Anrusha (2019), the purpose of this part is to explain the methods for capturing and analyzing quantitative and qualitative data. It will also cover statistical terminology and language used in both qualitative and quantitative data analysis. As the foundation for any statistical analysis in a study, understanding statistics and other statistical terms is vital.

When all the information has been collected and captured (now called data), quantitative descriptive statistics will normally be used to analyze the data. This study will use secondary data – which is data that has already been done. This data will be used to answer the research questions and provide information for recommendations and the conclusion.

4.24 STATISTICS

According to Walpole (1974), statistics involves the systematic collection of data, systematization and summarization of information using tables, graphs, and numbers, as well as interpretation of data, often used to answer research questions.

They are methods for describing, organizing, and interpreting information (data). After collecting the data, descriptive statistics are used to describe it, and then inferential statistics are used to interpret it. The problem is identified by the following:

1. Ask a question
2. State your hypothesis
3. Determine the independent variable

4. Determine the dependent variable
5. Choose the appropriate statistical test

4.25 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter described and explained the research and research design, as well as the methodology, plans and steps that was applied in this study. This chapter also discussed possible ethical concerns. The results and analysis will be discussed in chapter five.



CHAPTER 5

5. DATA ANALYSIS & INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will look at factors which contribute to the progress of the land reform process, along with what has been achieved thus far, and ways in which the process can be improved. This chapter also looks at the policy changes over time and the land for the use of agriculture.

5.2 FACTORS AFFECTING THE LAND REFORM PROCESS

According to Geingob (2005), the land reform process is often not planned or coordinated well, with little or no participation by affected communities. There seems to be little progress in addressing the historical legacies of dispossession and overcrowding in communal areas as a result of the redistribution of land. Moreover, it obstructs meaningful participation of communities in land allocation, tenure, and use (NNFU, 2003).

The Ministry of Lands stated that the original policies and objectives remain the same, the only change that was made is that they are now including well-off people from previously disadvantaged groups. As a result of these changes, the Ministry of Lands is not under enormous pressure economically, and the government has not exhausted its resources, such as those supporting services available to beneficiaries (Geingob, 2005). This is an issue because it is clear that land reform laws are not evolving over time but remaining the same regardless of societal and economical changes in the world such as the cost of living. This makes the land reform process slow and stagnant, which is not helpful. The policies must change over time, to match the needs of the population and to be sustainable.

According to Muller and Mbanga (2012), the SDFN (Shack Dwellers Federation of Namibia) is an organisation of almost 700 urban and rural savings groups serving approximately 20,000 households throughout Namibia. Initially known as the Saamstaan ("Standing Together") Housing Association, the SDFN adopted the Slum/Shack Dwellers International (SDI) methodology and became a federation. Saamstaan was founded in 1987 as a cooperative to address housing issues in the township of Katutura in Windhoek. The fact that people have

taken matters into their own hands by creating organizations to tackle housing, land issues and fighting for the rights of landless people shows a lot. This shows that the land reform process is too slow that people have to fight for change by themselves, without the help of the government.

5.3 POLICY/ LAWS AND CHANGES OVER TIME

Following independence in 1990, land reform has been focused on two ways to correct historical wrongs. Through the National Resettlement Programme, the government has the option of buying freehold land to resettle landless Namibians. It has followed the “willing seller, willing buyer” principle. Formerly disadvantaged people are able to acquire land through the Affirmative Action Loan Scheme of the Agricultural Bank of Namibia with subsidised loans. General dissatisfaction with the success of the land reform programme is growing and calls are being made for its review and for a new direction (Lenggenhager and Nghitevelekwa, 2018). Some people who own land may not want to sell their land to those previously disadvantaged people, which makes the process very slow and stagnant.

