AN ASSESSMENT OF LANDLESSNESS AND ITS IMPACT ON SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF THE OMAHEKE REGION IN NAMIBIA, 1990 - 2015

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Abstract

Landlessness has been both the cause and the manifestation of poverty, insecurity, indebtedness and powerlessness of the majority of rural households in most parts of Africa and Asia. This study was an assessment of the degree of landlessness and its impact on the social and economic development in Namibia with special focus on the Omaheke Region. The study examined the correlation between landlessness and socio-economic improvement of communities by employing a quantitative and qualitative (mixed) methods approach, using interviews, a questionnaire and documentary analysis. A purposive sampling method was used to sample a population size of 140 participants.

However, due to other limiting factors beyond the control of the researcher and unavailability of some respondents, the end result for this study was 113 respondents. The sample consisted of resettled beneficiaries of land reform and other rural and urban households in the seven constituencies. This study adopted the historical and political-economic (HPE) framework because it draws particular attention to politics and economics, understood in terms of contestation and bargaining between interest groups with competing claims over rights and resources. Political economy analysis helps to understand what drives political behaviour, how this shapes particular policies and programmes like those of land reform and land redistribution, who are the main winners and losers, and what the implications are for development strategies and programmes.

This study concludes that the degree of landlessness has an effect on the standard of living, which, ultimately, affects economic development of a region or country. For Namibia in general, and the Omaheke Region in particular, despite gross inequalities, land remains a major factor of production which supports rural and urban economy. However, access to land alone without access to other resources is not a panacea for meaningful socio-economic development. Those without land or, no access to it in the rural areas and lacking an alternative source of income are therefore doomed to poverty and become vulnerable to malnutrition and starvation. It was found that when agricultural land is equitably distributed by the land redistribution programmes, the gap between the landed and the landless becomes narrow.

Furthermore, this study reveals that there are various causes of landlessness in different countries of the world but they are similar and related in some parts of Asia and Africa, namely: (a) the intervention of European rule or colonialism; (b) the progressive introduction of monetized transactions and the rise in power of the money-lender which introduced capitalism; and (c), the rapid growth of populations. One of the most important lines of policy to eradicate poverty and inequality is to focus directly on reducing the high concentration and control of assets, the unequal distribution of economic power and the unequal access to income-earning opportunities that characterize the Namibian society.

To overcome landlessness, the government may consider introducing land ceilings as a policy option in the context of implementing a redistributive land reform programme. Land ceilings are in line with the principle of good governance, sharing, equity, inclusivity and eradicating landlessness, which may lead to peace and stability and, ultimately, socio-economic development of the country. In addition, this study supports and recommends the adoption of the three resettlement models to address the three main categories of landlessness, namely: The Commercial Resettlement Model (CRM); The Semi-Commercial Model (SCRM) and; The Subsistence Resettlement Model (SRM).

KEYWORDS: Landlessness; Socio-economic Development; Political Economy; Land Reform; Land Redistribution; Resettlement; Poverty; Land Inequality; Sustainable Development; Capitalism.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my departed parents, mom, Kathiku "ba nya-Dickson" and dad, Mackson Ndala wa Thiyoka na Thishware. Although they have not lived to see me and their grandchildren grow up, they are the ones who provided the very first nourishment which formed a good and strong foundation upon which I continued to build even after their demise. *The journey of a thousand miles begins with a single step* - Lao Tzu.

In Loving Memory of my mom, Kathiku (+1976) and my dad, Mackson (+2004).

Declarations

I, Eric Luine Ndala, hereby declare that this study is my own work and is a true reflection of my research, and that this work, or any part thereof has not been submitted for a degree at any other institution.

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Eric Luine Ndala	E.L.Ndala	April 2022
Name of Student	Signature	Date

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AALS: Affirmative Action Loan Scheme

ACLRA: Agricultural Commercial Land Reform Act

ARC: Agrarian Reform Community

ANC: African National Congress

BSA: British South African

CARP: Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Programme

CLRA: Communal Land Reform Act

CPE: Classical Political Economy

DFID: Department for International Development

ECA: Economic Commission for Africa

FTLRRP: Fast Track Land Reform and Resettlement Programme

GDP: Gross Domestic Product

GNI: Gross National Income

IMF: International Monetary Fund

IPE: Institutional Political Economy

LG: Landlessness Gap

LI: Landlessness Incidence

LRAD: Land Redistribution and Agricultural Development

MLR: Ministry of Land Reform

NEPRU: Namibia Economic Policy Research Unit

NHIES: Namibia Household Income and Expenditure Survey

NLP: National Land Policy

NPC: National Planning Commission

NPE: Neoclassical Political Economy

NRP: National Resettlement Policy

OECD: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

HPEF: Historical and Political-Economic Framework

PoD: Politics of Development

PTT: Permanent Technical Team

RDP: Reconstruction and Development Programme

SADC: Southern African Development Community

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

SWA: South West Africa

SWANU: South West Africa National Union

SWAPO: South West Africa People's Organisation

UNFAO: United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation

WCARRD: World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development

WCED: World Commission on Environment and Development

WS-WB: Willing Seller Willing Buyer

ZANU: Zimbabwe African National Union

ZAPU: Zimbabwe African People’s Union

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This study focuses on assessing the degree of landlessness and identifying the causes of landlessness in Namibia with special focus on the Omaheke Region, using different perspectives of landlessness. The study also, examines the correlation between landlessness and socio-economic improvement of communities in the Omaheke region. Geographically, the Omaheke region is found in the eastern part of Namibia, bordering Botswana, and the administrative centre is Gobabis. The extent and root causes of the prevailing landlessness in the Omaheke Region can only be conceptualized and explained in the historical, economic and political context.

Dirkx and Thiem (2011), state that the "San people were the earliest inhabitants of the Omaheke Region, and they practiced a nomadic lifestyle, relying more on hunting and gathering; until around the turn of the 18th century when the Mbanderu, the Herero and Tswana people started settling in the area as stock herders" (LAC and DRFN, 2014). These stock herders began to push the San people into the western fringes of the Kalahari Desert and started to use them as an occasional labour force, mainly to look after cattle.

Political history indicates that White settlers who own most of the commercial farms in the Omaheke region began settling in the region after the Herero-German war of 1904 – 1907 (Dirkx and Thiem, 2011). The biggest influx of white settler farmers took place during the 1920s when the League of Nations granted the mandate of the Territory of South West Africa to the Union of South Africa. Impoverished white South Africans were relocated to Omaheke region. By 1950s, more than 700 commercial farms were established in the area, with fencing being well advanced (Sylvain, 2001). This influx of white settler farmers into the Omaheke region resulted in increased pressure on the land, as a result the Union Government of South Africa established 'native reserves' mainly for the Herero and Mbanderu people. Although the San people were the first inhabitants of the Omaheke Region, they were not granted any land for themselves as a group throughout this process since only pastoralism was recognized as the only viable land-use option. The establishment of native reserves coupled with the fast-growing number of fenced commercial farms, reduced the area (land) in which the San could still hunt and gather.

On the other hand the native reserves where the Herero and Mbanderu were pushed was, and still remains, marginal land which is not good for grazing livestock. As a result of white settler farmers' interference and occupation of land in the Omaheke region, both the San, the Herero and the Mbanderu became landless and were gradually incorporated into the wider political economy as farmworkers on white commercial farms. The National Planning Commission (2006) reported that commercial farms employ about 60 percent of the Omaheke workforce, while Sylvain (2001) reported that 4000 out of 6500 San people in Omaheke region worked on commercial Afrikaner farms in 2001, comprising 27 percent of the workforce at that time. The Omaheke Regional Poverty Profile report of 2006 describes the landlessness and poverty situation of the San as follows:

> The San is the most vulnerable in most localities [of the Omaheke Region] because of the nature and mode of their livelihoods. Traditional ways of securing food have been limited by government regulations, the fencing of land and the prohibition on hunting game. In the opinion of the San people, poverty has been artificially created by modern-way development such as fencing off

> land, laws that prohibit hunting, and the erosion of culture and ways of life. In their perception, poverty was a hitherto unknown phenomenon among the San (NPC, 2006, p.37).

In terms of land distribution and ownership, almost 50 percent of the land in Omaheke is privately owned by few individuals or companies under the freehold tenure system (NPC, 2006). The largest parts of the western, central and south-western areas of the Omaheke region are occupied by freehold farms comprising about 900 households, the remainder of the land is communal (NPC, 2006). It is estimated that in 2001 close to 800 commercial farms with an average size of 7000 hectares were registered as freehold land and most of these farms are owned by Afrikaans and German-speaking farmers (Werner and Odendaal, 2010, p.54).

The local authorities of Gobabis, Leonardville, Witvlei and Otjinene control a very small percentage of land, while the central government holds the remainder as communal area, resettlement farms and experimental agricultural farm stations (NPC, 2006). As a result of this skewed land ownership pattern, communal land is the only land available for use by the majority landless and poor indigenous communities who do not own commercial farmland in the Omaheke region.

There is a general perception that highly skewed distribution of land is one of the significant causes of widespread poverty particularly in rural areas (Qureshi & Ali, 2004). Despite the introduction of land reforms in many countries, inequality in land ownership and landlessness are still at unacceptable levels in many countries (Byamugisha, 2014). It is assumed that the degree of landlessness has an effect on the standard of living, which, ultimately, affects economic development of a region or country (Qureshi & Ali, 2004).

The Government of the Republic of Namibia, through the Ministry of Land Reform has made progress in redistributing agricultural land to previously landless Namibians (MLR, 2018), however, there is still much landlessness in Namibia, especially in the Omaheke, Otjozondjupa, Hardap, !Karas and Khomas Regions. The Ministry of Land Reform continues to receive thousands of applications for agricultural land from all over the country as soon as a farming unit is advertised for resettlement. There is an ongoing disagreement on how many landless people Namibia has, who they are, where they are concentrated, and even what landlessness really means.

Furthermore, it is argued that access to land alone is not a panacea for poverty reduction and socio-economic development, hence the need to consider other factors in the process of land redistribution, such as the quality of land, the availability of complementary inputs, access to credit, and markets and opportunities for off-farm employment (Van Zyl, Kirsten, & Binswanger, 1996).

Using the Gini-Coefficient as a measure of inequality, it is debated that the highly skewed land ownership pattern in Namibia is one of the contributing factors in the high Gini-Coefficient at 0.646 in 1993/1994 and 0.597 in 2009/2010, making it one of the highest, not only in Africa but also by international standards (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012). Inequality is defined as disparities in the distribution of economic assets (wealth) and income within or between populations or individuals (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012).

Some economists opine that while inequality may be constructive in the rich (developed) countries, in the classic sense of motivating individuals to work hard, innovate, and take productive risks, in developing countries it is likely to be destructive. This is true in Latin America and Africa, where conventional measures of income inequality are high. This situation may also apply in other parts of the developing world where conventional indicators are not so high but there are plentiful signs of other forms of inequality such as injustice, indignity, and lack of equal opportunity (Birdsall, 2008).

Inequality is constructive when it creates positive incentives at the micro-level of the economy. Such inequality reflects differences in individuals' response to equal opportunities and is consistent with efficient allocation of resources in an economy. In contrast, destructive inequality reflects privileges for the already rich and blocks potential for productive contributions of the less rich or poor groups and individuals in the country (Birdsall, 2008). In this context, land inequality when combined with poor markets for land and credit may also be destructive for growth itself, and especially for growth that benefits the poor landless (Birdsall, 2008).

The Bible tells a story of creation and how God gave humanity access to all natural resources by settling Adam and Eve on a portion of land called 'the Garden of Eden'. God said, "Let them [man and woman] have dominion over all the earth [land]. Be fruitful, and multiply, and replenish the earth [land], and subdue it. God saw that everything He had made was very good" (Bible)(Genesis 1:1-31).

In the afore-mentioned quote, the book of Genesis expounds and recounts the biblical perspective of how the land and humanity came into existence. This explains how God, the Creator, placed the stewardship of the land into the hands of mankind to be a source of livelihood and economic empowerment. God made the land and all other natural resources to be equally accessible to every human being, regardless of status, skin colour, creed or ethnic group. God made enough land, in a sustainable manner, for every human being; to support generations after generations, however, the sin of selfishness and greed came into the human mind and destroyed the spirit of equity and sharing of natural resources. This has created the problem of landlessness that many people are faced with today, where others own land as private property while others have no ownership nor access to land at all. The question that can be posed therefore, is, has the privatisation and commercialisation of land by some contributed to landlessness and socio-economic disempowerment?

On the other hand, since gaining independence in 1990 there is no consensus on the approach or method for determining landlessness that ensured during the German colonial rule and the apartheid South Africa administrations in Namibia. As a result of historical imbalances, there are some individual Namibians, especially white farmers, who own multiple farms while most of the black Namibians are landless (NEPRU, 1991). "Historically, the imposition of systematic barriers preventing the indigenous communities from accessing land of good quality has been a key strategy for limiting the scope of their economic advancement" (Deininger, 2003, p. 2) This phenomenon is compounded by the fact that the supreme law of Namibia, the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, Article 16 makes provision for ownership and protection of private property and states that:

> All persons shall have the right in any part of Namibia to acquire, own and dispose of all forms of immovable property individually or in association with others and to bequeath their property to their heirs or legatees, provided that Parliament may by legislation prohibit or regulate as it deems expedient the right to acquire property by persons who are not Namibian citizens (Government of the Republic Of Namibia, 1990).

Neither the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia nor the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act of 1995 makes provision or prohibition on the size of land one should be allowed to own in Namibia. Therefore, those who have the financial and political means can own as much land as they wish without restrictions.

Given correct resource prices and utilisation levels for each type of productive factor (labour, land, and capital), there is a possibility to arrive at estimates for the total earnings of each asset. But to translate this functional income into personal income, there is a need to know the distribution and ownership concentration of these assets among and within various segments of the population (Todaro & Smith, 2012).

The ultimate cause of the unequal distribution of personal incomes in most developing countries is the unequal and highly concentrated patterns of asset ownership (wealth) in these countries. Todaro & Smith (2012) affirm that "the principal reasons 20% of the developing countries' population often receives over 50% of the national income is that this 20% probably owns and controls well over 90% of the productive, financial and human capital in the form of better education and health" (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p.244). Therefore, correcting factor prices is not sufficient to reduce income inequalities substantially or to eliminate widespread poverty where physical and financial asset ownership is highly concentrated.

> The second and perhaps more important line of policy to reduce [if not eradicate] poverty and inequality is to focus directly on reducing the concentrated control of assets, the unequal distribution of power, and the unequal access to educational and income-earning opportunities that characterize many developing countries. That a classic case of such redistribution policies as they relate to the rural poor, who comprise 70 to 80% of the target poverty group, is land reform (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p.244).

The end of colonialism triggered significant redistributions of land in the Middle East and North Africa. These reforms were carried out to liberate the agricultural sector from "semi-feudal" relics and sometimes to suppress the legacy of colonialism. In sub-Sahara Africa, the first land redistribution programmes by an independent government were carried out in Kenya during the 1960s and 1970s (Kanyinga, 2009). Meanwhile, in Latin America, many land reform programmes were initiated after the Cuban Revolution to prevent the expansion of communist revolutions. However, according to Navarro (2009), these reforms achieved modest results, leaving land redistribution almost unchanged everywhere (Navarro, 2009).

The basic purpose of land reform is to transform tenant cultivators or herders into smallholders who will then have an incentive to raise production and improve their incomes. However, land reform may be a weak instrument of income redistribution if other institutional and price distortions in the economic system prevent small farm holders from securing access to much needed critical inputs such as credit, fertilizers, seeds, marketing facilities, and agricultural education.

Literature indicates that the majority of the rural population in developing countries depends on land as their primary source of income. The landholding pattern in developing countries is a major determinant of their economic solvency, social power structure and hierarchy. However, most developing countries have experienced an alarming growth of landlessness among their rural population over the past decades (Rahman & Manprasert, 2006).

States in developing countries have been trying to eradicate poverty by raising their standard of living through preventing the concentration of wealth and means of production and distribution in the hands of the few. The Namibian Government embarked on land redistribution to redress the skewed land ownership pattern and introduce the previously landless black Namibians into the mainstream of the agricultural economy. Land redistribution in Namibia is aimed at redressing, in the spirit of national reconciliation and nation building, the problem of dispossession, discrimination, and inequitable distribution of land (Ministry of Lands and

Resettlement, 1998). One of the objectives of land redistribution is to bring small-holder farmers into the mainstream of the Namibian economy by producing for the open market and to contribute to the country's gross domestic product (GDP) (Ministry of Lands, Resettlement and Rehabilitation, 2001).

There is a growing conflict over and tensions about access to land on the African continent. The causes of landlessness and near landlessness are numerous including scarcity of land, rapid population growth, low productivity in agriculture, lack of effective government policies, and colonial legacies (Rahman & Manprasert, 2006). In 1989, the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (WCARRD) noted that land availability was not a major problem in the context of most African countries.

However, nowadays, access to land is becoming problematic. Africa's land use and tenure frontiers are shifting (WCARRD , 1989). Is the continent heading for a situation in which landlessness and unequal land distribution patterns resemble those of the Asian and Latin American continents? (Rutten, 2000). Grounded in the afore-mentioned debates in the literature, this survey is an assessment of landlessness and its impact on the economic development of Namibia, with special focus on the Omaheke Region. The study employed empirical research and experiences obtained from selected African countries and beyond to inform the findings.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The literature (Lahiff, 2009; Moyo, 2009; Machira, 2009; Hungwe, 2009; World Bank, 2009) shows that landlessness has proved to be both the cause and the manifestation of poverty, insecurity, indebtedness and powerlessness of the majority of rural households (Rahman & Manprasert, 2006). At independence about "90% of the total

[Namibian] population were restricted to uninhabitable homelands while white farmers who constituted only about 8% of the total population, were in possession of the best farmlands, covering 35 443 567 hectares, which is about 43% of the total agricultural landmass” (MLRR, 2001, p. 1).

Despite the introduction of the land redistribution programme in Namibia, landlessness seems to be increasing at almost the same rate of the population growth. The Government set a target to acquire and redistribute 15 million hectares of agricultural commercial land to the landless Namibians by the year 2020 (Ministry of Lands and Resettlement, 2005). These targets are divided between the National Resettlement Programme of the Ministry of Land Reform (5 million ha) and the Affirmative Action Loan Scheme of the Agricultural Bank of Namibia (10 million ha).

However, by the end of 2016, the land reform and redistribution programme has only managed to redistribute 9 million ha. The remaining 6 million ha remains a challenge to be acquired and redistributed in the remaining four years left. The Ministry of Land Reform and AgriBank have only resettled 6238 landless households out of the estimated 243 000 landless Namibians (Ministry of Lands and Resettlement, 2005).

At the time of conducting this study, the Ministry of Land Reform had acquired 81 farms making 441,099 hectares in the Omaheke Region. These farms have been allocated to 1429 previously landless Namibians through its land acquisition and redistribution programme (Ministry of Land Reform, 2017). Given the statistic on hectares acquired and number of people resettled in the Omaheke Region, on average, each resettled beneficiary has access to 309 hectares. This is far less than the average hectares of about 1500 required for one cattle farmer in the Omaheke Region.

These figures indicate that at the current pace of land acquisition and redistribution, landlessness may take a long time to be resolved in the Omaheke Region in particular.

1.3 Research Questions

In considering the motivation and aims of the study, the following main research question was posed:

What is landlessness and how does it affect the social and economic development and standard of living in the Omaheke Region?

This question was aimed at investigating the impact of landlessness on the standard of living and how it (landlessness) affects economic development in the Omaheke Region. In other words, does it mean that when the degree of landlessness increases, the standard of living in Omaheke falls? Figure 1.1 below seems to suggest that there is a correlation between landlessness and socio-economic wellbeing.

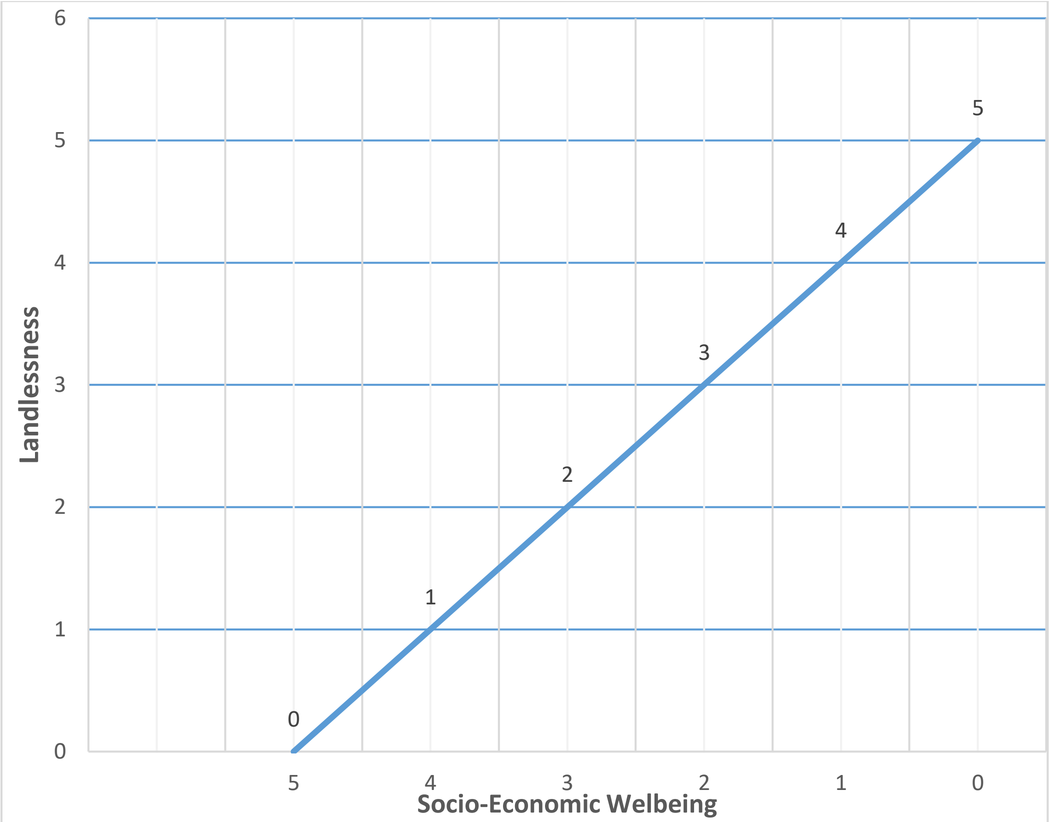

Figure 1.1 Correlation between landlessness and socio-economic wellbeing

The main research question was supplemented by the following minor research questions:

What is the level /extent of landlessness in the Omaheke Region?