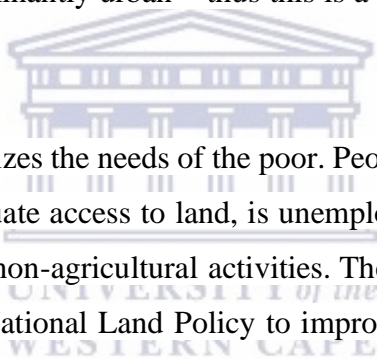
In 1990, the Namibian government held a National Conference on Land Reform and the Land Question in 1991, which laid the foundation for its land reform programme. As part of the Conference, solid foundations were laid for the formulation and implementation of a land reform policy and program. Despite not having binding authority, the conference made 24 resolutions that would form the foundation for land reform (Werner, 2001). Among these, a decision was made not to restore ancestral lands to those who were displaced by racially discriminatory legislation. Due to the complexity of the conflicts in land claims on freehold land, De Villiers (2003) writes that this makes the restitution process impossible.

As a result, individuals from historically disadvantaged backgrounds - not just those affected by land-grabbing - would be entitled to receive land (Hunter, 2004), which may not be fair to those previously disadvantaged.

The poor generally live together in communal areas, their access and rights to land should be enhanced and protected, for all. Fencing that has been erected illegally needs to be removed and prohibited in future Werner (2001). In order to achieve this, land allocation and administration in communal areas would need to be democratized while still keeping the respect of ethnic communities in terms of their rights and customs.

Another issue raised was the fact that foreigners and absentee landlords own and utilize commercial farms. Land ceilings and a land tax were proposed as an incentive for owners to sell underused and unutilised land, as well as to provide additional revenue for the state to acquire more land. In addition, there was a proposal to retain, develop, and expand communal areas (De Villiers, 2003). Such landowners, especially those that are absent from their land should be a main target for expropriation.

Namibia has high income inequality, despite a slight decrease over the past few years. The majority of households are poor and excluded from the housing market. Even middle income Namibians working in the public sector have difficulty finding affordable housing, including nurses, teachers, police officers, and military personnel. Namibia's most vulnerable workers, such as domestic workers, security guards and construction workers, as well as those employed in the informal economy, are far from finding adequate housing (Lühl and Guillermo 2018). The future of Namibia is predominantly urban – thus this is a unique opportunity to fight and eradicate poverty.



The National Land Policy prioritizes the needs of the poor. People who are poor are defined as being landless or having inadequate access to land, is unemployed (or is not active in formal employment), or is involved in non-agricultural activities. The National Resettlement Policy works in conjunction with the National Land Policy to improve the productivity of the poor through the acquisition and allocation of land. The Resettlement Policy states that beneficiaries should be able to independently support themselves after four years of government assistance (Werner and Odendaal 2010). The question arises whether the National Land Policy should focus on the needs of land of the poor or of the previously disadvantaged. Furthermore, some beneficiaries may not be able to support themselves after four years of the assistance they receive.

The Resettlement Policy does not specify what level of welfare settlers should attain. It merely states that ‘a target minimum income level has to be established’.

The income level of beneficiaries does not affect the selection process. In the policy, individuals who earn high incomes may qualify for resettlement if they fall into one of three categories. This may not be fair to individuals who earn low incomes and really need the assistance.

According to Werner & Odendaal (2010), land reform's emphasis on poverty reduction was reiterated by Cabinet, which stated in its retreat at the end of 2000 that a breakthrough in land reform would make a difference in the fight against poverty. Despite not being the only goal of land reform, poverty reduction through land redistribution and improved access to land has dominated public discussions over the success or failure of land reform. Part of this lies in the observation that most recipients are employed and are not in the category of the poor. Even though these concerns seem justified, they ignore the stated policy that disadvantaged Namibians in general should benefit from more equitable land distribution. Nevertheless, in official documents, the role of land reform in a wider rural development and poverty reduction program remains unclear.

In the Poverty Reduction Strategy for Namibia, which was approved by Cabinet in 1998, redistributive land reform is not regarded as aiding in poverty alleviation for a long period of time. There is an argument in the report that 'agriculture cannot provide a sustainable base for prosperity' and that in a quarter-century (25 years) from now urbanization will dominate.