What are the main factors that contribute to landlessness in the Omaheke Region and elsewhere?

What are the main economic activities that support development in the Omaheke Region?

How is landlessness measured and who is classified as landless in the Namibian context compared to other countries?

What are the underlying objectives of land reform in Namibia and to what extent are the objectives being achieved?

What is the key policy, institutional and legal reforms affecting access to land?

1.4 Significance of the Study

The study was intended to establish approaches for assessing and determining landlessness and how it affects local economic development in the Omaheke Region. It is envisaged that the findings of the study can be applied to all regions of Namibia and some countries in the southern Africa region. Given the absence of a land ceiling in communal and commercial agricultural areas of Namibia, the results of this study will be instrumental in reviewing and developing appropriate land reform policies to address land ownership and achieve equitable land distribution between the previously disadvantaged blacks and the previously advantaged whites in Namibia. The study will be useful in establishing a definition and criteria for determining landlessness in the Namibian context and the relationship between landlessness and socio-economic development.

Identification of the landless is crucial for poverty eradication in rural areas, therefore, this study is a contribution to the understanding of the importance of land as a basic factor in poverty reduction. Furthermore, this study intends to make a contribution to the on-going economic and political discourse on land ownership pattern and economic development in Southern Africa, and Namibia in particular. This research also stands to benefit academics, researchers and pressure groups by contributing to the literature on multidimensional landless indicators by developing alternative approaches of measuring and defining landlessness. Assessing landlessness is important for Namibia, which has been undergoing various structural reforms and experiencing economic growth, but inequality remains “very high by international standards at 0.597” Gini co-efficiency (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012).

1.5 Limitation of the Study

This study, just like many other studies, is subject to some limitations. First, given the vastness of Namibia, the study was only conducted in the Omaheke Region, one of fourteen regions. It was not possible, financially, for the researcher to travel to all fourteen regions. This limited the researcher with regard to national participant representation across the country. However, to mitigate this, data from other regions was gleaned from annual reports and relevant documents to support and corroborate the findings of the study.

Second, benchmarking on issues of landlessness and land reform in general with other countries was also conducted through a review of related literature because it was not possible to travel to all countries that are mentioned in this study. This was made possible by a thorough search of information in databases on the internet and relevant websites.

The third limitation was related to methodological problems due to sampling errors that occurred by using a probability sampling method to select a sample because the sample did not reflect the general population or appropriate population characteristics. The majority of the respondents were black Namibians and they might have presented a biased perception and views driven by emotions on the question of land ownership in Namibia. The study lacked the perception of the white Namibians on the same issue. This resulted in limitations for this study known as sample or selection bias. Future studies on this topic should consider having an inclusive population sample where both black and white Namibians have a fair chance of being represented.

In addition, another limitation was that after collecting the data it took some time to procure appropriate software for the data analysis because the SPSS and ATLAS-ti software licenses had expired and they needed renewal. This situation was overcome by getting assistance from other private individuals that had the software but at a cost.

A further limitation that befell the researcher at a personal level, was that the first draft of the dissertation was stolen by an unknown person who broke the window of the researcher's vehicle and took the laptop bag which contained all documents and memory stick back-ups. The researcher had to start from scratch to rewrite the first three chapters.

In conclusion, an added limiting factor was time constraints, as the researcher was a full-time employee and the only time to work on this study was by requesting study leave from the employer which was limited to few days only. Therefore, to complete a study of this magnitude required commitment and dedication by apportioning time for work and for research after work hours.

1.6 Delimitation of the Study

The study focused on landlessness and its impact on socio-economic development in the Omaheke Region. The boundaries of this study included all the seven (7) constituencies that constitute the Omaheke Region; namely: Aminius, Epukiro, Gobabis, Kalahari, Otjinene, Otjombinde and Okorukambe Constituencies. The researcher chose the Omaheke Region as one of the regions where historically, colonial and apartheid administration policies effectively dispossessed land from local communities and forced some of them to flee to neighbouring Botswana.

The main focus of the study was to conduct an assessment of the extent of landlessness and its perceived impact on the social and economic development in Namibia, with special focus on the Omaheke Region. The study also focused on assessing alternative approaches of measuring and defining landlessness in other countries that would serve as valuable lessons for Namibia. The findings from this Case Study may not be extrapolated to generalise the conditions of landlessness and socio-economic development in other regions of Namibia that suffered land dispossession during the colonial and apartheid administrations.

1.7 Definition of Major Terms

The following terms and their definitions are commonly used in this study:

Landlessness: A socio-economic condition or state of being without land or not having access to land as a productive resource; while near landlessness has been defined as access to plots of land too small to provide a minimum livelihood under existing land use patterns and technical capabilities (Rahman and Manprasert, 2006).

Land Inequality: The disproportionate distribution of total national land among households. A disparity in the distribution (ownership and access) of land as an economic assets (wealth) and income within or between populations or individuals (Todaro & Smith, 2012).

Ownership: [A Noun]: The state, relation, or fact of exclusive rights and control over property (movable or immovable) such as vehicles, animals, land, house or any property, a proprietor. (Reader's Digest , 2002).

Landownership: [A Derivative]: A bundle of rights that are associated with usage, rights to rent out, sell, build structures, hunt etc. on the land. The state of having complete legal control of the status of land. Landowner’s rights are only limited by laws and regulations attached to a title deed.

Land reform: A deliberate attempt to reorganise and transform existing agrarian systems with the intention of improving the distribution of agricultural incomes and thus fostering rural development (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 779). Land reform involves the changing of laws, regulations or customs regarding land ownership (Ciparisse, 2003); the restructuring of tenure rules and procedures in an attempt to make the system consistent with overall requirements of economic development (Zarin & Bujang, 1994).

Economic development: Raising the productive capacities and capabilities of societies in terms of their technologies, self-esteem, freedom, technical cultures, and the physical, technical and organisational capacities and skills of those engaged in production (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 775). Economic development can be defined in terms of objectives such as the creation of jobs and wealth, and the improvement of quality of life; a process that influences growth and restructuring of an economy to enhance the economic wellbeing of a community (Thomas, 2000).

Rural economic development: All actions which at improving rural peoples living conditions by providing basic social and economic services and by creating a political, legal, economic and social environment which empower them to take charge of their own development. A process that influences the growth and restructuring of an economy to enhance the economic well-being of rural communities (Republic of Namibia, 2012).

Sustainable development: A process of change or pattern of development in which exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development, and institutional change are all in harmony and enhance both current and future potential to meet human needs and aspirations (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 784). Sustainable development is progress that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Woodhouse, 2000).

Land Redistribution: A process of distributing land in a different way (which was distributed sometime in the past) to achieve social justice and equity (Ministry of Lands and Resettlement, 1998). An effort by governments to modify the distribution of land ownership with the aim of transforming an agrarian structure from large-scale farms into one where family farms are predominant by taking land away from large landowners to tenants and landless peasants (Ciparisse, 2009).

Resettlement: A process of moving people from an area with insufficient resources to an area which is more likely to provide a satisfactory standard of living (MLRR, 2001) to a different place to live, because they are no longer allowed to stay in the area where they used to live. This movement of people may be prompted by circumstances beyond their control.

Capitalism: A system of production of goods and services for market exchange in order to make a profit. Basic elements of capitalism are private ownership, regulation via self-regulating markets (commoditisation and competition) distribution of wealth through the market determination of wages, and enterprise management for profit and accumulation (Bernstein, 2000; (Thomas, 2000).

1.8 Organisation of the study

This report is organized into six main chapters with sections according to themes as follows:

Chapter One clarifies issues and the framework of this research. It begins by contextualising the study, its relevance and importance. This chapter includes the introduction and background to the study. This chapter sets the scene and understanding to the research problem by contextualising it to Namibia.

Chapter Two reviews the literature and discusses different approaches used elsewhere to assess landlessness, touching, in particular, on aspects of definitions, measurement and the role of land reform policies in addressing equity and widening access to land. Common problems encountered in defining and measuring landlessness in some selected countries are reviewed. The background of rural landlessness, interregional landlessness, inequality and issues of social justice and land dispossession in Namibia and elsewhere are also outlined in this chapter.

The chapter further outlines the theoretical underpinnings and analytical framework for conceptualising land as means of production (wealth), and the social relations between landowners and the landless who exchange their labour for wages. A theoretical framework as a basis for analysing and understanding the relationship between landlessness and socio-economic development is discussed in detail in this chapter.

Chapter Three outlines the research methodology and approaches to the study. Furthermore, it explains the research design, procedures, and the population sample and data analysis tools that were employed for the study. This chapter also presents the research questions and statements that guided the study.

Chapter Four is divided into **Section A and Section B.** This chapter presents data and analysis and the findings on landlessness and socio-economic development. Section A presents the quantitative data analysis in frequency tables and graphs while Section B presents the qualitative data analysis. Data is presented in networks as produced by using the ATLAS.ti software. Peoples' attitude and perceptions towards landlessness and the landless in pre-independence and post-independence periods are presented and analyzed in detail.

Chapter Five presents a discussion and policy implication of major findings and issues related to landlessness and economic development in other regions of the world with Namibia in general and the Omaheke Region in particular.

Chapter Six is the concluding chapter of the study. The findings are synthesised to produce valid conclusions. Recommendations are made based on the findings of the study. This chapter summarises the entire study and makes recommendations for policymakers that could be considered in improving the ever-increasing situation of landlessness and mitigate its impact on the social and economic development in the country.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

Land, according to the World Bank (2009); Todaro & Smith (2012); Deininger (2003); World Bank (2002) is very unequally distributed in most developing countries, and there is both an efficiency and a social equity case for land reform. But land reform in countries like Brazil and Southern Africa has been repeatedly blocked by the political and economic power of large plantation / farm owners. In response, impoverished framers in the "landless movement" have increasingly seized arable but unused land within large plantations. Some landless farmers also occupied fragile rain forest areas that are more agriculturally suitable and less ecologically sensitive (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 31). In response to all these phenomena, governments initiated land reform programmes to address the problem of landlessness, but the results to date have been modest in relation to the scope of the problem.

This study examined issues of land reform and its effects on socio-economic development of participants and the region of the Omaheke in general. Drawing from empirical literature, it appears to be common knowledge that land rights are amongst the most powerful resources available to people to increase and extend their collection of assets beyond land and labour to the full portfolio necessary for sustainable livelihoods (Cox, 2002).

With the advent of colonialism, expropriation and privatisation of land became the new order. Landlessness escalated and land became the source of protracted conflict throughout the continent (Binswanger-Mckize, 2009; MLR, 2010). However, for one to concede that the statements above have merit, a literature search documenting the relationship between landlessness and socio-economic development was necessary.

Furthermore, the results of the literature review and theoretical framework form the foundation in understanding the significance of having access to land in the process of human development elsewhere in the world, with a special focus on the Omaheke region in Namibia.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

Identifying a theoretical framework is important in understanding landlessness, the purpose and process of land reform, land redistribution and resettlement, and the degree of impact these processes might have on social and economic development of communities in Namibia. A theory or framework is a set of assumptions, propositions, or accepted facts that attempts to provide a plausible or rational explanation of cause-and-effect (causal) relationships among a group of observed phenomena.

The word's origin (from the Greek 'thorós', a spectator), stresses the fact that all theories are mental models of the perceived reality (Business Dictionary, 2019). A theoretical framework provides a general representation of relationships between things in a given phenomenon and helps the reader to conceptualize the study in a broader context, i.e., the field of knowledge.

The theoretical framework which underpins this study includes all the necessary knowledge components used to buttress the purpose of the research. On the other hand, the conceptual framework embodies the specific direction by which the research was undertaken, also called the research paradigm. It was imperative to have a theoretical framework comprising concepts, their definitions and reference to relevant scholarly literature as well as existing theory as a base for studying landlessness and socio-economic development. Therefore, the analytical framework for this study is based on the historical and political-economic (HPE) approach.

2.2.1 Historical and Political-Economic Framework (HPE)

"History and political economy could mean different things at different times. The three main historical periods of political economy-related research that can be distinguished are: the classical political economy of 1750s-1850s, the neoclassical political economy of 1860s-1980s, and the institutional political economy since the 1990s" (Edelmann, 2009, p. 5). These periods have created their specific schools of thought that have been evolving and that coexist as follows:

Classical political economy (CPE) "emerged as a distinct field of scholarship during the eighteenth century against the background of industrialisation and establishment of a capitalist economic system in Europe. Classical political economy focuses on the interrelationship between labour and capital in the production process, rents, the interaction of classes and the rise of a commercial and industrial bourgeoisie challenging feudalism and absolutism". The most important theorists of classical political economy theory are Adam Smith, David Ricardo, John Stewart Mill, Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels (Edelmann, 2009, p. 5).

Neoclassical political economy (NPE) "is based on the rise of neoclassical economics, focusing on the efficient allocation of scarce factors of production to competing uses. NPE sees the causes of economic crisis outside the economic system and tries to develop a universal, trans-historical analysis of economic activities based on a general model of rational economic calculations" (Edelmann, 2009, p. 5).

Institutional political economy (IPE) as a school of thought, "is evolving since the 1990s, based on the groundbreaking work on new institutional economics. IPE focuses on the role of human-made formal and informal institutions and their incentives and constraints for economic behaviour and performance. IPE argues that institutions matter: that there can be no pure, isolated economic calculation and conduct because these are always shaped by specific economic institutions and market relations and their embedding in a complex extra-economic environment". The founding father of IPE theory is Douglas North. (Edelmann, 2009, p. 5)

According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2009), "the political economy approaches are concerned with the interaction of political and economic processes in a society, including the distribution of power and wealth between different groups and individuals, and the processes that create, sustain and transform these relationships over time" (Edelmann, 2009). How does politics affect economic outcomes? What is the difference between politics and economics? These questions arose from the widespread view that political factors are crucial in determining economic outcomes. Hence, as a discipline, economics historically viewed political forces not only as influencing economic outcomes, but often as a determining influence.

Robbins (1932), defines economics as "the science which studies human behaviour as a relationship between ends and scarce means that have alternative uses", while Lindblom (1977), defines politics as "the study of power and authority, and the exercise of power and authority. Power, in turn, means the ability of an individual or group to achieve outcomes which reflect his or their objectives; therefore, politics is the struggle over authority". If economics is the study of the optimal use of scarce resources, political economy begins with the political nature of decision-making and is concerned with how politics will affect economic choices in a society.

Alt & Shepsle (1990), define political economy as the study of rational decisions in the context of political and economic institutions, stressing explicit micro-foundations based on rational actors (Alt & Shepsle, 1990). According to DFID (2009), political economy analysis is concerned with the interaction of political and economic processes in a society; the distribution of power and wealth between different groups and individuals, and the process that create, sustain and transform these relationships over time (Department for International Development, 2009). Following these definitions, political economy studies recognize that the policy environment is shaped by political, economic, social, cultural and institutional factors; they analyze all factors influencing the political process. Political economy approaches seek to move beyond a description of symptoms and to understand the underlying causes of poor governance and lack of political will for sustained change (OECD, 2005).

An assertion by Collinson (2003, p.3) is that political economy framework is characterized by four guiding principles, namely: dynamic, by focusing on change; broad, by connecting changes in one place or group to those in another; longitudinal, by incorporating a historical perspective, and explanatory, by asking why certain people are affected by crisis in the way that they are, and how could this be overcome (Collinson, 2003).

One of the most famous definitions put forth by the well-known late political scientist Lasswell (1936), which is still used today to conceptualize politics, is that politics is who gets what, when, and how. According to Lasswell (1936), politics is a way of determining, without recourse to violence, who gets power and resources in society, and how they get them. The resources in question here could be government jobs, tax revenues, laws that help someone to have access to resources or public policies that work to one's advantage. One of the major political and economic resource that helps people to gain and maintain power is the ability to control the distribution and ownership of land.

2.2.2 Approaches and tools for historical and political economy analysis

DFID (2009) has identified three main approaches and tools for conducting historical and political economy analysis as outlined in Figure 2 below.

"The Macro-level/ Country Analysis, to enhance general sensitivity to country context and understanding of broad historical and political-economy environment". This approach can be useful to inform country planning processes and overall strategic direction of DFID country programmes.

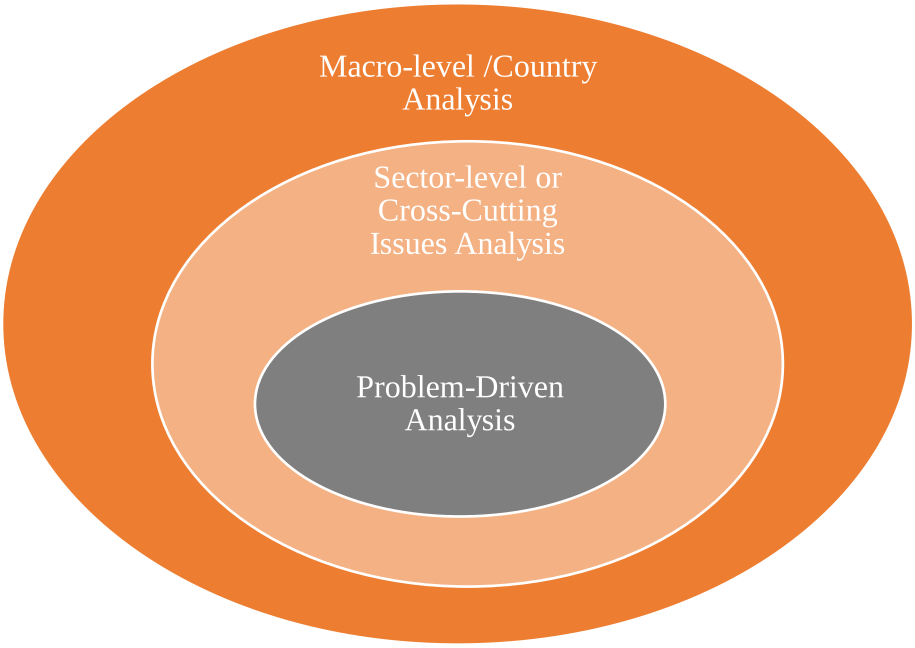

Figure 2.1 Levels of Political Economy Analysis Framework
Source: Department for International Development (2009)

"Sector-level Analysis is used to identify specific barriers and opportunities within particular sectors where DFID is working, for example, health, natural resource, education, roads".

"Problem-Driven Analysis is geared to understanding and resolving a particular problem at the project level, or in relation to specific policy issue, e.g. growth, financial management or land reform" (DFID, 2009, p.8).

2.2.3 The Politics of Development Framework

"Politics is the process of conflict, negotiation and cooperation between interest groups in the use, production and distribution of resources" (DFID, 2009, p.26). "The politics of development (PoD) framework is a tool used to carry out political analysis. It is designed to help thinking systematically about how political decisions are made" (DFID, 2009, p.10).The framework below highlight four basic elements of a political decision-making process as follows:

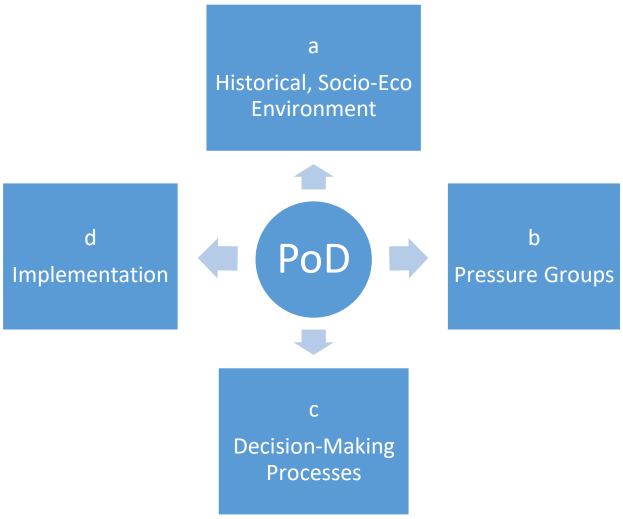

Figure 2.2 Politics of Development (PoD) Framework
Source: Department for International Development (2009)

a. "The wider historical, socio-economic and cultural environment, including the legitimacy of a given political process;
b. The immediate pressures coming from groups and interests who influence, but do not make political decisions;

c. The processes, both formal and informal, through which decisions are actually made; and
d. The continuing politics of implementation that determine the implications, if any, of political decisions" (DFID, 2009, p. 10).

Most of the early studies describe political economy problems in a general sense, but did not examine political processes in detail, which limited their ability to explain how particular agents operate within the political system and the actual mechanisms that they may use to bring about change. The politics of development (PoD) approach attempts to fill this gap by analysing the dynamics of a political system in depth (DFID, 2009).

The PoD framework can be used to explore political dynamics at a country level or within a specific institutional arena, e.g. the land sector. It can also be applied in a diagnostic fashion to investigate specific questions. For example: Why do land allocations follow a specific pattern? Why do other communities have more access to land than others? Why are other communities landless? By applying this analysis of the decision-making process, it becomes easier to identify where the constraints or opportunities for policy reform and implementation lie, and how intervention might contribute to positive change. Country level analytical tools help to explore the impact of political economy factors on development programming.

2.2.4 Political Economy Analysis (PEA) in Development

This study adopted the political economy analysis (PEA) framework because it draws particular attention to politics, understood in terms of contestation and bargaining between interest groups with competing claims over rights and resources. "PEA is also equally concerned with the economic processes that generate wealth, and that influence how political choices are made. In reality, these processes are closely inter-related and form part of a unified set of dynamics which influence development outcomes. Political economy analysis is "useful for development practitioners because it helps to understand what drives political behaviour, how this shapes particular policies and programmes, [like those of land reform and land redistribution] who are the main winners and losers, and what the implications are for development strategies and programmes". (DFID, 2009, p. 4).

Political economy framework can help to contribute to a shared understanding of political context and how it affects overall development strategy. It helps to inform better policy and programme, through the identification of a feasible, realistic solution to socio-economic development challenges. It helps to broaden the scope for dialogue with development partners around key political challenges and opportunities at the country and sector level. PEA also helps to promote coherence across stakeholders around a common analysis of the underlying political and economic processes shaping development.

Political economy analysis also takes into consideration "concepts such as capitalism, colonialism, ownership and control of land as a natural resource that forms a key factor of production and economic empowerment". Capitalism, in the theoretical tradition of classical political economy, means of "production of goods and services for market exchange (commodity) to make profit, founded on a definitive social (class) relation between owners of capital and owners of labour power, to which other social relations and divisions are linked" (Bernstein, 2000, pp. 241-250). Capitalism generates the two distinct social classes, namely; the capitalist class or bourgeoisie, the owners of the means of production (land, tools, machines or capital) and the working class or proletariat or owners solely of their labour power, or have the ability to work

(Bernstein, 2000). Before the emergence of capitalism, the pre-capitalist societies were predominantly agrarian, and land was not regarded as a commodity to be freely sold or privately owned and rented. This situation was changed by the transition to capitalism where land became a commodity to be privately owned and sold or rented without restrictions by customary laws, the rights of monarchs, feudal lords or peasant communities.

Just as land and other means of production had become commodities, there had to come into existence a class of people possessing no other commodity (landless) than their labour power. The related emergence of productive capital and a working class – basic conditions of capitalist production – are part of the process called primitive accumulation. This process of accumulation is broader than the usual notion of amassing wealth or capital, since it includes the historical formation of a class of landless and poor people today whose labour power is necessary to the production of wealth and capital for the capitalist.

Within the context of classical political economy is the concept of colonialism, which refers to political control or rule of the people of a given territory by a foreign state, whether accompanied by significant permanent settlement (settler colonies) or not (Bernstein, 2000, pp. 251-270). European colonialism was almost invariably accompanied by ideologies of racial superiority of various kinds, intensities, and mutations – that are among its most enduring and intractable effects, whether indigenous people were exterminated, dispossessed and marginalised, or their labour pressed into the service of colonial exploitation. The Caribbean, Tasmania, the Native Americans of North America, native Australians, the OvaHerero and Nama of Namibia are good examples of victims of colonialism. Today, most of these communities are landless poor and have to depend on exchanging their labour power with the owners as means of production (colonial capitalists) for survival.

In the context of administration and management of land as a natural resource, equality of opportunity is probably most important where it concerns the ownership of and access to land. This study combines the political, social, economic and historical factors to understand the concept of landlessness, the causes of landlessness and its relationship with community development.

2.2.5 Conceptualizing, Defining and Measuring Landlessness

The concept of landlessness is difficult to explain because of its relativity to other factors such as historical, cultural, social, economic, and political and land tenure types prevailing in a given country. Unlike a population's average income which is measured and defined by the World Bank (2003) using the per capita gross national income (GNI), finding a common measure and definition for landlessness seems to be more complicated and difficult. Even GNI per capita, being an average, does not tell the reality about the distribution of wealth, including land, within a country's population between the rich and the poor (Thomas, 2004).

Literature shows that landlessness or near landlessness seems to be on the rise with population growth all over the world, in urban as well as in rural areas (Rutten, 2000). Economic development statistics indicate that over 3.1 billion people lived in rural areas in developing countries in 2010, and a quarter of them lived in extreme poverty (Todaro & Smith, 2012, pp.424-427), as a consequence landlessness could be one of the contributing factors. People living in the countryside make up more than half of the population of such diverse Latin American and Asian nations such as Haiti, Guatemala, India, Indonesia, Myanmar, Honduras, Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Bangladesh, the Philippines, Thailand, and China.

Smith (2012) reveals that in sub-Saharan Africa, the ratios are much higher, with rural dwellers constituting about 65% of the total population. Statistics by Todaro & Smith (2012, p. 427) further indicate that despite real economic growth and progress, nearly 2 billion people in the developing world grind out a meager and often inadequate existence in agricultural pursuits. Of greater importance than just sheer numbers is the fact that well over two-thirds of the world's poorest people are also located in rural areas and engaged primarily in subsistence agriculture. Their basic concern is survival.

The United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) estimated that in 2009, for the first time, over 1 billion people did not have enough food to meet their basic nutritional needs. In their daily struggle to subsist, farmer behaviour in developing countries often seemed irrational to many observers who, until recently, had little comprehension of the precarious nature of subsistence living and the importance of avoiding risks. This state of affairs indicates that for development to take place and become self-sustaining, it will have to include the rural areas in general and the agricultural sector in particular. The core problems of widespread poverty, growing inequality, and rapid population growth all originate in the stagnation and often retrogression of economic life in rural areas, particularly in Africa.

According to Rutten (2002), landless means without land or a person who does not have access to land as a productive resource; while near landlessness has been defined as access to plots of land too small to provide a minimum livelihood under existing land use patterns and technical capabilities (Rutten, 2000). From the explanations above, it appears that landlessness is relative to prevailing land tenure policy and legislation in a particular country or region. Therefore, the working definition for this study is that landlessness is a socio-economic phenomenon which refers to access to plots of land too small to provide a minimum livelihood under existing land use patterns and technical capabilities, relative to the prevailing land tenure policy and legislation in a given environment, region or country.

Although it is not easy to find a common measure for landlessness, most studies have considered inequality as a measure for determining landlessness. Inequality is defined as disparities in the distribution of economic assets (wealth) and income within or between populations or individuals (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012). Unlike poverty, which focuses only on the poor, inequality is a broader measure that is defined over the entire population.

When measuring inequality, the Gini-Coefficient is an aggregate numerical measure often used to show the extent of inequality in the distribution of wealth within or between the population and individuals (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 777). The Gini-Coefficient has a value of zero (0) for perfect equality at 45-degree line and a value of one (1) for perfect inequality. This means the further the percentile moves away from zero towards one, the more inequality the situation shows. This situation is shown graphically by using Lorenz curves which shows the share in total wealth of those among the bottom population shares. The Gini-Coefficient for Namibia in 2015/2016 was at 0.56, which indicates that the level of inequality in Namibia remains among the highest in the world (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2016).

Landlessness and access to land in the context of this study is measured using the inequality index as shown by the Lorenz Curve in Figure 2.3 below. A Lorenz curve is a graph depicting the variance of the size distribution of income /land from perfect line of equality (Rutherford, 2002), (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 779).

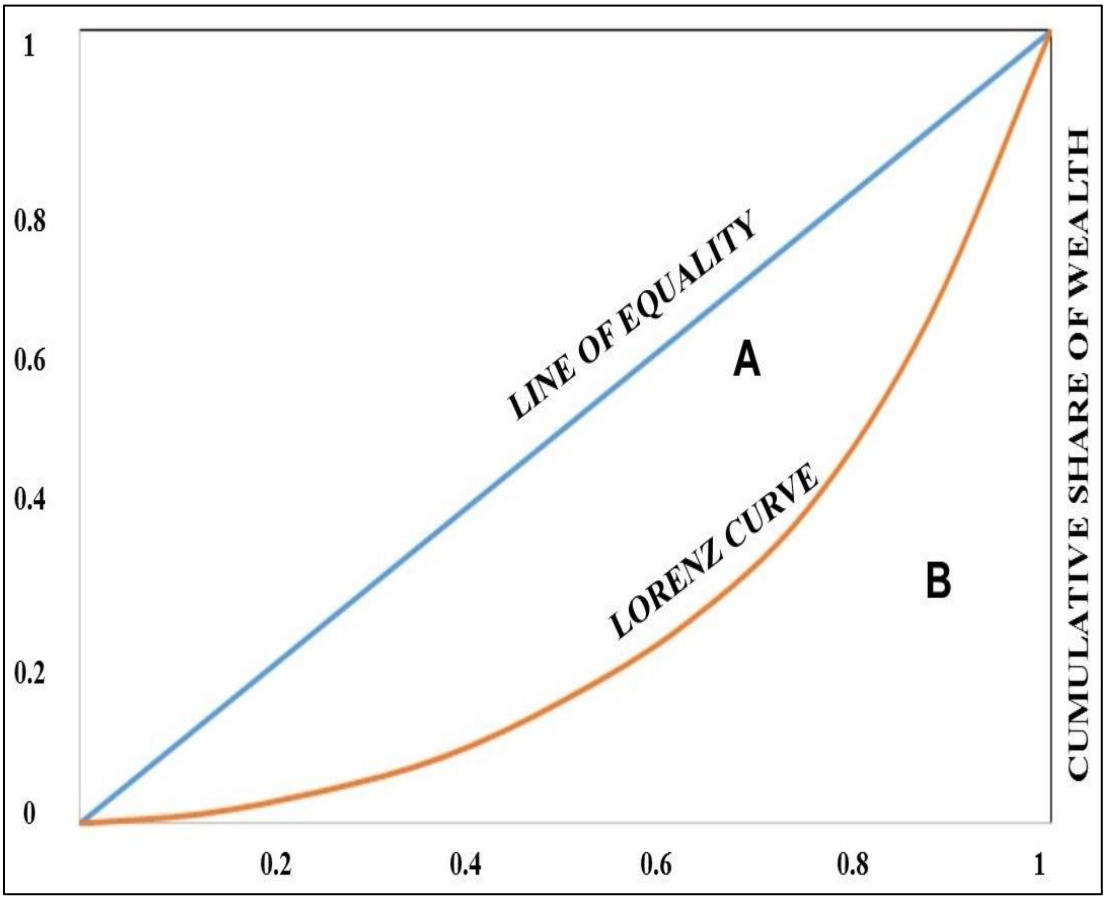

Figure 2.3 The Lorenz Curve to illustrate inequality.
Adopted from Rutherford (2002)

The Gini coefficient is a measure of inequality of a distribution. It is defined as a ratio with values between 0 and 1: the numerator is the area between the Lorenz curve of the distribution and the uniform (line of perfect equality) distribution line, while the denominator is the area under the uniform distribution line. The Gini index is the Gini coefficient expressed as a percentage and is equal to the Gini coefficient multiplied by 100. The Gini coefficient is often used to measure income or wealth inequality and it is used here to measure land inequality (landlessness) because land is wealth and also a source of income. Here, 0 corresponds to perfect income, wealth or land equality (i.e. everyone has the same income, wealth or land) and 1 corresponds to perfect income, wealth or land inequality (i.e. one person has all the income or land, while everyone else has zero income or land). If the area between the line of perfect equality and Lorenz curve is A, and the area under the Lorenz curve is B, then the Gini coefficient is A/(A+B). Since A+B =0.5, the Gini coefficient, G = 2A = 1 – 2B. If the Lorenz curve is represented by the function Y = L(X, the value of B can be found with integration as follows:

In the context of this study, landlessness incidence (LI) is the proportion of the population identified as landless in a given region or area. For example, if a landlessness line of 300 ha is drawn, the landlessness incidence is the proportion of the population whose land ownership or access is less than 300 ha. The landlessness gap (LG) or depth of landlessness is the extent to which those defined as landless fall below the landlessness line of 300 ha. The landlessness gap is a measure that captures ownership or access shortfall relative to the landlessness line across the whole population.

Landlessness gap could also be defined as the minimum size of land needed to eradicate landlessness. The landlessness gap provides information on how far individuals are from the landlessness line. On the other hand, landlessness severity looks at both the depth of landlessness, in other words, how far off the landless are from the landlessness line, and inequality within the landless (how deep or severe the landlessness is), placing a higher weight on those further away from the landlessness line, i.e. the landless of the landless.

2.2.6 Land and Socio-Economic Development

Economic development is a complex concept, and no single definition incorporates all different strands of economic development. However, economic development can be defined in terms of objectives such as the creation of jobs and wealth, and the improvement of quality of life. Economic development can also be described as a process that influences growth and restructuring of an economy to enhance the economic wellbeing of a community (International Economic Development Council, 2017). The main goal of economic development is improving the economic well-being of a community. Given the complexity that entails economic development, there is no single strategy, policy or programme for achieving successful economic development. Communities differ in their geographic and political strength and weaknesses. Each community, therefore, will have a unique set of challenges for economic development (IEDC, 2017).

Rural economic development is described as a process that influences the growth and restructuring of an economy to enhance the economic well-being of rural communities (International Economic Development Council, 2017). Development economics is of the view that instead of playing a passive, supporting role in the process of economic development, the agricultural sector in particular and the rural economy in general must play an indispensable part in any overall strategy of economic progress, especially for the low-income developing countries. To a large extent, therefore, agricultural and rural development has come to be regarded by many economists as the sine qua non of national development. Without such integrated rural development, in most cases, industrial growth either would be stultified or, if it succeeded, would create severe internal imbalances in the economy. Todaro & Smith (2012) define integrated rural development as:

> The broad spectrum of rural development activities, including small-farmer agricultural progress, the provision of physical and social infrastructure, the development of rural non-farm industries, and the capacity of the rural sector

to sustain and accelerate the pace of these improvements over time (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 417).

The Brundtland Report of 1987 that was released by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), describes sustainable development as a process of change in which exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development, and institutional change are all in harmony and enhance both current and future potential to meet human needs and aspirations. Sustainable development is progress that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Dang & Pheng, 2015). Sustainable development brings together matters such as land use planning, an integrated transport policy, housing and construction, and regeneration of cities, towns and rural areas (International Economic Development Council, 2017).

Literature shows that there is, increasingly, a consensus that economic development is a multidimensional process that involves interactions among different goals of development and therefore would require systematically designed policies and strategies. Designing economic development policies need to take into consideration the social, cultural, political systems and institutions as well as their changing interaction over time in a country (Dang & Pheng, 2015).

Economic development must be designed and viewed in a broader perspective than that postulated by traditional economics. Economic system must be analyzed within the context of the overall social system of a country and within an international, global context as well.

Todaro & Smith (2012), purport that "social system means the interdependent relationships between economic and non-economic factors. The latter include attitudes towards life, work, and authority; public and private bureaucratic, legal, and administrative structures; patterns of kinship and religion; cultural traditions; systems of land tenure; the authority and integrity of government agencies; the degree of popular participation in development decisions and activities; and the flexibility or rigidity of economic and social classes" (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 12).

During the 1970s, economic development came to be redefined in terms of the "reduction or elimination of poverty, inequality, and unemployment within the context of a growing economy" (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 15). This means redistribution of wealth from economic growth became a common slogan. Seers (1970), as cited in Todaro & Smith (2012), assert that "if poverty, unemployment and inequality have declined from high levels then, beyond doubt, this has been a period of development for the country concerned. But if one or two of these central problems have been growing worse, especially if all three have, it would be strange to call the result "development" even if per capita income doubled" (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p.15).

Sen's (1998) perspective to development focuses on capability and functioning and argues that the capability to function is what really matters for status as a poor or non-poor person. In other words, for development to be meaningful, it has to be more concerned with enhancing the lives of people and the freedoms they enjoy. Sen (1998), in Todaro & Smith (2012) further argues that "poverty cannot be properly measured by income or even by utility as conventionally understood; what matters fundamentally is not the things a person has, but what a person is, or can be, and does, or can do with the commodities of given characteristics that he comes to possess or control" (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 16).

Sen's (1998) perspective of development helps to explain why development economics has placed so much emphasis on health and education and more recently on social inclusion and empowerment, and has referred to countries with high levels of income but poor health and education standards as cases of "economic growth without development" (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 18). When any of the life-sustaining basic human needs (food, shelter, health, and protection) is absent or in critically short supply, conditions of absolute underdevelopment exist. Therefore, economic development is a necessary condition for the improvement in the quality of life. Todaro & Smith (2012) summarize the three main objectives of development as follows:

> To increase the availability and widen the distribution of basic life-sustaining goods such as food, shelter, health, and protection.
>
> To raise levels of living, including, in addition to higher incomes, the provision of more jobs, better education, and greater attention to cultural and human values, all of which will serve not only to enhance material well-being but also to generate greater individual and national self-esteem.
>
> To expand the range of economic and social choices available to individuals and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence not only in relation to other people and nation-state but also to the forces of ignorance and human misery (Todaro & Smith, 2012, pp. 22-23).

On theorizing the relationship between landlessness and economic development, Rahman and Manprasert (2006) state that;

> All factors that make the effect on the standard of living are considered as exogenous variables excluding the degree of landlessness; that the means and modes of production are largely dependent on the use of land. Almost all economic activities in the rural areas are concentrated on the pattern of access to and ownership of land. When land ownership pattern is sub-divided from

> the haves to the have-nots, the discrimination of land distribution would go up. It is assumed that when the degree of landlessness increases, the standard of living decreases or falls. Land inequality and unequal access to education and training when combined with poor markets for land and credit may also be destructive for economic growth itself, and especially for growth that benefits the poor (Rahman & Manprasert, 2006, pp. 55-56).

Some economists like Malthus (1766-1834), in Hewitt & Smyth, (2004) argue that "population growth is a major cause of poverty". Malthus (1798, in Hewitt & Smyth, 2004) avers that "the human race tends to reproduce in geometrical progression (2, 4, 6, 8…) while food supplies (resources) can only grow arithmetically (1, 2, 3…)" (Heiwitt & Smyth, 2000, p. 132).

Malthus (1798) was renowned for his support of the landed gentry, which "blinded him to the view that extreme misery was caused not so much by diminishing returns of labour as population grew but by the lack of political bargaining power of the peasantry vis-à-vis the landlords" (Hewitt & Smyth, 2000, p.132). The common feature of Neo-Malthusianism is "demographic determinism, which asserts that the weight (increase) of the population itself is the cause of problems" (Heiwitt & Smyth, 2000, p. 133). This view implies that more people are competing for scarce resources in rural areas, especially agricultural land.

However, the critique leveled against Malthus' theory of population growth versus resources argues that "the problem of the world is not about overpopulation but is about the unequal distribution of resources". The critique further argues that "the fundamental issue is not population control, but control over resources and the very circumstances of life itself" (Michaelson, 1981), in (Heiwitt & Smyth, 2000, p. 132).

A social perspective to development argues that "development is the best contraceptive to population growth" (Bucharest slogan, 1974). Central to this perspective is the notion that rapid population growth is not the cause of social and economic problems, but rather a symptom.

2.2.7 Landlessness and Rural Poverty

Throughout history, land has been recognised as a primary source of wealth, social status, and power. Land is the basis for shelter, food production, and various economic activities; land is the most significant provider of employment opportunities in rural areas and is an increasingly scarce resource in urban areas. Access to land is governed through land tenure systems. Land tenure is the relationship, whether legally or customarily defined, among people, as individuals or groups, with respect to land. Land tenure systems determine who can use what resources, for how long, and under what conditions. According to FAO (2002), the manner in which one may have the rights to access land (land tenure systems) are categorized as follows:

(a) Private ownership or freehold: this is assignment of rights to a private party who may be an individual, a married couple, a group of people, or a corporate body. For example, within a community, individual families may have exclusive rights to residential parcels, agricultural parcels. Other members of the community can be excluded from using these resources/land without the consent of those who hold the rights or title deed. This type of access gives the right to sell or mortgage the land, to convey the land to others through intra-community reallocations or to heirs, and to reallocate use and control rights (FAO, 2002, pp. 2-3).

(b) Communal access or commonage: a right of commons may exist within a community where each member of that community has a right to use independently the holdings of the community. For example, members of a community may have the right to graze cattle on a common pasture. This type of access gives the user the right to use the land for grazing, growing subsistence crops, gathering minor forestry products (FAO, 2002, p. 3).