According to Werner & Odendaal (2017), a concern was raised that the focus on resettlement as a means of assisting the landless and poor, particularly the San, may not have been wise, in retrospect. These concerns may explain why in later years, according to an annual report from the MLR, deserving beneficiaries should have an interest in agriculture or other businesses which were part of the resettlement program. A farmer who intends to farm with livestock should also own the number of animals determined by the project's carrying capacity. Beneficiaries should also be able to contribute to cost recovery initiatives, such as water payments. It eliminates those without livestock, jobs, or income from the category of potential beneficiaries. It is difficult to trace all the causes of these changes. One reason for the rethink on poverty reduction is the high cost of providing support for beneficiaries. The government was unable to provide the support that beneficiaries needed because of budgetary constraints cited in several annual reports. The Minister of Lands and Resettlement has stated in a 2003 article in the official newsletter of the Ministry of Lands and Resettlement that base support and food will no longer be available to beneficiaries on a monthly basis.

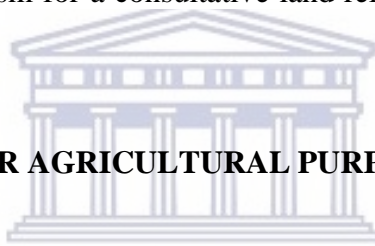
Despite these concerns, the MLR is conscious of the responsibilities of government to support the poor. As part of resettlement schemes, income-generating opportunities should be supported, as well as an opportunities to engage in off-farm employment for beneficiaries. In

essence, the prevailing resettlement model was not the best way to help the poor. It became apparent that an integrated approach, including income-generating activities off-farm, was necessary.

It is unclear whether land redistribution will lead to poverty alleviation or lead to the expected effects on poverty through increased access to land. There are no realistic and clear targets for redistribution of land, exacerbating the issue.

In terms of land acquisition, both NDPs set targets and the MLR exceeded those targets over the last ten years. However, these targets for redistribution are far too low when compared to official estimates of people in need of land. According to the original National Resettlement Policy, there were 80,000 people who were "unemployed, landless, and homeless" in 1997 and thus "eligible for resettlement".

It seems that the initial enthusiasm for a consultative land reform programme seems to have faded over the years.



5.4 THE NEED OF LAND FOR AGRICULTURAL PURPOSES

Land is an essential resource for sustainable livelihoods in rural communities. Most black Namibians are cut off from independent livelihoods due to land dispossession and forced into overcrowded "communal areas". Consequently, indigenous people have very few options for survival except to sell their labour. Those involved in land reform, as well as those representing landless communities, have been frustrated by the slow pace of the process (Geingob, 2005). The government should invest more into land for agricultural use as this would benefit many people and reduce poverty.

According to Geingob (2005), as a result of the land reform process, the social and economic standing of the beneficiaries have changed. Furthermore, it has transformed the agricultural economy through a remarkable deregulation and market-driven process that appears to benefit corporate and agribusiness interests. According to Melber (2018), about 48% of Namibia's land is privately owned. This land is owned by less than 5,000 mainly white farmers, while close to 2.5 million Namibians rely on communal land for their livelihood (approximately 17%

of the land is state-owned and largely nature reserves). Land ownership and distribution patterns reflect class inequalities and perpetuate racial inequalities.

5.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter is the analysis and interpretation chapter. It consists of the results and analysis of the entire study. In this chapter, the secondary data is presented, discussed and is interpreted. The history and factors that affect the land reform process in Namibia are evaluated. The laws governing land reform along with the progression of where land reform was during pre-independence and where it stands today and its future plans are also discussed. Thirdly, land use for agriculture is also evaluated with regards to benefiting livelihoods. The next chapter, chapter 6 looks into the limitations, further research, recommendations and conclusion of this study.



CHAPTER 6

6. CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

6.1 CONCLUSION

During the past 20 years, only 3,800 hectares of land have been acquired through the National Resettlement Programme and 6,400 hectares through the Affirmative Action Loan Scheme or private commercial banks. White people still own about 70% of the freehold agricultural land. Formerly disadvantaged people (black and colored) own only 16%. A fierce competition exists between the disadvantaged for the limited government-owned land that has been acquired for resettlement. In the process, a new elite has emerged which has close ties to government and international investors, rather than the most disadvantaged. An increase in demand for communal lands and the wide variety of uses for the land threaten customary rights and systems. There is an emergence of informal land markets in populated areas, which threatens people's security of tenure and user rights.