(c) Open access: specific rights are not assigned to anyone and no one can be excluded. This typically includes marine tenure where access to the high seas, including rangeland, forests, etc., is generally open to anyone, offering free access to the resources for all. The difference between open access and communal system is that under a communal system non-members of a particular community are excluded from using or accessing the common areas (FAO, 2002), (Akram-Lodhi, Borras Jr, & Kay, 2007).

(d) State ownership of land: property rights are assigned to some authority in the public sector, for example, forest lands, parks or protected areas may fall under the mandate of the state, whether at central or decentralized level of government (Food and Agriculture Organization, 2019). In Namibia, even communal land belongs to the State and is held in trust for the benefit of the traditional communities and cannot be sold or bought. However, citizens can be given a customary land right or a right of leasehold to a part of communal land in line with the Communal Land Reform Act, 2002 (Act No.5 of 2002).

Access to water and other natural resources, as well as to basic services such as sanitation, communication and electricity infrastructure, is often conditioned by access to rights in land. The willingness and ability to make long term investments in arable land and in housing is directly dependent on the protection that society affords the holders of rights. Land also has great cultural, religious, and legal significance. There is a strong correlation in many societies between the decision-making powers that a person enjoys and the quantity and quality of land rights held by that person. In rural areas social inclusion or exclusion often depends solely on a person's land holding status. Even in urban areas, the right to participate in municipal planning, in community decisions, and sometimes elections, can depend on the status of an individual as a 'resident' or 'home owners'. This is not a new phenomenon, since for many centuries only 'land owners' could participate in elections in most western democracies. Access to land then is an important aspect of household, community, and national decision-making powers (FAO, 2002).

However, access to land alone without the accompanying support measures may not be sufficient for a sustainable livelihood and socio-economic development. Support measures such as pre and post-settlement support, provision of basic infrastructure like water, access to finance, access to good markets, fencing and other facilities are critical to make access to land more meaningful. Access to land should also be accompanied by a training and mentorship program to impart skills and knowledge to enable beneficiaries to make the land productive.

Therefore, any concept of sustainable socio-economic development relies heavily on both access to property rights in land and the security of those rights.

Poverty blights the lives of millions in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Most of the poor, at least in Africa and Asia, reside in rural areas, dependent directly or indirectly on agricultural land. The rural poor are, in the main, landless or near-landless. While landlessness is among the most important characteristics of the rural poor, they are by no means an undifferentiated or a homogeneous mass of humanity (Khan, 2015).

The rural poor may be the minifundistas in Latin America, marginal owner-operators in Asia, smallholders in Africa, who are struggling to survive by selling their labour to others either in or outside agriculture. The rural poor may also be tenants, either as sharecroppers or as bonded labour in some countries of Asia and colonos on the haciendas in Latin America. Khan (2015) iterate that these households often have access to the usufruct of land, however tenuous their attachment to land. An increasing number of the rural poor are the landless workers, who could be permanent, seasonal and even migratory.

Khan (2015) further states that the households of the rural poor cannot in reality be clearly demarcated as distinct and independent, but that the rural poor may be dependent for livelihood on a multiple of sources. A multiplicity of occupations is their single most shared characteristic, reflecting an important survival mechanism. Household labour is their basic source of income, part of which they must use on their small, often fragmented, land parcels, owned or leased, and the other part of their labour they must sell increasingly to others within and outside agriculture (Khan, 2015). That a large and even increasing proportion of the rural households are poor shows the severe constraints they face in raising their living standards within the existing agrarian structures.

Land is the basis of livelihood for billions of people in the world and because of this critical role; land has been extensively captured in the major international instruments for measuring standard and quality of life. Availability of adequate food and shelter, in the third world countries and other agricultural-based economies, depend on the size and tenure of land that is available to an individual (Kenya Human Rights Commission, 2016). It follows, therefore, that land is an important essential for the realisation of many human rights-civil and political; and economic, social and cultural rights. The rights to own, control, access and make use of land are therefore very critical (Malombe, 2016) to poverty alleviation and economic development.

2.3 Landlessness in other parts of the World

Todaro & Smith (2012), express the opinion that the traditional rural conditions in Asia typically deteriorated throughout the twentieth century. Myrdal (1968) identified three major interrelated forces that molded Asia's traditional pattern of land ownership into its current fragmented conditions as: (a) "the intervention of European rule; (b) the progressive introduction of monetized transactions and the rise in power of the money-lender; and (c), the rapid growth of Asian populations" (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 430).

The three factors mentioned above, to a large extent, contributed to the current land tenure system in Asia where some people have access or ownership of large pieces of land while others have less or no access at all. The rapid growth of the Asian population led to diminishing land for agriculture and living space.

In addition, the introduction of the money-lending institutions (banks) also created social and economic classes in Asia. Those who had privileges to access finance from financial institutions were able to buy land and sell land, and this created an exclusive land market in some Asian countries. Evidence from studies conducted in Latin America suggests that large landowners captured most of the benefits of agricultural growth in the 1970s and 1980s. In contrast, in Indonesia, where small farmers provide the bulk of agricultural production, agricultural productivity and growth were greater in that period, and were better for the rural poor (Birdsall, 2008).

History records that "the traditional Asian agrarian structure before European colonization was organized around the village. Local chiefs and peasant families each provided goods and service – produce and labour from the peasants to the chief in return for protection rights to use community land" (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 430).

Decisions on the allocation, disposition, and use of the village's most valuable resource, land, belonged to the tribe or community, either as a body or through its chief. The arrival of the Europeans (British, French, and Dutch) led to major changes in the traditional agrarian structure. Myrdal (1968), as cited in Todaro & Smith (2012) points out that:

> Colonial rule acted as an important catalyst to change, both directly through its effects on property rights and indirectly through its effects on the pace of monetization of the indigenous economy and on the growth of [the] population. In the area of property rights, European land tenure system of private property ownership were both encouraged and reinforced by law. The landlord was given unrestricted rights to dispose of the land and to raise the tribute from its customary level to whatever amount he was able to extract. The landlord was usually relieved of the obligation to supply security and public amenities because these functions were taken over by the government. Thus, his status was transformed from that of a tribute receiver with responsibilities to the community to that of an absolute owner unencumbered by obligations towards the peasants and the public, other than the payment of land taxes (Myrdal, 1968 in Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 430).

A comparison of Asia and Latin America shows that the major agrarian problem of traditional Latin America has been identified as too much land under the control of too few people, while the basic problem in Asia is that of too many people crowded onto too little land. Research shows that the "per capita availability of arable land as early as 1994 in India, China, and Bangladesh was 0.19, 0.08, and 0.07 hectares, respectively" (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 429). This indicates that land is relatively more equally distributed in Asia than in Latin America despite substantial levels of inequality.

In the 1990s in Latin America, with its high inequality, basic education systems were poor and the children of the rich attended private schools. On average, the children of the richest 20 percent of households in many Latin American countries had about six more years of education by age 24 than the children of the poorest 20 percent; in countries of East Asia, some poorer than their counterparts in Latin America, the comparable gap was just four and a half years (Birdsall, 2008). What causes the difference? In East Asia, public spending on basic education has been higher, school systems have been better run, and better access and more equal distribution of land have given more households the assets to send their children to school and the incentives to demand that their schooling be adequate.

The difference between East Asia and Latin America in educational opportunities for the poor illustrates the apparent relationship between a high concentration of income in a society and access to education. It is further asserted that in a situation where the institutions of government are weak to start with, inequality makes strengthening them harder, and in general of maintaining accountable government. This in turn makes it less likely that the government will provide adequate public services, thus reducing the economy's growth potential (Birdsall, 2008).

If the rich fail to support public policy on land redistribution and public education, for example, favouring a public policy that preserves privileges even at the cost of economic growth, inequality not only inhibits growth given government failure, as outlined above, but itself contributes to government failure. This situation is worse in countries with substantial poverty at the bottom and without a strong middle class to demand accountability from government.

There is further evidence from microeconomic analysis that land and income inequality adversely affect some correlates of social capital. For example, in Tanzania, informal insurance is higher in communities where income inequality is lower, whereas among cooperatives in India, those in which land ownership is more unequal are less productive (Birdsall, 2008). Although some are of the view that reducing inequality might not in itself lead automatically to higher economic growth or better government or more stable and healthy societies, it should be noted that to ignore inequality altogether is to invite setbacks on the economic development path.

2.3.1 Landlessness and its Impact in Bangladesh

According to Rahman & Manprasert (2006), "landless households in Bangladesh are defined as those with less than 0.2 hectares". A critical appraisal on landlessness and economic development of Bangladesh found that "the percentage of landless households in total was 46% in 1988 but increased to 49.6% in 1995, and most of the landless in rural areas are poor and work as agricultural wage labourers" (Rahman & Manprasert, 2006, p.55). Like in many other developing countries, the majority of the rural population in Bangladesh depends on land as their primary source of income.

Therefore, the landholding pattern is a major determinant of their economic solvency, social power structure and hierarchy. Bangladesh has experienced an alarming growth of landlessness among their rural population over the past decades. The state has been eradicating poverty by raising their standard of living through preventing the concentration of wealth and means of production and distribution in the hands of a few. The study by Rahman and Manprasert (2006), found that landlessness often materializes the manifestation of poverty, indebtedness and powerlessness of the majority of the rural households.

There are numerous causes of landlessness and near landlessness, some of them include a dearth of land, rapid population growth, low productivity in agriculture, lack of effective government policies, and colonial legacies. Due to these circumstances, land-oriented poverty and rural-to-urban migration without any expansion in the housing and utility services lead to the expansion of a slump with all affiliated social problems (Rahman & Manprasert, 2006).

The research, conversely, found that landlessness diminishes the rate of land fragmentation, which facilitates automation in the production process through both extensive and intensive directions. The study, therefore, revealed that landlessness has a significant level of positive impact on economic development through facilitating modern technology in the primary sector. For social welfare, the policymakers can rehabilitate the landless people through creating income-generating activities, by setting up agro-based industries as well as promoting employment in non-agricultural sector as a must for achieving potential economic growth (Rahman & Manprasert, 2006).

2.3.2 Landlessness and Land Reform in Japan

During the Meiji period (c1868 – 1911), before the Second World War, landlordism was the norm in the rural society of Japan and mall tenant farmers occupied nearly one third of farm producers (Kawagoe, 1999). A landlord implies an owner of farmland who rent out all or some of their land and does not carry negative connotation. Landlords or *Jinushi* who owned nearly half of the farmland, had overwhelming power in the rural communities (Kawagoe, 1999).

On the other hand, the farmland was cultivated by 5.5 million peasantry households, which shouldered Japanese agriculture (Hayami, Ma, & Loudes, 1990). One third of the peasant households were tenant cultivators or *kosaku*, who did not own their land but rented small plots from the landlords. Peasant cultivators had to pay nearly half of products to the landlords as land rent. This situation caused poverty among the peasants in rural areas which led to social unrest in prewar Japan (Hayami et al. 1990), until the drastic land reform was executed.

The land reform that was designed and implemented after the Second World War, from 1946 to 1950, in Japan was a program done along with the distribution of property rights on land to tillers, categorized into an Asian land reform model (Kawagoe, 1999). Land reform under a non-communist setting is defined as an institutional innovation promoted by the ruling order in an attempt to overcome economic or political contradictions without changing the dominant social relations (de Janvry, 1981, pp. 384-385). The Japanese government designed a rural land reform programme which contained measures to insure a more equitable transfer of farmland from non-operators to cultivators, and to protect new landowners against reversion to tenantry. A land reform under a communist setting in Japan took a drastic form of revolution, intended to destroy the social and economic structure.

In a broad sense, Kawagoe (1993) is of the view that land reform is a political action that seek to achieve or to prevent the change of agrarian structure on farmland, which consequently brings the changes of class structure and the political control on states. In this case, property or cultivating right on farmland is transferred either through compulsory measures or through market transaction with some promotional measures. Whatever the objective or intention, a land reform for political motivation inevitably impacts on the economic conditions of agricultural sector either positively or negatively.

A politically successful land reform might hamper the wholesome growth of the agricultural sector, because the welfare among farmers and efficiency of agriculture are often contradictory policy targets. A land reform for economic motivation may result in unexpected political consequences, because an economically successful land reform may aggravate income distribution among the rural landless population. Therefore, when evaluating the impact of a land reform programme, one should identify its main objectives; is it political reform or economic reform, or both.

According to Kawagoe (1993a), the drastic land reform of postwar Japan has been considered as one of the most successful reform in the world because of the following reasons:

- It was a great success in terms of the political motivation; the reform contributed to the democratization and socio-political stability in postwar Japan.
- A conservative Liberal Democratic Party, which was supported by the rural population, was able to retain dominance in the Diet and remained in power for nearly 40 years following the land reform (Kawagoe, 1993a).
- Both tenant farmers and landlords almost disappeared and most of the community members in rural areas became owners of farmland.
- It brought more equal assets and income distribution among the rural population.

- The reform broke the old customs and traditions, and many beneficial effects on farm production came about through its indirect effects in changing the whole tenure of village life (Dore, 1959, p. 218).

Mennen (2015), indicates that in Japan, 92 percent of farm households owned some land, but of these, 49.6 percent owned less than 1.22 acres. In contrast, the wealthiest 3.2 percent of farm households owned as much land as the poorest 75 percent. The Farmer Establishment Special Law of Japan required all tenant lands owned by absentee landlords to be purchased by government, with 7.35 acres set as the maximum holding for any one person (Mennen, 2015).

Kawagoe (1999), concluded that the Japanese postwar land reform programme succeeded politically but, as an industrial policy, brought serious economic problems. The programme demolished a class structure based on landholding, and landlords were no longer supreme and rural society was restructured. But the land reform had little effect on agricultural production.

Agriculture grew after the war, but not because of land reform but, possibly, because of greater technical knowledge and recovery of critical inputs, such as fertilizers, that were in short supply during the war. The income and standard of living of rural people may have improved, but it is not clear to what extent land reform contributed to capital formation in agriculture. Iscan (2017), also concluded that after the postwar land reform programme in Japan, tenancy effectively disappeared and half of the actual reallocation of labour out of agriculture was due to the reform. By contrast, their impact on income per capita was minimal (Iscan, 2017, pp. 1-5). The Japanese postwar land reform programme experience offers precious lessons to developing countries like

Namibia who is still in the process of implementing a land reform and resettlement programme.

2.3.3 Landlessness and Land Reform in the Philippines

Since the Second World War, various Government administrations in the Philippines have used land reform, albeit in various forms and intensity, as a key element of their poverty reduction strategies, as well as a tool to address social unrest in the rural areas (Balisacan, 2007). The 1955 Land Reform Act of the Philippines embraced the idea of compulsory land expropriation for rice lands but the retention limit was set generously at 300 contiguous hectares for private lands planted with rice, 600 hectares for corporate farms, and 1024 hectares for private farms other than rice (Fuwa, 2000).

In 1988, the Government of the Philippines under the Aquino Administration, adopted agrarian reform as the centerpiece of its development agenda. According to Balisacan (2007), expectations were high that a comprehensive agrarian reform programme would not only be a social programme to reduce rural income disparities, but also as part of the new government's counter-insurgency campaign strategy.

The Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Law (Republic Act No. 6657), was enacted to govern the implementation of the 10-years Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Programme (CARP). The CARP initiative provides a comprehensive programme of beneficiary development, especially the delivery of basic services such as capacity building, credit and marketing assistance, and farm infrastructure needed to transform the beneficiaries into efficient agricultural producers and entrepreneurs (ADB, 2005); (Balisacan, 1993); (Hayami, Quisumbing, & Adriano, 1990).

Balisacan (2007) states that a recent strand of economic development literature posits that a country's initial land distribution influences its subsequent economic growth and human development performance. This evidence suggest that, on the average, a developing country with an initially high land inequality is expected to have a lower long-term income growth rate and slower pace of poverty reduction than a country with a more favourable land distribution. Put differently, improvement in land inequality is not just about advancing equity goals; it is also about raising the trajectory of income growth by improving overall economic efficiency. This view is also supported by Vollrath & Erickson (2007); Deininger & Squire (1998).

In the Philippines, rural poverty and rural insurgency problems have often been linked to access to land and tenure relations. Poverty incidence is relatively high among landless agricultural workers and farmers cultivating small plots of land (Balisacan, 2007, pp. 2-5). The CARP Impact Assessment Studies conducted by Lim (2003), found the following:

- Panel data indicated a strong increase in owner-cultivatorship and significant declines in share tenancy and lease holding between 1989 and 1999. These results were consistent with the "land-to-the-tiller emphasis of CARP;
- A more secure land tenure and secure land ownership enhance the willingness of landowners and beneficiaries to invest;
- An agrarian reform beneficiary (ARB) has lower chances of being poor compared to a non-ARB; and the length of time of being an ARB and being an ARC reduces one's chances of being poor
- The Agrarian Reform Community (ARC) approach to beneficiary development, if properly implemented, improves the economic conditions, social capital, and democratic participation of communities. This result is

supported by studies conducted by FAO-TSARRD (1998) and Edillon & Velarde (2004);

- The real agricultural and rural incomes for both agrarian reform beneficiaries (ARBs) and non-ARBs between the 1990 survey and 2000 survey actually fell due to the long-run fall in real per capita value added in agriculture (Lim, 2003). This finding demonstrates that the positive micro-level effects of the land reform programme could only be translated into higher long-term incomes and lower poverty if the general environment (macroeconomic policies, rural development strategies, trade policy regime, natural resource management, governance institutions) is conducive to development and growth in rural economy (Lim, 2003).

In conclusion, some lessons have emerged from the Philippines land reform initiatives concerning the design and implementation of agrarian reform initiatives in other developing countries, especially for Namibia. The Philippines agrarian reform has shown that the speed (reasonably short period) and political credibility of programme implementation are essential to the success of a national land reform programme. A long-drawn, infinite implementation breeds an atmosphere of uncertainty, discourages the flow of investments into agriculture and leads to dwindling financial support (FAO-TSARRD, 1998).

A land reform programme that constrains the scope of tenure choice tends to defeat the objective of promoting efficient resource allocation in rural areas, and hurt the poorest of the rural poor, like the landless farm workers, whose poverty frequently serves as justification for land reform legislation. A relatively well-disciplined bureaucracy, together with the availability of an accurate set of data on landownership and tenure relations, should be in place if land reform is to be a success (Chen & Ravallion, 2007).

The political acceptability and legitimacy of a land redistribution programme have to be ensured. For example, in the Chile's land reform programme, the overthrow of the Allende regime resulted in the re-introduction of the formerly skewed land ownership pattern during the Pinochet regime (Binswanger et al. 1995).

The respective role of private and public sectors have to be clearly defined. Land reform programmes founded on the assumption that only the public sector is capable of determining beneficiary selection and needs, delivering services, and maintaining communal facilities and support services are bound to fail. With their roles clearly defined, nongovernmental organisations are effective conduits for the delivery of essential services to programme beneficiaries. This was very limited in the case of the Philippine land reform programme (FAO-TSARRD, 1998) and the same situation seems to prevail even in the Namibian land reform implementation programme.

In a land reform regime that admits compensation of land owners at 'fair market value', as in the Philippines CARP, it is necessary to dismantle agricultural pricing subsidies and investment policy distortions that drive land prices above the capitalised value of farm profits, before any land redistribution programme is introduced.

In the final analysis, land reform should not be considered as a panacea for poverty reduction (Edillon & Velarde, 2004). In countries with highly unequal land distribution and widespread poverty like Namibia, land reform should be seen as only one element of a comprehensive strategy for economic and social development. No land reform programme can be effective in achieving its goals unless the economic and political environment is conducive to sustained economic growth and development (Otsuka, 1996).

Table 2 1: Distribution of Farms by Operational Farm Size in some Asian Countries

Country	**Average Operational Farms Size (hectares)**	**Percentage of Farms**		**Gini Coefficient of Land Concentration**
		Below 5 Hectares	**Above 50 Hectares**	
Bangladesh	1.6	90.6	N.A[1]	0.42
India	2.3	88.7	0.1	0.62
Indonesia	1.1	97.9	0.0[2]	0.56
Nepal	1.0	97.2	0.0[2]	0.56
Philippines	3.6	84.8	0.2	0.51
Thailand	3.7	72.3	0.0[2]	0.45

Source: Economic Development, 11th Edition by Todaro and Smith (2012)

Table 2.1 shows that in all the Asian countries that were surveyed, the average operational farm size was less than 4 hectares, with a farm size in Indonesia and Nepal of just 1 hectare. In Indonesia and Nepal, 97.9 and 97.2 percent of farms are below 5 ha, and less than 0.05 percent of farms are above 50 ha. Thailand and the Philippines have an average of 3.7 and 3.6 ha respectively of operational farm size. Furthermore, the table shows that 0.1 percent of farms in India and 0.2 percent of farms in the Philippines are above 50 ha. On average, 88.5 percent of farms are below 5 ha in the six Asian countries indicated in Table 2.1 above.

[1] Data not available
[2] Less than 0.05%

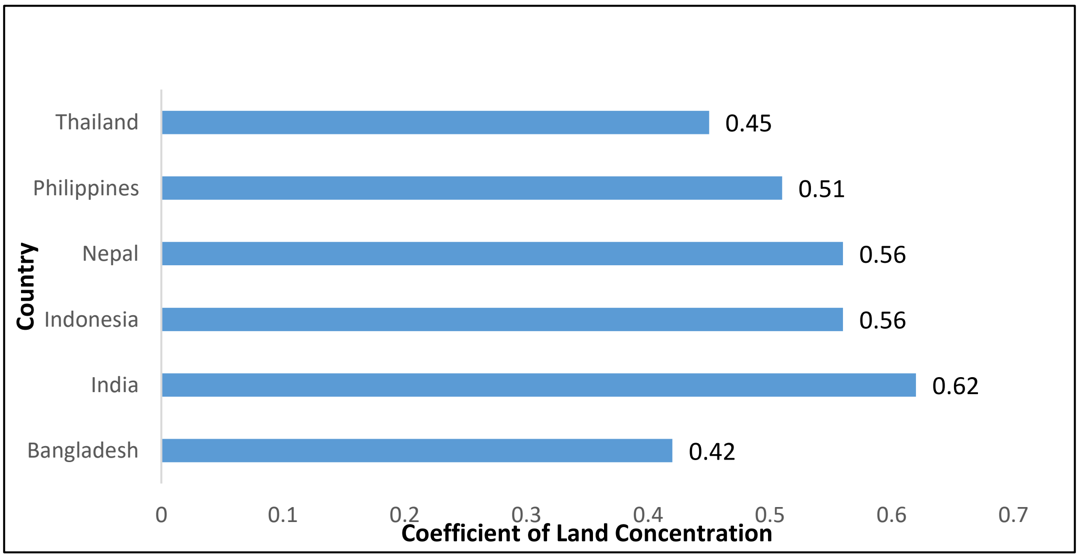

Figure 2.4 Gini-Coefficient for land distribution in some Asian countries
Source: Statistics from Economic Development, Eleventh Edition, by Todaro & Smith (2012).

Figure 2.4 shows that the estimated Gini coefficient for land distribution in Asia ranges from 0.42 in Bangladesh and 0.45 in Thailand to 0.62 in India and 0.56 in Indonesia and Nepal. Research has found that contemporary landlords in South Asia are often absentee owners who live in towns and turn the working of their land to sharecroppers and other tenant farmers (Todaro & Smith, 2012). Sharecroppers and tenant farmers are those farmers who do not own land, but they work and share the produce with the landlord as the basis for the rental contract.

Sharecropping is widespread in both Asia and Latin America, but more pervasive in Asia. It has been estimated that of all tenanted land about 84.5 percent is sharecropped in Asia and about 16.1 percent in Latin America (Todaro & Smith, 2012). This system of land tenure where individuals have titles to agricultural land led to the rise of a powerful and dubious agent of change in Asian rural socioeconomic structure called the moneylender. The Asian agricultural system was transformed from a subsistence to a commercial orientation in order to meet the rising demand for food in towns and in response to external food demands of colonial European powers.

The transition from subsistence to commercial farming, therefore, led to the high demand for cash by peasant farmers to buy agricultural inputs such as seeds and fertilizers. Moneylenders charged exorbitant interest rates or induced peasants to secure larger credits that they failed to repay such loans and ended up defaulting. Once a peasant defaults, the moneylender drives away the peasant from the land and they (moneylenders) could then reap the profits of land speculation by selling this farmland to rich and acquisitive landlords.

In most cases, as a consequence of moneylenders' influence, coupled with rapid population growth, the Asian peasant cultivators saw their economic status deteriorate leading to fragmentation and deterioration. The cases of India, Indonesia, and the Philippines give an understanding to the deterioration of rural conditions in some Asian countries as indicated by Todaro & Smith (2012):

> In 1901, there were 286 million Indians; a century later, there were 3 times that number. The Indonesian population grew from 28.4 million in 1900 to 210 million in 2000. The population of central Luzon in the Philippines has increased more than tenfold from its level of 1 million 1903. In each case, severe fragmentation of landholdings inevitably followed, so that today average peasant landholdings in many areas of these countries has fallen to less than 1 hectare (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 431).

When landholdings continue to shrink even further due to rising population, production falls below the subsistence level. As a result, chronic poverty becomes a way of life for many. Subsistence farmers are forced to borrow more cash from the moneylenders at very high interest rates, which later becomes unaffordable to repay. In order for the peasant farmers to survive, they are compelled to sell their land and become tenants with large debts.

Due to scarcity of land, peasants have no choice but to pay high rents or sharecrop on unfavourable conditions. Thus, due to an abundance of labour, wages are extremely low. As a result, peasants get trapped in a vice of chronic poverty from which, in the absence of major rural reconstruction and reform, there is no escape. Hence, many rural Asians are gradually being transformed from small proprietors to tenant farmers and sharecroppers, then landless rural labourers, then jobless vagrants, and finally migrant slum dwellers on the fringes of modern urban areas (Todaro & Smith, 2012).

A study that was carried out by Anwar, Qureshi, and Ali, (2004) to examine landlessness and rural poverty in Pakistan found that despite a number of policy initiatives and programmes undertaken for poverty alleviation by the government, absolute poverty, especially in rural areas, continued to rise during the 1990s.

The results showed that poverty is strongly correlated with a lack of land which is the principal asset in the rural economy of Pakistan. Prevalence of poverty was found to be the highest among landless at 54.89 percent across rural areas in the country; the degree of inequality among the landless households was substantially high; a highly unequal landownership pattern was reflected by the fact that merely 1.0 percent households own more than 35 acres of land and above, with a Gini Coefficient of land holding at 0.6151 in 2001-02 (Anwar, Qureshi, & Ali, 2004).

The results of this study give an impression that highly unequal land distribution is the main manifestations of poverty in rural Pakistan. The highly unequal land distribution seems to have resulted in tenancy arrangements such as sharecropping which seem to have resulted in high incidence of poverty in some areas. Anwar et al. (2004) are of the view that landlessness to agricultural land is one of the most important contributors to rural poverty in Pakistan. Therefore, agricultural growth and poverty alleviation can be achieved if land inequality is reduced and tenants are protected by well-enforced tenancy contracts. The Pakistan study further found that many rural poor communities were not able to benefit from the microcredit programmes (Anwar et al., 2004).

2.3.4 Land Ownership in Latin American Countries

Literature indicates that in many developing countries, different historical situations have contributed to a concentration of large pieces of land in the control of a minority class of powerful landowners. This situation is as evident in Latin America as it is in Asian subcontinent and most African countries. The agrarian structures in Latin America are part of the productive system and form a basic feature of the entire economic, social, and political organization of rural life (Todaro & Smith, 2012).

Extreme rural inequalities in Latin America typically stem from the Spanish and Portuguese colonial period, in which indigenous people were exploited in what often amounted to slavery, and African slaves were forcibly brought to the region. Overcoming this legacy has been a long and painful process, with much remaining to be achieved. Social discrimination continues, and improved access for the poor to agricultural land in countries such as Colombia is still in all too many cases suppressed (Todaro & Smith, 2012).

According to Todaro and Smith (2012), the Latin American agrarian structure that existed during and after colonial times in most parts of the region is still a pattern of agricultural dualism best known as *latifundio-minifundio*. *Latifundios* are very large landholdings and are usually defined as farms large enough to provide employment for more than 12 people, some may even employ thousands. While *minifundios* are the smallest farms that are defined as “farms too small to provide employment for a single family with a maximum of two workers” (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 426).

Table 2. 2: Distribution of Farms by Operational Farm Size in Latin American Countries

		Percentage of Farms		
Country	Average Operational Farm Size (hectares)	Below 5 Hectares	Above 50 Hectares	Gini Coefficient of Land Concentration
Brazil	59.7	36.8	16.3	0.84
Costa Rica	38.1	48.9	14.5	0.82
Colombia	26.3	59.6	8.4	0.86
Peru	16.9	78.0	1.9	0.91
Uruguay	214.1	14.3	37.6	0.82
Venezuela	91.9	43.8	13.6	0.91

Source: Economic Development, Eleventh Edition, by Todaro and Smith (2012)

Table 2.2 shows that the average operational farm size in Latin America range from 16.9 hectares in Peru to 214.1 hectares in Uruguay, while Costa Rica and Brazil have operational farm sizes of 38.1 and 59.7 hectares respectively. Table 2.2 also indicates that 78.0 percent of farms in Peru and 59.6 percent of farms in Colombia were less than 5 hectares, compared to 43.8 percent in Venezuela and 36.8 percent in Brazil. Furthermore, the table shows that 37.6 percent of farms in Uruguay and 16.3 percent of farms in Brazil are above 50 hectares, compared to 1.9 percent in Peru and 8.4 percent in Colombia.

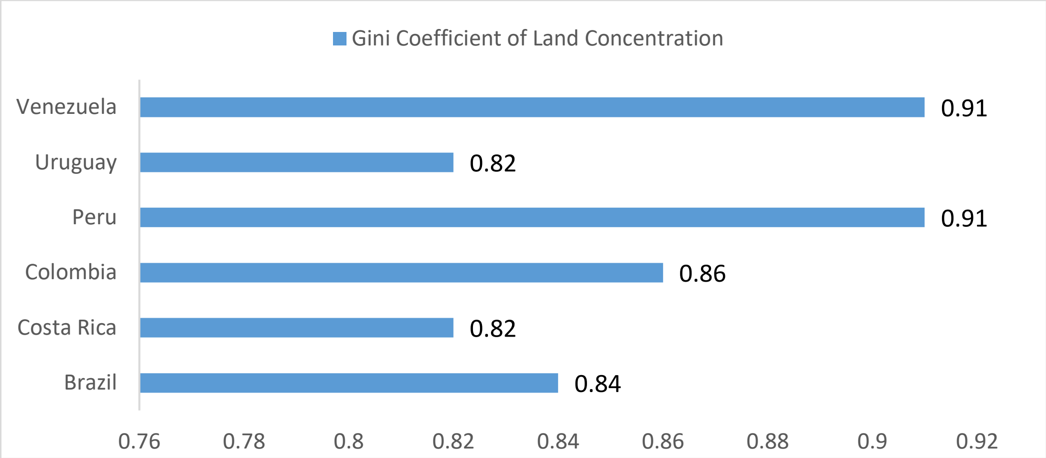

Figure 2.5 Gini-Coefficient of land concentration in Latin America
Source: Statistics from Economic Development, 11th Edition by Todaro & Smith (2012).

Figure 2.5 reflects the outcome of a study that was conducted in some Latin American countries that used the Gini-coefficient to measure the degree of land concentration. The study found that the Gini-coefficient for Colombia is 0.86, for Costa Rica is 0.82, for Uruguay 0.82, for Peru 0.91, and for Venezuela is 0.91. The Gini-Coefficient for Paraguay is reported to be almost perfectly unequal at 0.94 (Todaro & Smith, 2012). According to this study, these figures are "the highest regional Gini-coefficients in the world, and they dramatically reflect the degree of land ownership inequality, and thus, in part, income inequality throughout Latin America" (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 426).

The survey conducted by Todaro and Smith (2012) further indicates that in Venezuela, Brazil and Uruguay, the family and medium-size farms account for about 50 percent of total agricultural output and employ similar proportions of agricultural labour like the *latifundios.* The family and medium-size farms also use more efficient balance between labour and land and have much higher total factor productivity than *latifundios* and *minifundios,* as the law of diminishing return would suggest. Moreover, according to Torado and Smith a major explanation for the relative economic inefficiency of farming the fertile land on the latifundios is simply that "the wealthy landowners often value these holdings not for their potential contributions to national agricultural output but rather for the considerable power and prestige that they bring" (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p. 427-430). This results in much of the land being left idle or farmed less intensively than on small farms.

2.4 Landlessness in Selected African Countries

Most of the land tenure challenges facing some African countries today are legacies of the colonial period. The history of colonialism in Africa varied among the regions and in relation to colonizing policies. The report by the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA, 2004) on improving the understanding of the linkages between land tenure systems and sustainable development in Africa, state that:

> In some countries, settler colonialism was entrenched through massive land alienation and proletarianisation, leading to protracted armed liberation wars. In others, indirect rule led to the promotion of peasant farming for exports without land expropriation, generating multiple export enclaves, which built differentiating indigenous elite alongside the peasantry. And, in a few countries such as Democratic Republic of Congo, Cameroon, the plantation economies of the European merchant capitalists coexisted with peasantries in a bimodal agrarian context (Economic Commission for Africa, 2004, pp. 17-18).

Thus, the legacy of the colonial land policies is the major framework through which sustainable livelihood at the individual country level have been conditioned. Therefore, the genesis of the land problem in Africa is a political economic structure established through conquests by Europeans seeking to extract resources from Africa

The current land tenure complexities have their roots in the administrative and resource rights systems imposed during the colonial period. The diversity of historical experiences of Africa's colonialism means that land tenure systems vary considerably but with some commonalities. According to the Economic Commission for Africa, colonialism introduced new dimensions to the form of land ownership and title, and land management, as well as to the rights and responsibilities related to land and natural resources (Economic Commission for Africa , 2004).

Following the conquest and having first declared the indigenous black population ignorant of any ownership concepts, the colonial state arrogated land to white settlers on the basis of freehold tenure, thereby giving them virtual absolute ownership and the greatest bundle of rights. Land scarcity, denial of access to natural resources by landlords and the State through laws which exclude many, and privatization of land, have contributed to human distress and poverty (ECA, 2004). The displaced and dispossessed communities then had no choice but to settle on the worst lands under the administrative discretion of the colonizer.

At the time of political independence for most African countries, a dual, unequal and hierarchical system of land tenure was inherited, with freehold and leasehold land rights being treated as superior to customary land rights. It is this dilemma that most land reform initiatives in African countries are trying to redress and continue to manifest itself in today's debate on access and ownership of land, land tenure security, natural resource management, food security, landlessness and socioeconomic development.

In October 2017, Liberian president and Nobel Peace Prize winner, Laureate Ellen Johnson Sirleaf (2017), warned that Africa would continue to be stalked by poverty, hunger, and famine until governments provide smallholder farmers with secure rights to land. The tiny West African country of Liberia, where disputes over land ownership were a key driver of a bloody 14-year civil war, is a good example of the steep toll that insecure land rights takes on individuals, communities and countries (Pichel, 2017, p. 7).

Pichel (2017) further states that Africa's small family farmers that is already burdened by soil degradation, climate change, and resource competition fueled by a surging population, face an even more challenging bureaucratic hurdle, that of the absence of paper to prove that the land they call home is theirs. Uncertain of their ability to control their farms into the next season, farmers' planning horizon shrinks.

Some studies conducted elsewhere have shown that there is no way to reduce poverty, improve nutrition, or achieve other key development goals without strengthening land rights, especially for women (Pichel, 2017). This assumes to confirm that access to and securing rights to land by landless people are simply a prerequisite for socio-economic development. In Tanzania, women with secure rights earn three times more than their landless counterparts, while in Zambia in areas where women's' land rights are weak and HIV infection rates are high, women are less likely to make investments to improve harvest – even when their husbands are not HIV positive. These women anticipate that they will be forced off their land and become landless if and when they are widowed, and that expectation depresses farm investment, affecting harvest and family nutrition for years (Pichel, 2017).

In Ghana, landed farmers with strong and secure land rights are 39 percent more likely to plant trees. In Ethiopia, farmers are 60 percent more likely to invest in preventing soil erosion when they have secure rights to their plots (Pichel, 2017). But on the contrary, evidence shows that nearly one billion people worldwide are landless and continue to lack secure rights to the land they rely on for a living. Landlessness, coupled with weak land rights, can limit farmers' access to crop insurance, making it difficult for their children to register for school, and can even contribute to higher rates of suicide (Pichel, 2017). This revelation seems to confirm that communities with clear legal control over land can manage those resources more assiduously than those communities with shaky and uncertain tenure rights.

2.4.1 Land and Economic Development in Malawi

Malawi, formerly known as Nyasaland, is a landlocked country in southeast Africa bordered by Zambia, Tanzania and Mozambique. The population of Malawi at the September 1977 census was 5,571,567, with the average population density of 59 persons per square kilometers on a land area totaling 118,480 square kilometers. It is estimated that 91 percent of the Malawian population lived in rural areas by then and the remaining 9 percent lived in urban areas (Nothale, 1986). With a population growth rate of about 3 percent per annum, the population of Malawi had reached 18,622,104 million in 2017 with a population density of 157.17 inhabitants per square kilometer (World Bank and IMF, 2018). The high population growth rate in Malawi leads to more people needing land for various economic activities, especially farming, and subsequently creating landless communities if land tenure system and distribution policies are not properly put in place.

Malawi is predominantly an agricultural country and one of the poorest countries in monetary terms in the world with 50.7 percent of the population living below the poverty line and 25 percent living in extreme poverty, especially in rural areas (World Bank and IMF, 2018). In 1997, agriculture contributed more than 47 percent to the total gross domestic product, while agricultural produce accounted for more than 95 percent of total export (Nothale, 1986). As afore-mentioned, agriculture constitutes the backbone of the Malawian economy and agricultural performance has more significant implications for economic growth and poverty reduction, especially in rural areas, than any other sector. However, agricultural sector growth has been volatile and frequently surpassed by high population growth.

As stated by the IMF (2017), to date agricultural growth has been achieved through factor accumulation – land cultivation and labour. However, given one of the highest population densities in Africa and shrinking farm sizes, the gains from continuing such practices are approaching their limits. For a country that is already one of the most densely populated in Africa, whose population is expected to double in approximately two decades, existing levels of population growth will put enormous pressure on limited land resources, service delivery, and make poverty reduction very difficult to achieve (International Monetary Fund, 2017).

In Malawi, land is one of the natural resources that remains unequally distributed. The majority of the rural population produces 84 percent of agriculture value-added from 1.8 to 2 million smallholder farmers, who on average, own only 1 hectare of land (Chirwa, 2008, p. 6). Over time and due to the high population growth and customary tenure, land in Malawi has been subjected to sub-division among family members leading to fragmentation. This has led to the per capita land holdings to decline from 1.53 hectares in 1968 to 0.8 hectares per capita in 2000 (Chirwa, 2008, p.6).

Land plays a vital role in sustaining livelihood systems of Africans; near landlessness in Malawi has been linked to poverty and food insecurity. For instance, in 1998 the ultra-poor had mean household land holdings of 0.84 hectares producing 48.5 kilograms of maize compared to the non-poor who held 1.10 hectares and producing 115.8 kilograms of maize (Chirwa, 2008, p.6). One of the key policy priorities for poverty reduction for Malawi is to address social inequality, especially gender inequality in resource allocation. Female-headed households face unfavourable conditions in both agricultural production and the non-farm sector business compared with male-headed households. In the agricultural sector, women tend to have smaller land lots, deploy fewer inputs, benefit from less extension and investment, resulting in significantly lower (28 percent on average) productivity compared to their male counterparts (International Monetary Fund, 2017).

2.4.2 Land Ownership and Landlessness in South Africa

The Union of South Africa was formed as a dominion of the British Empire in 1910. At this time there were nearly six million people living in South Africa – more than two-thirds of these were Africans, more than a quarter Whites, about a tenth Coloured's, and a very small number of Asians (Mbongwa, Van den Brink, & Van Zyl, 1996, pp. 36-63). The South African Party, representing white landlords and mining interests, headed the first government. According to Mbongwa et al. (1996), one of the goals of the 1910 government was to ensure adequate supplies of cheap labour to the mines. To achieve this goal, numerous restrictions were imposed on African farmers, thereby forcing them to serve as a much-needed source of labour in other sectors, but mainly in the mining sectors. Many of the manorial estate owners, who had been supportive of African farmers in the past and had often prevented hostile government policies, were co-opted and became part of the new social order of the 1910 government.

The Glen Grey Act of 1894 was followed by the Native Land Act, passed in 1913 and confirmed in 1936, which limited the area where black Africans could establish new farming operations to the reserves, totaling 7.8 percent of the country's areas

(Mbongwa et al., 1996, p.43). The Natives Land Act of 1913 also barred blacks from buying land from whites and prohibited them from sharecropping and cash rentals. The law was exclusively the basis of the country's future policy of apartheid. It was also intended to curb black farming practices at a time when white farming was beginning to pick up, to check black sharecropping, and to prevent the purchase of land by syndicates of blacks who were beginning to move ahead fast (Mbongwa et al., 1996).

The immediate effect of the law was to force African families, who were formerly independent farmers on sharecropped land, to accept wage labour and give up their equipment. The longer-term effect was to end African farming above the subsistence level and to degrade the reserves to dormitories for a cheap African labour force.

On the 20th of June 1913, a South African native found himself not actually a slave, but a pariah in the land of his birth. On that date, the Natives Land Act No. 27 of 1913 drew a firm line between white and black landholding, prohibiting each from entering into any agreement or transaction for the purchase, hiring or other acquisition of any such land or any right thereto, interest therein, or servitude there over. The Land Act of 1913 segregated Africans and Europeans on a territorial basis by establishing codified native reserves, referred to as scheduled areas (Mbongwa et al., 1996).

The Native Land Act defined natives as members of an aboriginal race or tribe of African and prohibited them from renting, buying or otherwise acquiring land outside the reserves without the approval of the Governor-General. The Act also excluded freehold, mortgaging and land sale rights within the reserves and stipulated further that no person, other than a native, could acquire land rights within the reserves, except sites for trade or business, without state approval. In 1916, after the Native Land Act was put into effect, about 50 percent of rural Africans lived on the reserves, 2 percent on mission lands, 3 percent on native-owned lands, 3 percent on state lands, 8 percent on landlord estates, and 33 percent on haciendas (Mbongwa et al., 1996, p.45).