Namibia needs a comprehensive plan for agrarian reform in these areas. Land reform discussions fail to address how land is turned into capital or who benefits from it. Agriculturally, Profitable commercial farms are extremely rare, and the most lucrative farmlands are those with tourism, mining, conservation, or real estate potential. A majority of landowners are investing their capital inputs into more profitable businesses instead of investing it in their land.

It is clear that the issue of land is based on equality, justice, and on the other hand, productivity in the agricultural sector. For redistributive justice to be achieved, The Namibian government needs to examine where the profits gained from the capitalisation of land stolen during colonial times went. The Namibian government does not seem to have a clear vision of agrarian transformation, which has added onto the negative perceptions of the current land reform model. Urban land is where the real profits are made today, but most of it is still owned by the old elite. In Namibia, as in many other African countries, international conglomerates or Namibia's small elite no longer make profits from land ownership directly. These individuals gain wealth by having capital to invest, by knowing how to connect with global markets, or by owning urban land acquired through the sale of private farm land illegally acquired during

colonial and apartheid times. In the last few years, the majority of the people were never given the chance to acquire land or capital, meanwhile the elites benefited large portions of land and capital.

Due to all the current shortcomings in land reform, it suggests that voluntary and market-based land transactions of land are not suitable to redistribute wealth and land. The "policy" of national reconciliation has had one-sided effects. An avoidance strategy used to address Namibia's structural problems is the use of politics of national reconciliation. We need a more radical approach to redistribute land and capital. After this occurs, Namibia's previously disadvantaged people will have access to the country's wealth and land.

In addition to all this, government has not addressed the issue of poor support to beneficiaries, which is a concern. Post-settlement support and colonial governments' investment in agriculture have a vital role in agricultural development.

6.2 ASSESSMENT OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study was to compile data on land reform in Namibia.

The research is limited in that it does not consist of any new data but is based purely on existing literature.

6.3 LIMITATIONS AND THEMES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In the future, this comparative study may help gather more information needed for African, or even cross-continental research on this topic. This study has one major limitation. The limitation is that, although the topic is widely covered, this study only contains secondary data and no primary data. This leads to information being repetitive and not being as current. For further research, land reform case studies of specific geographical regions, or community-based studies, can be assessed as smaller units of analysis.

Further research on the various aspects of the land reform programme will require the participation of the various stakeholders (government departments, non-governmental organizations, commercial agriculture, and development planners). In this way, more statistics and data will be accessible and able to explain in detail how land reform works. Generally, This topic should be updated with more recent data and statistics to make it more relevant to current research times.

Further research of Namibian land reform in the pre-independence era in comparison until now would be beneficial in contributing to more data. Further research into the factors that have shaped the current land reform structures would be beneficial in contributing to more data.

The land reform process has not changed since independence in 1990. Further research on why this is, would be beneficial. Furthermore, further research of the legislative laws would be helpful.

The sustainable livelihoods framework provides a common conceptual approach to examining the ways in which agricultural research does not fit into the livelihood strategies of households or individuals with different types of assets and other resources. Therefore, further research should be developed in terms of preserving and using land for agricultural purposes so that it can benefit and create sustainable livelihoods.



6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following are central policy recommendations based on this study. Research and public engagement are required to further develop these recommendations, as they are not conclusive.

Recommendation 1

The Second National Development Plan (NDP 2) should elaborate on the specific ways in which land reform will assist a more comprehensive rural development strategy targeted at poverty reduction.

The following should be put into place:

- Define rural land reform beneficiary target groups in accordance with income demographics.
- Establish a clear eligibility criteria for rural land reform beneficiaries, taking into account gender relations in households.
- Define and identify available land (all types of land) and processes to access it as part of rural land reform and development strategies.

Recommendation 2

Integrate urban land reform into land reform.

The following should be put into place:

- Define urban land reform beneficiary target groups in accordance with income demographics (focusing on the "currently disadvantaged").
- Define and identify available land (government, public enterprise, municipal, and private land) and the processes to access it as part of urban land reform.
- Develop criteria for determining who should be eligible for urban land reform,
- Take into account the gender dynamics of households.

Recommendation 3

With regards to post-settlement support, there needs to be mechanisms in place for implementing an infrastructure support grant.

The following should be put into place:

- Create a once-off grant to ensure all beneficiaries have the same level of farm infrastructure as a starting point. The beneficiaries themselves will be responsible for funding further infrastructure development. To facilitate this process: subsidise the

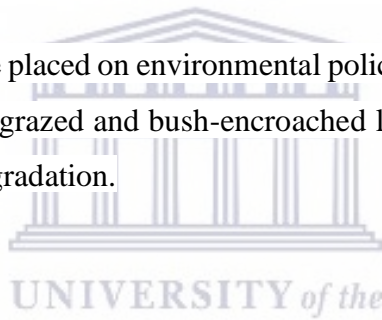
development of infrastructure on AALS and FURS farms, by creating financial assistance from Agribank to sustain the development and maintenance of existing infrastructure.

Recommendation 4

There are gaps in the way that resettlement and land reform are progressing. The implementation of strategies and policies is often lacking.

The following should be put into place:

- Integrate resettlement planning into agricultural planning Land reform and resettlement policy. This should be a component of a broader policy on agricultural and rural redevelopment.
- Provide complete transparency with regards to land access and land resettlement
- Develop plans for restoring the environment of degraded communal and commercial farmland.
- More emphasis should be placed on environmental policies and land reform to facilitate the rehabilitation of overgrazed and bush-encroached land that has degraded its value due to environmental degradation.



Recommendation 5

Land reconstruction that will provide employment for workers and skills they can use later to increase agricultural production on resettlement farms.

The following should be put into place:

- Degraded land should be rehabilitated.
- For purposes of rehabilitation of degraded land, financial assistance under the EIF - Environmental Investment Fund of Namibia (as provided for in the Environmental Investment Fund Act 13 of 2001) or the Land Reform Acquisition and Development Fund (as provided for in the Agricultural Commercial Land Reform Act 6 of 1995) should be prioritized.
- All stakeholders should focus on developing and strengthening their ability to make informed decisions.
- A project leader should have a background in agricultural and/or social sciences and they should be well-trained to manage resettlement projects.

- Building the capacity of resettlement scheme beneficiaries through relevant skills training courses would enhance the efforts to efficiently develop the schemes.

Recommendation 6

Knowledge and training must be a priority.

The following should be put into place:

- Each prospective emerging farmer should receive information, advice and guidance from service providers and established farmers before purchasing a farm in an area.
- AALS, FURS, and group scheme beneficiaries should also undergo appropriate skills training.

Recommendation 7

Government must truly empower beneficiaries extensively.

The following should be put into place:

- By forming partnerships between government, the private sector, and civil society at the regional level, it may be possible to ensure a sense of shared responsibility and accountability for regional resettlement programmes, thus enabling resettlement beneficiaries to be directly involved in planning and managing their resources
- As part of the National Resettlement Policy, some government ministries are in charge of coordinating action plans in particular areas to ensure partners in government and NGOs are involved. MLR's primary role is to finance the resettlement programme, while MAWF's main task is to provide training to resettlement beneficiaries through its Directorate of Extension Services. These two organisations should coordinate and communicate. The lack of communication has often made it difficult to implement agricultural training programs for resettlement beneficiaries.

Recommendation 8

Strengthening the support systems for land reform is necessary.

The following should be put into place:

- Establish and develop agricultural support services, and define effective ways to deliver land reform assistance.
- Provide further opportunities for the development of freehold or commercial agriculture as they are limited.

- Links between information sources and exchanges between the key government institutions and regional structures to be made crucial.
- In order to support the development of land reform infrastructure, the government, donor organizations, NGOs, and the private sector need to work together.
- Support land reform beneficiaries with appropriate infrastructure in order to help them increase production in both the crop and livestock subsectors, as many resettlement projects are in remote areas far from large towns. Beneficiaries of resettlement often don't know what's happening in the rest of the country because they don't receive daily newspapers, television or radio reports. This isolation hinders economic development within most resettlement communities. Consequently, marketing becomes very difficult due to the lack of access to transportation.



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