Other measures undertaken to support and strengthen the Land Act included the Native Administration Act of 1927 which introduced yet another encroachment by the state on the indigenous tenure system whereby the Governor-General was imposed on Africans as their 'traditional' chief with decisive powers on African land matters. The African chiefs were reduced to salaried officers of the government. The Masters and Servants Act of 1911 and 1932 tightened the grip of junker estate managers on farm workers. These Acts prohibited breaking contracts, changing employers, or assigning family members to other employers. African farmers were not allowed to join state-sponsored marketing co-operatives or farmers' unions. Without membership in these organisations, it was difficult to secure credit, market output, or to obtain research and extension services (Mbongwa et al., 1996).

A combination of all these measures began to erode the development of African farming and, by the 1920s, increasing population pressure caused African households in the reserves to spend 60 percent of their income on food (Mbongwa et al., 1996). The planned transformation of the agrarian structure from haciendas to junker estates did not resolve the problem of low profitability or labour shortages for large-scale farming. African owner-operated farming was effectively eliminated, but landless farmers often chose to work in mines, in new manufacturing industries or in towns, rather than on junker estates which, almost from the beginning, were notorious for their low wages and bad working conditions.

The white farming subsector experienced and enjoyed a completely different and favourable treatment from that of its African counterpart. The support system for white farmers, already long in place, was strengthened substantially to enable the effective occupation and use of the land set aside for white ownership only. The Land and Agricultural Bank of South Africa (the Land Bank) was established in 1912 to give loans to white farmers who did not have access to commercial financial institutions.

The Co-operative Societies' Act of 1922 and the Agricultural Marketing Act of 1937 created marketing schemes and control boards to administer co-operatives for white farmers. Research and extension services as well as the necessary infrastructure were provided to ensure the success of white farming. Whereas the Natives Land Act of 1913 restricted African access to land, the Land Settlement Act of 1912 standardised the acquisition, exchange and disposal of state lands for white settlement (Mbongwa, Van den Brink, & Van Zyl, 1996). The structure of land ownership and tenure system in the Union of South Africa before the achievement of a democratic rule in 1994 was skewed in favour of the European settlers as shown in Table 2.3 and Figure 2.6 below.

Table 2. 3: Land Areas (hectares) by Land Tenure Systems in Union of South Africa

Type of Tenure	**Hectares**
Native Reserves	9,538,300
Mission Reserves	460,000
Native-Owned Lands	856,100
Crown Lands Occupied	805,100
European Owned & Occupied Land	90,314,000
European Owned Land Occupied by Africans	3,550,900
Vacant Crown Land, Reserves & other	17,002,400
TOTAL	**122,526,800**

Source: Mbongwa, Van den Brink & Van Zyl (1996).

Table 2.3 shows the land ownership pattern in the Union of South Africa during the apartheid administration. This table paints a clear picture of land dispossession and forced removal which the majority indigenous rural black South Africans experienced under the white apartheid South African administration.

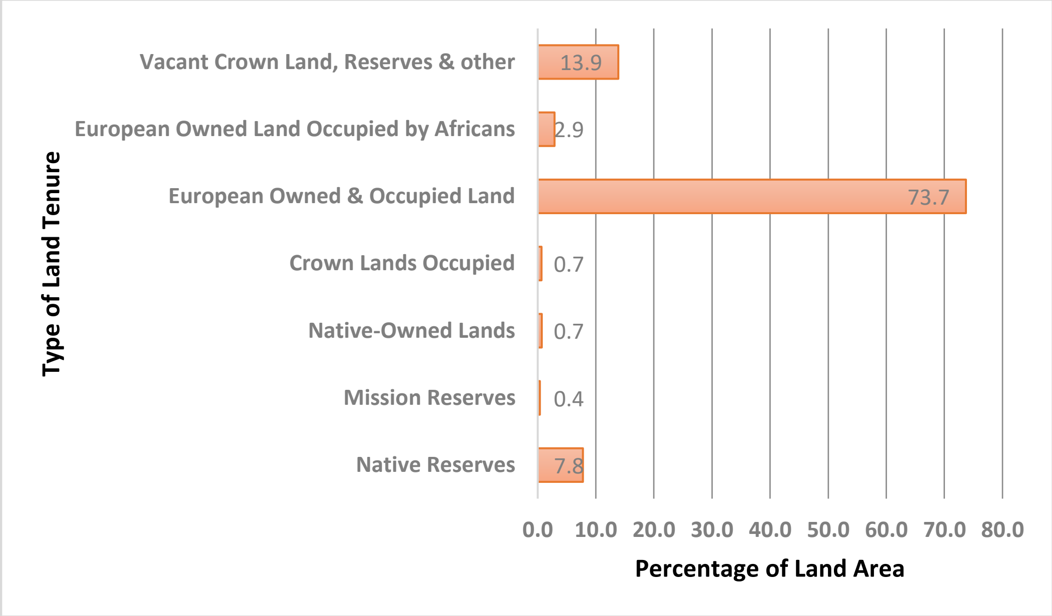

Figure 2.6 Percent of land areas by land tenure in South Africa during apartheid from 1910 – 1994
Source: Mbongwa, Van den Brink, & Van Zyl (1996, p.46)

Figure 2.6 shows that, as a result of a history of distortion, the minority owned a startling 86 percent of South Africa's agricultural land (Van Zyl, Kirsten, & Binswanger, 1996) and 68 percent of the total surface area was in the hands of the white minority and concentrated in the hands of about 60 000 owners (Lahiff, 2007). This situation created a society where the majority of South Africans are landless. The equity and equality case for land redistribution rests on the history of racial and economic policies which favoured white commercial farmers relative to the landless and smallholder black South Africans. The majority of the poor in South Africa reside in rural areas, often with no or limited access to land.

Land reform could, therefore, be one strategy to alleviate the present crushing poverty situation in South Africa. Van Zyl et al. (1996) argue that the relationship between rural poverty and access to land is complex. Many factors are involved, including differences in land quality, the availability of complementary inputs, access to credit, and markets and opportunities for off-farm employment. When land quality is poor and access to water, inputs and markets is limited, access to land in itself does not significantly reduce poverty.

South Africa's land reform also has an ethical and political-economic dimension whereby applying equality of opportunity requires favouring one ethnic group over the other. This status quo is a consequence of historical, political, social and economic exclusion and oppression of one group by another. If government wants to achieve equity and fairness in land ownership and distribution in this situation, it requires introducing deliberate policies supported by a strong political will to implement such policies in land redistribution.

2.4.3 Right to Land in a Democratic South Africa

In 1994 the African National Congress (ANC) came to power under the leadership of Nelson Mandela after winning the democratic elections in South Africa. The land ownership and land development patterns strongly reflected the political and economic conditions of the apartheid era. Racially based land policies were a cause of insecurity, landlessness and poverty amongst black South Africans, and a cause of inefficient land administration and land use (Government of the Republic of South Africa, 2010).

South Africa is one of the African countries that have experienced far-reaching changes in the political sphere resulting in the formation of a new democracy in southern Africa. The political change of 1994 ended the apartheid era and opened the way for South Africa to resume a full role within the international community. It was generally accepted that equality of opportunity should be the guiding principle in the political, social and economic spheres of the new South African society (Van Zyl, Kirsten, & Binswanger, 1996).

In the agricultural context, equality of opportunity is most important where it concerns the ownership of land. Therefore, equity and fairness in the redistribution of land was at the centre of the national debate. The ANC-led government adopted the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) which provided for the redistribution of 30 percent of agricultural land over five years as one of its aims to address landlessness among the landless black South Africans. In 1997 the ANC-led government adopted the White Paper on South African Land Policy that would inform and direct land reform programme in the country, and had three guiding principles, namely; redistribution, restitution and tenure reform.

2.4.3.1 Land Redistribution

The South African government makes it possible for poor and landless or previously disadvantaged people (urban and rural poor, farm workers, labour tenants, as well as emergent farmers) to buy land with the help of a settlement or land acquisition grant to a maximum of R15 000 per household, for the purchase of land directly from willing sellers, including the state. This principle sought to facilitate the right of access to land for residential and farming (productive) purposes in order to improve their livelihoods. The national government set itself a target of redistributing 30 percent of the country's commercial agricultural land (about 24 million hectares) by 2014 (Government of the Republic of South Africa, 2010).

Since 1994, the discourse around land reform in South Africa focused more on the concept of a willing seller, willing buyer, instead of the broader aspect of the market-based land reform. Willing seller, willing buyer was used within the operation of the Expropriation Act 63 of 1975. Under this Act, the price paid for expropriated property is determined by reference to the price that would be paid for the property were it to be exchanged between a willing seller and a willing buyer in the open market (Lahiff, 2007). The main instrument for achieving this principle was the Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development programme (LRAD) which was launched after a major policy review in 2001. However, in 2006 the government had only achieved 40% of its target, and this is reportedly attributed to high land prices (Lahiff, 2007).

2.4.3.2 Land Restitution

This approach sought to return land or compensating victims of racial land dispossession (those who lost land) since 19 June 1913 because of the racially discriminatory colonial and apartheid laws of that time. The imbalances in land ownership and landlessness were created by the apartheid policies and legislations of forced removals such as the infamous Native Land Act, 1913 (Act No. 39 of 1913).

The nature of restitution is determined by three broad categories of the effects of land dispossession, namely; dispossession leading to landlessness, inadequate compensation for the value of the property, erosion of human dignity and hardships that cannot be measured in financial or material terms (Government of the Republic of South Africa, 2010).

In August 2001, the Department of Land Affairs introduced the Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD) with the aim of stimulating development and to encourage commercial farming by African farmers. Beneficiaries of this sub-programme include historically disadvantaged rural people, particularly women and young people who live in rural areas. In December 2001, the programme had made available 60 hectares of land to 2681 applicants. (Government of the Republic of South Africa, 2010). On average, this translates to about 0.022379 hectares or 224 m^2 per person.

2.4.3.3 Land Tenure Reform

The principle of land tenure reform, though one of the most complex areas of land reform in South Africa, aims to bring all people occupying land under a unitary, legally validated system of landholding. The aim is to devise secure forms of land tenure that would help resolve tenure disputes and provide alternative access to land for people who are displaced in the process. It is an attempt to redress the dual system of land tenure in which whites owned land as private property as opposed to communal land allocation among blacks. The majority of rural blacks lived and still lives on communal land, registered as the property of the State under the erstwhile South African Development Trust (Government of the Republic of South Africa, 2010).

For the Government of South Africa, tackling the land question would enhance poverty reduction. Therefore, the right to gain access to land is based on the understanding that there are people who need land and those who are not secure on the land they live on. It entails satisfying the need for the landless to acquire land and have resources to sustain a livelihood. It is a Constitutional mandate for the government of the Republic of South Africa to guarantee equal access to land for all its citizens.

According to Section 25 (5) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, the government "must take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to foster conditions which enable citizens to gain access to land on an equitable basis. Section 25 (7) states that a person or community that lost property post-1913 due to discriminatory laws is entitled to restitution or redress" (Department of Land Affairs , 2010).

Future equality of opportunity starts from the present distribution of rights, privileges, wealth and power. To accept the present distribution of ownership of wealth and assets as a starting point is to accept the past policies from which they have been derived. Therefore, the principle of equality of opportunity questions the status quo with respect to the distribution of wealth and economic power and, at the very least, suggests a comprehensive affirmative action approach to ensure a more equal starting point (Van Zyl et al., 1996).

The efficiency argument for land reform is that the redistribution of agricultural land to smallholders will increase, or certainly not reduce, total factor productivity and efficiency in the longer term. In most of the developing world there exists an inverse relationship between farm size and efficiency. Once a small minimum size is exceeded, family farms that rely primarily on family labour, are generally more productive than larger farms relying on hired labour; they also generate more employment (Van Zyl et al., 1996).

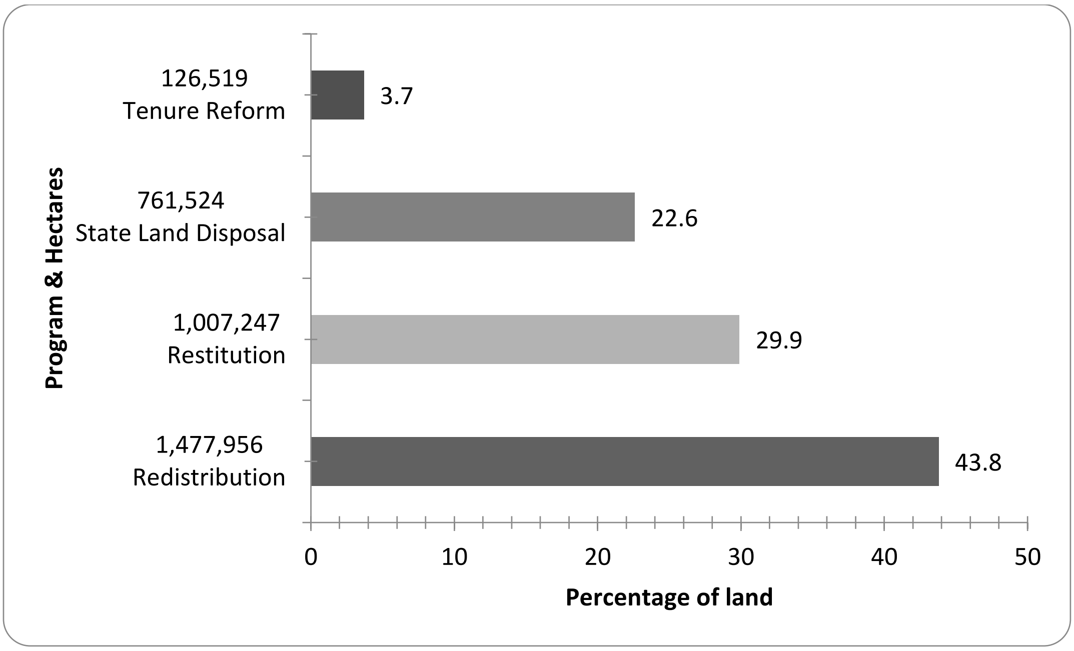

Figure 2.7 Total land transfers under South Africa land reform programme, 1994 – 2006. Source: Statistics from Publication by Lahiff (2007), for the School of Government.

Figure 2.7 depicts that by 2006 a total of 3.4 million hectares of land had been transferred from the whites to blacks through the different sub-programmes of the land reform programme in South Africa. Most of the land (43.8%) was transferred under the redistribution sub-programme, followed by restitution (29.9%), state land disposal (22.6%) and lastly tenure reform at 3.7 percent of the total land transfer. By the end of 2006 the land reform programme has benefited only an estimated 1.2 million (Lahiff, 2007) landless South Africans. The total land transferred through the three sub-programmes is equivalent to 4.1 percent of the agricultural land in white ownership in 1994 (Lahiff, 2007).

2.4.4 The Impact of Land Reform Policy in South Africa

According to Hall (2004), the actual impact on white-owned land was considerably minimal because most of the land transferred under redistribution, restitution, tenure reform and all the land transferred under state land disposal was formerly state-owned. Land reform policy in a democratic South Africa was intended to be “demand-led,” meaning the government put in place land reform programmes that communities and individuals could access if they so wish, rather than the state initiating projects on behalf of people (Lahiff, 2000). For such a policy to have materialised and bring about substantial change, according to Lahiff (2000), two minimum conditions must be met. The first one is that the potential beneficiaries must be aware that the relevant programmes exist and be able to make their demands known. The second condition is that the state must be in a position to respond effectively to a variety of land demands from various sources.

However, the findings of the socio-economic survey that was conducted by Nkuzi Development Association between April and November 1998, as part of the National Land Reform Policy Research Project in some districts of the Northern Province, suggest that neither of these conditions were met. The study found that there was widespread ignorance and confusion surrounding the land reform programmes, not only among the general public but also among key institutions such as provincial government departments and local councils (Lahiff, 2000).

The results of that study also indicate the unlikelihood of the current demand-led land reform policy approach to resolve the complex problems bequeathed by a history of massive land dispossession and forced removals that have created landlessness and poverty among black communities. According to Lahiff (2000), the survey results showed the predominance of houses with mud or concrete block wall and corrugated iron roofs in all areas, but sizeable minorities of respondents were living in rondavels in Mpheni and in shacks at Tshikota Districts.

The survey also revealed heavy dependence on wood as a source of cooking fuel in three out of four localities. Overall, less than a third of households surveyed had access to electricity. Over half of all residential plots were less than 0.5 hectares in extent and most of the remainders were less than one hectare. A study conducted by Wegerif, Russell and Grundling (2005) found that over two million farm dwellers – many of them tenant farmers engaged in independent production- had been displaced between 1994 and 2004. This number is far more than the total number of people who had benefited under all programmes of the Government's land reform (Lahiff, 2007).

The heavy demand for land in many parts of the former homelands and the high number of overlapping restitution claims cannot be addressed in a piecemeal fashion but require a comprehensive approach and clear direction from the responsible government agencies. According to Lahiff (2000), the Department of Land Affairs was required to take a leading role in bringing all local stakeholders together, providing advice on the range of land reform options available and facilitating a process whereby local landless communities could identify their land needs and come up with possible solutions.

Restitution is the most prominent aspect of land reform in the Northern Province of South Africa but remain beset with problems. The study reveals that numerous land claims had been submitted from the Northern Province, but it appeared that many of those potential land claims were not lodged in time. The widespread ignorance and confusion around restitution could be linked to the failure to adequately publicise the process within the province and the failure of the RLCC and the PDLA to involve other public bodies in the land reform process. Despite all these efforts by government, pressure is still mounting from the majority of landless blacks threatening to take and occupy land by force if the government does not develop policy strategies to address land inequalities that still continue since 1994.

In December 2017 the African National Congress (ANC) of South Africa held a Conference where a resolution was made that it would start the process towards a constitutional amendment of Section 25 to make possible land redistribution without compensation, provided that it is sustainable and does not harm the agricultural sector or the economy in general.

On 27 February 2018, the National Assembly of South Africa made a landmark decision to review Section 25 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa in order to make provision for the principle of land expropriation without compensation (Parliament of the Republic of South Africa, 2018).

The African National Congress (ANC) argues that the proposed approach to land reform would be guided by sound legal and economic principles and would contribute to the country's overall job creation and investment objectives. Land reform in South Africa, according to Sihlobo and Kapuya (2018), with the assistance of the market, has, therefore, moved South Africa closer to the 30 percent target than what is commonly believed.

If statistics are telling the truth, the only challenge, however, is how to make the land reform farms that have been transferred to black people commercially viable operations. The official statistics of land restitution and land redistribution programmes that were presented in Parliament in 2017 by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform of South Africa indicated the following:

- Total Area Redistributed: 4,850,100 ha;
- Total Area restored via Restitution: 3,389,727 ha;

- The equivalent area for which Financial Compensation was chosen: 2,772,457 ha; and
- Thus, a total of 10,742,284 million ha has been distributed through government programmes (Sihlobo & Kapuya, 2018).

In addition, the State has also been buying farms and statistics indicate that it (State) owns more than 4000 farms, which presumably make up 4,027 million ha that was reported in the 2015 State Land Audit. Therefore, despite the land policy change of expropriation without compensation proposed by the ruling ANC, statistics indicate that a total of 17,439 million ha have been transferred from white ownership since 1994, which is equal to 21% of the 82,759 million ha of farmland in freehold in South Africa (Sihlobo & Kapuya, 2018).

In South Africa, landlessness is considered to being one of the most crippling problems, and the Mandela Government tried to tackle the land issue in its Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) by presenting land reform as an essential pre-condition for successful development (Rutten, 2000). Land reform in South Africa is aimed at contributing to economic development and to promote both equity and efficiency through a combined agrarian and industrial strategy in which land reform is a spark to the engine of growth (Hall, 2000).

Despite the changes in many other aspects of life, asset ownership and asset distribution patterns of rural communities, landlessness and overcrowding persist in the former Bantustan areas in South Africa (May, 2000). The government's land reform policy is to redress the injustices of colonialisation and apartheid; to foster national reconciliation and political stability; to underpin economic growth; and to improve household welfare and alleviate poverty. However, one of the challenges is to find a way of redistributing land to the needy (landless) while at the same time maintaining public confidence in the land market (Rutten, 2000).

Land reform and agrarian reform are often used interchangeably. Land reform involves the redistribution of land, a consequent change in the structure of landholdings, and the redefinition of the character and legal status of land rights. (Cousins, 2000). Agrarian reform, on the other hand, connotes a fundamental transformation in the social and political relations which underpins systems of production, and thus involves changes in the balance of power between different classes in the countryside (Cousins, 2000).

There are wide variations in the objectives, circumstances and conduct of land reform. Economic arguments favouring land redistribution focus on the diseconomies of large-scale enterprises and on the need to increase returns to land (Adams, 1995). However, Adams (1995) argues that decisions on whether or not to proceed with land reform are essentially political. When growing landlessness, chronic indebtedness, and eviction of tenants threaten stability, the state has often intervened to regulate ownership rights, sometimes with the tacit agreement of landowners seeking to prevent land invasions (Adams, 1995).

2.4.5 The Political History of Landlessness in Zimbabwe

History indicates that, unlike in South Africa, colonization in Zimbabwe began only in the 1890s, when the ‘pioneer column’ of John Cecil Rhodes crossed north over the Limpopo river (Pazvakavambwa & Hungwe, 2009). This movement north of European settlers was spurred by massive gold discoveries on the Rand (now Johannesburg) in South Africa in the 1870s. The hunger for gold led mining capital to explore for further rich gold fields. These explorations went as far inland as the Zimbabwe highlands, where gold was also discovered (Lebert, 2015). A commercial venture known as the British South Africa Company (BSA), had obtained a concession from the British Crown to further the explorations of mineral resources in the region (Pazvakavambwa & Hungwe, 2009).

The BSA Company sponsored the settlement of Europeans at what was then known as Fort Salisbury (now Harare), where agricultural land was parceled out as farms. According to Lebert (2015), the BSA did not set out to govern or rule the territory, but its objective was to seek and generate profit from the natural resources (minerals) discovered there. Unfortunately, profits were not realised in the highlands of Zimbabwe after three decades of exploration because the gold discovered in Zimbabwe was not concentrated in reefs as in South Africa, but rather scattered and almost impossible to extract on a profitable scale (Lebert, 2015). When the discovery of gold and diamonds failed to materialize, the white settlers focused on the fertile land and its high prospects for agriculture. The settlers identified land suitable for commercial agriculture and large-scale ranching (Pazvakavambwa & Hungwe, 2009).

The non-profitability of the Zimbabwean gold explorations led to the BSA Company to encourage white settlement for farming purposes. Commercial farming was seen as an alternative means of generating income for the company. The policy shift from mining to farming necessitated the further dispossession of indigenous peoples of more of their agricultural land and coercively forced black Zimbabweans into labour on settler commercial farms.

White settlers displaced the local people, resettling them with their chiefs in what are now known as "communal lands". Those lands therefore, are a creation of the very early land redistribution programme carried out by the colonialists (Pazvakavambwa & Hungwe, 2009). From 1908 to 1915 alone, 1.5 million acres of land were alienated from the indigenous Africans and given to white settlers. Of that total, 1 million acres were transferred in a single year by the Native Reserves Commission of 1914-15 (Moyana, 1984).

It is reported that by 1919, a dual system of land ownership had been enshrined in law; whites enjoyed private titles and access to land while blacks continued to be governed by customary law (Lawton, 2002). Subsequently, provisions were adopted to create and give constitutional protection to property rights. These legal provisions were intended to give a veneer of juridical protection and legitimacy to land and property rights that had been expropriated through conquest (Pazvakavambwa & Hungwe, 2009).

Zimbabweans, the Shona and Ndebele people, fiercely opposed the onslaught of land displacement under colonialism and rebelled against the forced alienation of their agricultural land. This was the birth of the first war of resistance, the *Chimurenga*, which started in 1896 when Zimbabweans attempted an armed struggle to resist and push the settlers out and reclaim their land (Pazvakavambwa & Hungwe, 2009;

Lebert, 2015). *Chimurenga* is a Shona language word which means to fight or struggle. Traditionally, *Chimurenga* or *bongozozo* is a fight in which everyone at hand participates. The concept of '*Chimurenga'* has been modernised and extended to describe a struggle for human rights, political dignity and social justice (Murungu, 2018).

History tells that Mbuya Nehanda, a sister of the great Shona prophet called Chaminuka, led the first war of resistance and rebellion against British colonial rule in

Zimbabwe during the late 1800s. The British colonial government killed Mbuya Nehanda by hanging her, but before she died, she declared that her bones will rise and fight the second war of liberation. However, the rebellion was not successful, and the Africans were defeated by the advanced weaponry and brutality of the Europeans. However, Mbuya Nehanda's prophecy was realised after almost a hundred years later (Murungu, 2018) when the second war of liberation was waged by Africans in Zimbabwe to fight the British colonial rule until independence.

2.4.6 Creation of a British Colony and Settler Consolidation in Zimbabwe

In 1923 a referendum was held for white settlers only to vote for one of the three choices, namely: (Zimbabwe) to become a part of the Union of South Africa; to become a full British colony; or to choose self-governance as an autonomous British colony. The white settlers chose self-governance and established the Morris-Carter Commission in 1925 which outlined a framework for the emergence of Rhodesia – the colonial incarnation of what later became Zimbabwe – as a self-sustaining British (white) colony (Lebert, 2015). The Morris-Carter Commission recommended landholding pattern to put the settler (white) economy on a sound footing. The subsequent Land Appointment Act of 1930 separated land along racial lines, both qualitatively and quantitatively, with white settlers getting most of the good and fertile agricultural land. This land structure marked the beginning of landlessness among the black people in Zimbabwe and was carried through into the post-independence period (Lebert, 2015).

The Land Appointment Act of 1930 prohibited blacks and whites from acquiring land in areas designated for the other racial group. Through this Act, 50.8 percent of the agricultural land was reserved for white settlers, most of it in the arable central highlands. The majority of the indigenous population was allocated 30 percent of the land, mostly on the plateau sloping down into the Zambezi Valley and in the mountainous escarpment regions (Lebert, 2015). This land was designated as African Reserve Area, now known as communal areas.

The remaining 20 percent of the land was owned either by commercial companies or the colonial government (Crown Land), or it was reserved as a conservation area. A very small area (0.05 percent) called the Native Purchase Area, was set aside for the acquisition of land, through freehold or leasehold, by richer Africans or by small groups of African people (Lebert, 2015).

Between 1930 and 1980, the amount of land available to indigenous Zimbabweans was expanded. At Zimbabwe's independence in 1980, the racial split in landownership and/or land access was approximately 40 percent for each racial group. This means white settler landholdings had been reduced from 51 to 40 percent between 1930 and 1980, while indigenous Zimbabweans' land expanded from 30 to 40 percent (Lebert, 2015). Despite these changes in landholding between the blacks and white settlers in Zimbabwe, population densities in white and black areas remained different with far greater numbers of people living on African land compared to white settlers, a situation that continued to prevail even after independence in 1980, leading to landlessness among indigenous Zimbabweans.

In addition to having the best land in the best agro-ecological regions of the country, white settlers were supported by massive state intervention in the development of their farming economy. The colonial government provided extensive communication and marketing infrastructure in commercial farming areas and made subsidies and loans available to white settler farmers. As the white farming economy grew, the need to keep local Zimbabwean labour became more urgent and measures were put in place to regulate the movement of African labour out of Zimbabwe to South Africa and Malawi where wages for migrant labour was higher. A labour supply commission was formed; access to Zimbabwean workers by South African recruitment companies was limited, as was the use of migrant labour from Malawi; and a limit was set on the number of Zimbabweans allowed to leave the colony (Lebert, 2015).

Increasing population densities in the communal areas, and social and economic dislocation associated with labour migration from communal areas, resulted in substantial environmental degradation and a growing production crisis by the post-World War II period. The situation was compounded by a massive eviction of African labour off the white farmers due to the increased mechanisation of commercial agriculture (Lebert, 2015). In 1951 the Native Land Husbandry Act was passed with the aim of limiting livestock numbers and introduction of soil and water conservation methods and technology. Improvement schemes undertaken in South Africa's reserves from 1930s onward were implemented in response to similar environmental and production crisis in Zimbabwe.

It is therefore not surprising to find that the iniquities and inequalities of land allocation that began prior to Zimbabwean independence, and associated state support to white agriculture, were ongoing areas of conflict and contention. This is evident with the first rebellion by indigenous people, which was fueled by grievances caused by land ownership pattern. A second Chimurenga began in the 1960s under the leadership of the Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) and the Zimbabwe African People's Union (ZAPU). These two liberation movements were all committed to implementing a radical land reform once they gain political power in Zimbabwe. This was as a fulfilment of the prophecy of the great Shona spirit, Mbuya Nehanda, who was executed by the British colonial rule, as stated earlier. The second Chimurenga was intensified by guerrilla fighters and peasants who battled against the white regime, mainly in rural areas. It was a struggle by the indigenous Zimbabweans for land on the land.

2.4.7 Independence and the Land Question in Zimbabwe

> Land is fundamental to the multifaceted crisis that has so dramatically engulfed Zimbabwe since 2000. It is the centrally contested national asset and the key symbol in ZANU-PF's narrative of national liberation. It forms, in Raftopoulos' words, the centerpiece of the ruling party's construction of belonging, exclusion and history. Repossessing the land in the name of the nation has been cast as the singular, unwavering goal of Zimbabwe's three *Chimurenga* — its uprisings against foreign domination, from resistance to conquest in the 1890s, to the 1970s guerrilla war against settler government, to the millennial clash with reputedly reinvigorated agents of imperialism both internal and external (Alexander, 2007, pp. 183-198).

Following the war of liberation that was caused by mounting frustrations and anger experienced by landless black Zimbabweans, Zimbabwe gained its independence from Great Britain on April 18, in 1980, after the signing of the Lancaster House Agreement on 21st December 1979. This Agreement formed the truce that paved the way for an independent and majority-rule (black), in Zimbabwe (Lebert, 2015). The Lancaster Agreement brought together with ceasefire agreement from the armed wings of ZANU and ZAPU, a means for an orderly transition of power from white-minority to black-majority rule.

At Independence in 1980, whites who constituted 3% of the population controlled 51% of the country's farming land (44% of Zimbabwe's total land area), with about 75% of prime agricultural land under the Large Scale Commercial Farming (LSCF) sector (Weiner et al 1985; Jennings & Huggins 1935; Palmer 1977; Moyana 1984) and hence inaccessible to the black majority. Farm sizes in the Large Scale Commercial Farming Sector ranged between 500 and 2000 hectares, with most of them located in the better agro-ecological regions I, II and III. The Communal Areas (CAs), which were home to about 4.3 million blacks which constituted 72% of the rural population, had access to only 42% of the land, three quarters of which was in the poor agro-ecological regions IV and V. Poverty was concentrated in the CAs (Marongwe, 2005, p.2).

The development fund, which was part of the discussions during the Lancaster negotiations, was used as ‘bait’ to bring the liberation movements to an agreement with Rhodesian colonial authorities (Lebert, 2018). However, the offer of the fund was withdrawn, and the United Kingdom government offered, instead, a compromise solution. In exchange for guaranteeing existing property rights in the new Zimbabwe, the United Kingdom would underwrite half of the cost of resettlement. The new Zimbabwean government would have to match that funding to make up the full cost of the programme. Land would change hands through a willing buyer-willing seller mechanism; white farmers who wanted to continue farming would be free to do so; there would be no mass expropriation of land by the new postcolonial state. The state retained the right to expropriate land for public and resettlement purposes, but in such cases, compensation would have to be paid out in foreign currency (Lebert, 2015).

> After succumbing to the United Kingdom (UK) and international pressure, ZANU and ZAPU conceded and accepted the settlement, and the Lancaster House Agreement was to remain in place for ten years. Since then the Agreement’s restrictions remained a constant theme in Zimbabwe’s land reform and made it difficult for the new government to effectively carry out a

> meaningful agrarian transformation and any significant land redistribution. In order to foster the interest of both parties to the Agreement, the new President of the independent Zimbabwe, Mr. Robert Mugabe, could not forcibly procure privately-owned farmland for redistribution for a period of ten years (Lebert, 2015, pp. 42-45).

However, although the Lancaster House Agreement is commonly cited as a constraint on Zimbabwe's ability to acquire land for redistribution, the Agreement did not trump a provision in Zimbabwe's new Constitution that provided for land acquisition. Zimbabwe's new Constitution of 2013 permitted the government to expropriate under-utilized land or exercise powers of eminent domain for public utility if the landowners were compensated fully in foreign currency (Lebert, 2015).

Notwithstanding the prohibition of the Lancaster House Agreement, the Zimbabwean government could have moved forward with its land reform programme by expropriating land for the public good, which is the justification given by President Mugabe for his controversial land acquisition and redistribution programme that followed.

2.4.8 Improving Landless People's Livelihoods through Land Reform

> Land questions—and there have been many—have long cut across social, cultural, economic, and political spheres. Land is about identity as well as production and class formation; it is about aesthetic values and spiritual meaning, as well as being central to the construction of the institutions of state; it fires political struggles and violence alongside the literary imagination; and it is the basis for both building and breaking a host of social relationships. In

> all of these guises, the meanings and value of land are neither fixed nor uncontested. Land cannot be reduced to a static role in a single narrative (Alexander, 2007, p. 185).

In 2000, after decades of the introduction of land reform in Zimbabwe, the ZANU-PF-led government under the leadership of President Robert Mugabe, implemented the Fast Track Land Reform and Resettlement Programme (FTLRRP) as a strategy to accelerate and radically transform the country's land ownership and agrarian structure (Njaya, 2015).

President Robert Mugabe declared, "We must deliver the land unencumbered by impediments to its rightful owners. It is their birth. It is theirs by natural and legal right. It is theirs by struggle. Indeed, theirs by legacy" (Scheuermaier, 2006, p.1). This marked the beginning of the process by which national laws and their concomitant administrative processes were aligned to respond to the imperatives of the national land redistribution programme, and the objectives and targets of land redistribution were revised (Pazvakavambwa & Hungwe, 2009). Two Resettlement Models were adopted and introduced under the Fast Track Land Reform and Resettlement Programme, namely; Model A1and Model A2.

Resettlement Model A1 was for the generality of landless Zimbabweans with a villagised and self-contained variant. Under A1 Model, homesteads are in villages with a common grazing area akin to communal areas while self-contained plots are used for both crop cultivation and some livestock. On the other hand, the Resettlement Model A2 was a commercial settlement scheme comprising of small, medium and large-scale commercial settlement (Njaya, 2015; Moyo, 2000; 2004).

According to Njaya (2014), “a total of 6.4 million hectares or 16.2 percent, swapped ownership from white commercial farmers to black indigenous Zimbabweans while an additional 2.2 million hectares or 5.6 percent remained unallocated”. The Government of Zimbabwe (2003), reported that a total of 127,192 households were resettled under the A1 Resettlement Model, while 7,260 households were allocated commercial land under the A2 Resettlement Model.

The achievements, challenges and nature of the FTLRRP have been intensely debated and there is a significant body of literature on the programme, for example, Deininger, et al., (2002; Masiiwa (2004); Moyo (2000; 2004); Sachikonye (2003); Scoones, Marongwe, Mahenehen (2010). It is argued that the FTLRRP addressed, to some extent, Zimbabwe’s worrisome legacy of historic injustice and social and racial inequalities and broadened the economic base of the beneficiaries (Moyo, 2004).

Richardson (2004), argues that despite being credited with overhauling the racial distribution of land in Zimbabwe, the FTLRRP, however, was implemented in a violent manner and was associated with significant losses in agricultural production and overall economic collapse (Richardson, 2004).

On the other hand, Scoones et al. (2010), is of the view that although the images of chaos, destruction and violence dominated the coverage (though indeed they were part of reality), there were also some success which were largely unrecorded. The negative impacts, often overly highlighted, created a picture of pessimism about the FTLRRP.

The study by Njaya (2015), found that while some households engaged in non-agricultural activities, for most households crop production was the main source of livelihoods. Almost all households were able to utilise their landholdings to ensure household food security. The provision of land had also a positive impact of enabling some beneficiaries to acquire certain assets that they did not have before they were resettled, or that they would not have been able to accumulate if they had remained in the areas they previously lived.

Studies by Njaya (2015), Moyo et al. (2008); Scoones et al. (2010); Moyo (2004); Zikhali (2008) have concluded that, in general, landholding through the FTLRRP led to significant welfare and income gains for the majority of households. However, limitations, in terms of access to agricultural inputs, credit, equipment and infrastructure support severely restricted the potential of livelihood enhancement arising from land redistribution (Zikhali, 2008).

The general emerging consensus about the achievements of the FTLRRP, according to Pazvakavambwa & Hungwe (2009), is that by the end of 2005, about 5,200 farms had been listed and acquired. These farms represented about 9.0 million hectares out of the 11.7 million hectares occupied by the large-scale white commercial farmers in 1997. In terms of beneficiaries, about 160,300 smallholder farming households would have been allocated 7 million hectares, while 28,000 black indigenous commercial farmers received 2 million hectares (Pazvakavambwa & Hungwe, 2009, p.156).

2.5 Relevance of Land Policies in Economic Development

The review of literature on land reform programmes and policies from the main regions of the world (Asia, Latin America and Africa) illustrates the existence of close links between land policy and economic growth, poverty reduction, and economic empowerment. Moreover, it is evident that during the past decades, the relevance of land policy has increased considerably for a variety of often region-specific reasons. Therefore, despite the complexity and long-term nature of land policy issues and the fact that they cut across different institutions, there is an increasing recognition that, in view of their far-reaching implications, ignoring them can jeopardise socio-economic stability and other efforts aimed at achieving sustainable development (The World Bank, 2003).

In the case of Namibia, since gaining independence through a democratic process of elections in 1990, the Namibian government under the SWAPO administration has implemented a multifaceted programme of land reform, to address problems of historical land dispossession, landlessness and rural poverty, relying heavily on the concept of willing buyer, willing seller. In 1990, about 36,2 million hectares of the total commercial agriculturally usable land in Namibia was owned and utilised by only 4664 individual white private farmers. While close to one million black Namibians had access to only 33, 5 million hectares of the total land suitable for agricultural production in communal areas (Nujoma, 1991).

The political economy of Namibia where more than 80 percent of the population derive their livelihood from the land, either as peasants, private owners or workers on farms, confirms the importance of having access to land. However, despite the fact that such a large proportion of Namibians derive their livelihood from the land, access and ownership of land are highly unevenly distributed, and the majority of black Namibians are landless. It is against this background that a three-pronged land reform programme aiming at tenure reform, redistribution and communal land development was embarked upon in 1990.

The main objective of land reform, as outlined in the National Land Policy of 1998, in Namibia is to redress the injustices of the past but in a spirit of national reconciliation and to promote sustainable economic development. The National Land Policy also makes a commitment to secure and promote the social and economic interest of the poor by ensuring equity in access to land and security of land tenure. According to the National Land Policy of 1998, the “poor” constitutes a target group as beneficiaries for land reform because they are landless or have little or insufficient access to land, and they are not in formal employment or engaged in non-agricultural business activities.

The relevant literature reviewed for the purpose of this study reveal that landlessness or near landlessness seems to be on the rise with population growth all over the world, in urban as well as in rural areas (Rutten, 2000). Statistics shows that over 3.1 billion people lived in rural areas in developing countries in 2010, and a quarter of them in extreme poverty (Todaro & Smith, 2012); and landlessness could be one of the contributing factors to such poverty.

Landlessness is a common phenomenon in Latin America and some parts of the world, just as it is common in African countries. The concept of landlessness is difficult to explain because of its relativity to other factors such as historical, cultural, social, economic, and political and land tenure types prevailing in a given country. Unlike a population’s average income which is measured and defined by the World Bank using the per capita gross national income (GNI), finding a common measure and definition for landlessness seems to be more complicated and difficult.

Rutten (2000), postulates that landless means without land or a person who does not have access to land as a productive resource; while near-landlessness has been defined as access to a piece of land too small to provide a minimum livelihood under existing land use patterns and technical capabilities. From the explanations above, it appears that landlessness is relative to prevailing land tenure policy and legislation as well as usage in a particular country or region. Landlessness is also determined and related to agro-ecological features and land use type in a given region or country.

Although it is difficult to find a common measure for landlessness, most studies have considered inequality as a measure for determining landlessness. Inequality is defined as disparities in the distribution of economic assets (wealth) and income within or between populations or individuals (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012). Unlike poverty, which focuses only on the poor, inequality is a broader measure that is defined over the entire population. When measuring inequality, the Gini-Coefficient is often used to show the extent of inequality in the distribution of wealth within or between the population and individuals. The GINI-Coefficient for Namibia in 2015/2016 was at 0.56, which indicates that the level of inequality in Namibia remains among the highest in the world (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2016).

The high skewed land ownership, and distribution in Namibia contributes to landlessness and a high level of inequality. In the context of this study, landlessness incidence (LI) is the proportion of the population identified as landless in a given region or area. For example, if a landlessness line of 300 ha is drawn, the landlessness incidence is the proportion of the population whose land ownership or access is less than 300 hectares.

The landlessness gap (LG) or depth of landlessness is the extent to which those defined as landless fall below the landlessness line of 300 ha. The landlessness gap is a measure that captures ownership or access shortfall relative to the landlessness line across the whole population. Landlessness gap could also be defined as the minimum size of land needed to eradicate landlessness, i.e. a landlessness gap of 8.8 percent means that on average about 26.4 ha of land per person is needed as additional to lift all the landless out of landlessness.

The landlessness gap provides information on how far individuals are from the landlessness line. On the other hand, landlessness severity looks at both the depth of landlessness, in other words, how far off the landless are from the landlessness line, and inequality within the landless (how deep or severe the landlessness is), placing a higher weight on those further away from the landlessness line, i.e. the landless of the landless. This study concludes that the degree of landlessness and access to land can be measured by using the inequality index as shown by the Lorenz Curve (Rutherford, 2002).

On economic development the review found that it is a complex concept and no single definition incorporates all different strands of economic development. However, economic development can be defined in terms of objectives such as the creation of jobs and wealth, and the improvement of quality of life. Economic development can also be described as a process that influences growth and restructuring of an economy to enhance the economic wellbeing of a community (International Economic Development Council, 2017).

The main goal of economic development is improving the economic well-being of a community, especially the rural economy. Given the complexity that entails economic development, there is no single strategy, policy or programme for achieving successful economic development. However, a combination of economic reforms with special attention to efficient and equitable land redistribution may have a positive impact on the livelihoods of the rural communities.

Development economics is of the view that instead of playing a passive, supporting role in the process of economic development, the agricultural sector in particular and the rural economy in general must play an indispensable part in any overall strategy of economic progress, especially for the low-income developing countries. To a large extent, therefore, agricultural and rural development has come to be regarded by many economists as the sine qua non of national development. Without such integrated rural development, in most cases, industrial growth either would be stultified or, if it succeeded, would create severe internal imbalances in the economy.

The broad spectrum of rural development activities, including small-farmer agricultural progress, the provision of physical and social infrastructure, the development of rural non-farm industries, and the capacity of the rural sector to sustain and accelerate the pace of these improvements over time (Todaro & Smith, 2012).

Sustainable development brings together matters such as land use planning, an integrated transport policy, housing and construction, and regeneration of cities, towns and rural areas (International Economic Development Council, 2017).

Literature further indicates that there is increasingly a consensus that economic development is a multidimensional process that involves interactions among different goals of development and therefore would require systematically designed social and economic policies and strategies. Access to land and the ability to exchange it with others and to use it efficiently are of great importance for poverty reduction, economic growth and private sector investment as well as for empowering the poor and ensuring good governance.

It is also stated that poor agricultural and rural development performance has retarded economic growth and increased poverty, both in rural and urban areas (Binswanger, 1996). Access to land and the ability to make productive use of such land is critical to poor people worldwide. In addition to its direct effect on households' welfare and their strategies for risk coping, together with other factors, the system of land tenure will also affect the scope for the emergence of markets and the structure of governance at the local level.

2.5.1 Relationship between Landlessness and Poverty

Historically, the imposition of systematic barriers preventing the poor from accessing land has been a key strategy for limiting the scope for their economic advancement (Pazvakavambwa & Hungwe, 2009). Poverty blights the lives of millions in Africa, Asia and Latin America because some people were denied access to land. Most of the poor, at least in Africa and Asia, reside in rural areas, dependent directly or indirectly on agricultural land (ECA, 2004; The World Bank, 2008).

This view is also supported by Qureshi and Ali (2004) who stated that "the distribution of asset ownership is central in understanding poverty; that land is the principal asset in a rural economy". Their study on landlessness and rural poverty in Pakistan indicated that "poverty is strongly correlated with lack of asset". Their study found that "poverty incidence was the highest in Pakistan in rural areas among landless at 54.89 percent followed by non-agriculture households at 47.76 percent" (Qureshi & Ali, 2004, pp. 5-6).

The rural poor are, in the main, landless or near landless. While landlessness is among the most important characteristics of the rural poor, they are by no means an undifferentiated or a homogeneous mass of humanity (Khan, 2015). The rural poor may be the *minifundistas* in Latin America, marginal owner-operators in Asia, smallholders in Africa, who are struggling to survive by selling their labour to others either in or outside agriculture. The rural poor may also be tenants, either as sharecroppers or as bonded labour in some countries of Asia and *colonos* on the *haciendas* in Latin America.

Khan (2015), asserts that these households often have access to the usufruct of land, however tenuous their attachment to land. An increasing number of the rural poor are the landless workers, who could be permanent, seasonal and even migratory. Household labour is their basic source of income, part of which they must use on their small, often fragmented, land parcels, owned or leased, and the other part of their labour they must sell increasingly to others within and outside agriculture (Khan, 2015). That a large and even increasing proportion of the rural households are poor shows the severe constraints they face in raising their living standards within the existing agrarian structures.

Land is the basis of livelihood for billions of people in the world and because of this critical role; land has been extensively captured in the major international instruments for measuring standard and quality of life. Availability of adequate food and shelter, in the third world countries and other agricultural-based economies, depends on the size of land and type of land tenure available to an individual (Kenya Human Rights Commission, 2016). It follows, therefore, that land is an important and essential input for the realisation of many human rights-civil and political; and economic, social and cultural rights. The rights to own, control, access and make use of land are therefore very critical (Malombe, 2016) to poverty alleviation and economic development.

Malawi is predominantly an agricultural country and one of the poorest countries in monetary terms in the world with 50.7 percent of the population living below the poverty line and 25 percent living in extreme poverty, especially in rural areas (World Bank and IMF, 2018). In 1997, agriculture contributed more than 47 percent to the total gross domestic product, while agricultural produce accounted for over 95 percent of total export (Nothale, 1986).

Agriculture constitutes the backbone of the Malawian economy and agricultural performance has more significant implications for economic growth and poverty reduction, especially in rural areas, than any other sector. However, the growth of the agricultural sector has been volatile and frequently surpassed by high population growth rate. In Zimbabwe, many poor and middle-income black people in urban areas, squeezed by rocketing food and transport price hikes and growing unemployment since the mid-1990s, see access to land as an alternative source of income and food security (Human Rights Watch, 2016).

2.5.2 Causes of Landlessness

Literature review has revealed that there are various causes of landlessness in different countries of the world, but they are somehow similar and related in some parts of Asia, Latin America and Africa. For example, "landlessness of Bangladesh in retrospect is both a historical and structural phenomena" (Rahman & Manprasert, 2006, p.55), while the traditional rural conditions in Asia typically deteriorated throughout the twentieth century. Myrdal (1958) identified three major interrelated forces that molded Asia's traditional pattern of land ownership into its current fragmented conditions as: "(a) the intervention of European rule; (b) the progressive introduction of monetized transactions and the rise in power of the money-lender; and (c), the rapid growth of Asian populations" (Todaro & Smith, 2012, p.).

The three factors mentioned above, to a large extent, contributed to the current land tenure system in Latin America, Asia and Africa, and more specific to Namibia in the Omaheke region where some people have access or ownership of large pieces of land while others have less or no access to land at all. The factors mentioned above, (a) and (b), are falling within the historical and political economy theory as outlined in Chapter 2; on the interrelationship between labour and capital in the production process, rents, the interaction of classes and the rise of a commercial and industrial bourgeoisie challenging feudalism and absolutism.

The intervention of European rule is a historical and political factor that contributed to landlessness in the Omaheke region when new system of land tenure was introduced. The introduction of colonial and foreign land tenure system gave advantages to settler Europeans while indigenous communities, the Herero, Tswana and San were left without or very little access to land in their own countries. These historical circumstances have led to a phenomena of landlessness on one side and a concentration of large areas of land in the hands of a small class of economically powerful landowners on the other side.

The issue of population growth, factor (c), is supporting the Malthusian theory of demographic determinism, which asserts that the weight (increase) of the population itself is the cause of problems (Hewitt & Smyth, 2000). This view implies that more people are competing for scarce resources in rural areas, especially agricultural land.

The rapid growth of the Asian population led to diminishing land for agriculture and living space. Introducing the money-lending institutions (banks) also created social and economic classes in Asia and Africa. Those who had privileges to access finance from financial institutions could buy land and sell land, and this created an exclusive land market in some Asian and African countries.

Evidence from studies conducted in Latin America suggests that large landowners captured most of the benefits of agricultural growth in the 1970s and 1980s. In contrast, in Indonesia, where small farmers provide the bulk of agricultural production, agricultural productivity and growth were greater in that period, and were better for the rural poor (Birdsall, 2008).

In Bangladesh the study also found numerous causes of landlessness and near landlessness, some of them include a dearth of land, rapid population growth, low productivity in agriculture, lack of effective government policies, and colonial legacies. Due to these circumstances, land-oriented poverty and rural to urban migration without any expansion in the housing and utility services lead to the expansion of slump with all affiliated social problems (Rahman & Manprasert, 2006).

In some African countries, settler colonialism was entrenched through massive land alienation and proletarianisation, leading to protracted armed liberation wars. In others, indirect rule led to the promotion of peasant farming for exports without land expropriation, generating multiple export enclaves, which built differentiating indigenous elite alongside the peasantry.

In countries such as Democratic Republic of Congo, Cameroon, the plantation economies of the European merchant capitalists coexisted with peasantries in a bimodal agrarian context. The legacy of the colonial land policies is the major framework through which sustainable livelihood at the individual country level have been conditioned. Therefore, the genesis of the land problem in Africa is a political-economic structure established through conquest by Europeans seeking to extract resources from Africa (Economic Commission for Africa, 2004).

With a population growth rate of about 3% per annum, the population of Malawi had reached 18,622,104 million in 2017 with a population density of 157.17 inhabitants per square kilometre (World Bank and IMF, 2018). The high population growth rate in Malawi leads to more people needing land for various economic activities, especially farming, and subsequently creating landless communities if land tenure system and distribution policies are not properly put in place and efficiently administered.

2.6 Landlessness and Land Reform in Namibian

In Namibia, like the rest of sub-Saharan Africa, the majority of the population (+70 percent) live in the rural areas and even a higher percentage depends on agriculture for their livelihood (National Planning Commission, 2008). To meet their daily food requirements, most people in rural areas produce rather than purchase the food they consume. Throughout African history, there has been a greater appreciation of these facts than ever before due to the recent food crisis which has necessitated a closer examination of the root causes on hunger, malnutrition and poverty in sub-Saharan Africa (UNDP, 2007).

Namibia's land reform programme has been underpinned by ambivalence about land and what it signifies. One set of discourses and practices shows that ownership of or access to rural land is a key part of many African families' well-being and livelihood (James, 2001). Given the importance of land as a crucial factor in the production of food by rural residents, questions have arisen regarding the extent of land availability, quality of land, competing uses of land, and most importantly, land ownership. It is in this context that the growing concern over landlessness, particularly in the rural areas, can be understood.

Those without land or have no access to it in the rural areas and lacking an alternative source of income are therefore doomed to poverty and become vulnerable to malnutrition and starvation (UNDP, 2007. Land, therefore, being a God-given resource, forms the fundamental base for human development because it supports almost all human activity. James (2001) states that land represents a series of things – a sense of security, identity and history – rather than being an asset to be used for farming alone. For Namibia, despite gross inequalities, land remains a major factor of production which supports rural and urban economy.

2.6.1 Pre-Colonial Land Tenure System in Namibia

Historically, land tenure arrangements are important because many of the systems that have been encountered in the evolution of property rights, from the nomadic existence of hunter-gatherers to haciendas and highly mechanised farms, still exist side by side in different regions of the world (Deininger, 2003). Therefore, placing these within the broader historical evolution of land rights will help one to understand not only their origin but also the possible paths of social and economic development.

Land tenure system in pre-colonial Namibia was based on communal utilisation throughout the country. Communities in the southern and central Namibia (the Nama, Herero, Damara and Baster) lived a predominantly pastoral life. The scarcity of water and poor pastures for grazing livestock forced these communities to disperse widely throughout the southern and central territory in small groups (Werner, 1991). This strategy made it possible for these communities to utilise land and water resources for grazing in an efficient and environmental-friendly manner. The communal land use system also allowed all members of the community to have access to land, water and other natural resources for their livelihood.

As a result of the communal way of sharing resources, no fixed boundaries existed between these different communities, but loosely defined areas of jurisdiction by respective chiefs and kings were recognised. According to Werner (1991), the social and political structure of these communities was characterized by a relatively low degree of political centralisation. Therefore, the creation of paramount chieftaincies by colonisers, consequently, led to competition for natural resources and conflict among chieftaincies and communities.

In the northern regions of Namibia (the former Ovamboland, Kavango, Kaoko and Caprivi) the pre-colonial land tenure system of the indigenous communities was, and still remains, communal where a combination of settled agriculture with animal husbandry is practiced. Political structures were characterized by high degree of centralisation with a tremendous variety of economic and social activities.

This situation has been supported by Chazan et al. (1992) who state that prior to colonization elsewhere in Africa, political systems ranged from the stateless system, typical of much of East Africa, in which political activities occurred primarily within age-set associations, to the centralised kingdoms of the savannah of West Africa and sub-Sahara Africa (Chazan et al., 1992). The rich soils and good rains in the northern regions of Namibia favoured permanent settlements such as the Kingdom of the Kwanyama, the settlements of the Kavango and the Caprivi in the far-north-east regions.

Whatever differences that were there, both communities or tribes in the northern and the southern regions of Namibia had one virtue in common; land was owned by the community as a whole, whereas permanent usufruct was granted (verbally) to arable plots in the northern and north-eastern regions (Werner, 1991). Under communalism all land and means of production belonged to the community. As stated by Nkrumah (1970) when a certain piece of land was allocated to an individual for personal use, that person had no right to alienate such land since it still belonged to the community (Nkrumah, 1970).

Katjiua (2018), purports that prior to land dispossession by the Germans, Herero land encompassed Okaoko in the north-west of present-day Namibia and much of central Namibia, including the following main settlements: Otjitambi, Omaruru, Otjimbingwe, Okandjoze, Omambonde, Otjiwarongo, Okakarara, Okondjezu, Ouparakane, Ovingi, Otjomandongo, Omburo, Otjituezu and Otjomuise, with Okahandja as the capital settlement.

Katjiua (2018) further states that in this geographic space, the OvaHerero had carried out their traditions and customs, pastoralism and trading with neighbouring tribes of Aawambo in the north, the Nama tribe in the south, the Damara tribe in the western parts of Hereroland, and the Batswana of western Botswana for more than 500 years (Katjiua, 2018). According to Katjiua (2018), ancestral land for the Ova Herero encompasses three interrelated concepts of space, namely; space of origin and acculturalisation, space made sacred and of religious values and space of ancestors.

The use of the concept of 'space' denotes both a physic-geographic space, and a mental space reflecting a psycho-spiritual construct. For example, places like Ondundu ja Tjozondjupa, currently known as Waterberg, Ombindi ja Tjiponda, Omatako and other places were, and remains, associated with historical events and happenings within the cultural and spiritual space and identity of the Ova Herero. Burial sites are sacred grounds, the majority of heads of extended families serve as spiritual leaders and custodians of their respective holy fires, the medium of worship (Katjiua, 2018). Briefly, this was the political, social and economic environment that prevailed in Namibia before colonization, and into which German colonialism came to manifest itself.

2.6.2 Land Dispossession under German Colonial Rule

To dispossess means to deprive another of the possession or occupation of something, such as real property (American Heritage, 2016). The legal dictionary describes dispossession as the wrongful, nonconsensual ouster or removal of a person from his or her property by trick, compulsion, or misuse of the law, whereby the violator obtains actual occupation of the property (The Free Dictionary, 2008). These definitions of dispossession clearly explain the approach that was used by the colonisers to take away (dispossess) the natural resources, especially land, from indigenous Africans.

Colonial land alienation and dispossession in Namibia started in 1883 with the arrival of the German trader, Adolf Lüderitz, who obtained the first tracts of land from Chief Joseph Fredericks of the Nama tribe in the far south of Namibia (then South West Africa) territory. History has it that Adolf Lüderitz bought two tracts of land for the grand total of £600 and 260 rifles (Ellis, 1984), and ended up claiming the rest of the coastal region after unfairly negotiating with the Chief of the Nama tribe. Adolf Lüderitz hoped to gain wealth through the discovery of minerals.

Despite Lüderitz's hopes, profitable deposits of minerals were not immediately discovered in the new colony. Instead, more white settlers arrived, and they engaged more in trade – using German protection for extortion of large profits – or cattle farming, encroaching on grazing land for Herero and Nama areas (Ellis, 1984). This opened the gateway for the German colonialists to acquire more land by signing protection treaties with indigenous African rulers.

During this period, many European settlers in Namibia bought or leased land for commercial farming purposes, thereby formally defining the areas occupied by indigenous communities.

> By 1902, freehold farmland accounted for 6% of Namibia’s total land service area while 30% was formally recognised as communal land. After the 1904-1907 war between Germany and forces of the Herero and Nama, large tracts of land were confiscated from the Herero and Nama by proclamation. By 1911, some 21% of the total land surface area had been allocated as freehold (commercial) farmland while the recognised communal land area had shrunk to just 9% (Legal Assistance Center, 2005, p. 1).

The German colonialists found a loophole and exploited the local conflicts that raged between the African indigenous communities by offering the so-called ‘protection treaties’ to individual indigenous African rulers against their adversaries (Werner, 1993). Ironically, the African signatories of these protection treaties in return had neither authority nor permission to alienate any piece of land to any member of the indigenous community without the consent and approval of the colonial German Emperor. It is through these one-sided treaties that the indigenous rulers abrogated their rights to enter into other treaties with other foreign government. Historical reports indicate that by 1893, practically the whole territory occupied by pastoralist communities in the southern and central Namibia had been acquired by concession companies (Werner, 1991).

In 1897 a series of natural catastrophes, especially the Rinderpest pandemic, rapidly changed the balance of forces for the indigenous pastoralists. With an approximate 90 percent of cattle wiped out by the pandemic, many pastoralists in the central and southern parts of Namibia were forced into wage labour on European white farm enterprises for the first time. European settlers took advantage of the plight of the stockless indigenous pastoralists in central and southern regions of Namibia (then South West Africa).

In the process, land became increasingly the object of barter and trade. Ironically, the land traded was much cheaper than the land offered by concession companies, who had acquired their land for speculative purposes (Werner, 1991). Through unequal trade European settlers acquired large tracts of land and substantial numbers of livestock that had survived the Rinderpest pandemic.

By 1902 only 31.4 million hectares (38%) of the total land area of 83.5 million hectares remained in black hands. White settlers had taken over 3.7 million hectares, concession companies 29.2 million hectares and the colonial administration had taken 19.2 million hectares. However, peasants in the northern regions of Namibia, previously known as Ovamboland, Kavangoland, and Eastern Caprivi Zipfel, retained access to land because crop farming was not affected by the Rinderpest pandemic (Werner 1991) as it was in the central and southern parts of the country.

The process of land dispossession by the German colonialists led to indigenous black communities losing their ancestral land and water resources. A European idea of private land ownership rapidly replaced the communal system of land utilisation and introduced rigid, physical land boundaries. This process of land dispossession by colonialists signaled the end of African communal system of transhumance with their high degree of ecological adaptations, and increasingly restricted access to land to those who claimed title, however spurious such claims were (Werner, 1991).

Tensions arising from unscrupulous trading practices and loss of land by indigenous blacks sparked the war of resistance in 1904 by the Herero and the Nama against the German colonial administration. Indigenous Namibians mounted a series of rebellions against the German colonial administration. The most significant being the Herero and Nama rebellions of 1904 -1907. This war for the land and other natural resources had devastating consequences for both indigenous black communities.

“The German colonial administration responded with fanatical nationalism, culminating in an attempt to exterminate the Herero, whose numbers were reduced from the estimated 70 000 to 15 000” (Ellis, 1984, p. 15). Some authors estimate that close to 80 percent of the Herero and about 50 percent of the Nama were exterminated by the German colonial forces under the command of Von Trotha; the colonial army commander during the 1904-1908 genocide which saw the execution of thousands of Nama and Ova Herero people in Namibia. German who vowed to kill and exterminate the Herero from the face of Namibia (Werner, 1993). On 2 October 1904, Von Trotha ordered his heavily armed German forces to kill all Ova Herero by either poisoning their main sources of water (waterholes), or by gunfire. This act of genocide overshadowed the dispossession of the Ova Herero and the Nama communities of their lands and livestock.

After crushing indigenous resistance, the German colonial administration issued regulations in 1905 announcing expropriation of all tribal land including land given to missionaries by local chiefs. The expropriation regulation gave powers to the colonial administration to expropriate all the land of the OvaHerero and the Nama communities. The regulation further prohibited and strictly controlled squatting on uncultivated or unsettled land (Werner, 1993).

Although relatively few in numbers, white settler farmers were firmly entrenched on the land. By 1913, about 1,331 farms were already in private ownership, of which 118 farms were on lease and 193 farms were dormant (Werner, 1993). The land allotted to white settlers amounted to 13.4 million hectares (32 percent of the total areas of 42.3 million hectares); 1,587 white adults were on these farms, with a black farm labour complement of about 12,500. White settlers also owned some 90 percent of all cattle in the police zone and 70 percent of small livestock (Werner, 1991).

Police zone included areas that fell within the sphere of influence of railway line or main road. The police zone separated that part of Namibia which was settled by white settler farmers from those areas where peasant communities were largely left intact, namely; Kaokoland, Ovamboland, Kavangoland and Caprivi.

German colonial power was consolidated after the defeat of the Herero and Nama war of resistance of 1904 - 1908, and prime grazing land and water sources were in the possession and control of white settlers. This wholesome land dispossession by the German colonialists cannot be fully comprehended unless conceptualised within the process of capital accumulation in Namibia. This position is further supported by Werner who state that:

> The racially-weighted distribution of land was an essential feature in the colonial exploitation of Namibia's natural resources, directly affecting the profitability not only of settler agriculture but also of mining and industrial sector; the whole wage structure and labour supply system depended critically on the land divisions in the country; access to land determined the supply and cost of African labour to the colonial economy (Werner, 1993, p. 137).

Therefore, the large-scale dispossession of black Namibians was as much intended to provide white settlers with land, as it was to deny black Namibians access to the same land, thereby denying them access to commercial agricultural production and forcing them (blacks) into wage labour. Blacks were left with no other means of livelihood but to exchange their labour power with those who owned land. A typical manifestation of colonialism and capitalism.

The German colonial administration establish seven (7) Native Reserves of about 2.7 million hectares, however, it (the German colonial administration) did not manage to complete the implementation of its land dispossession policy before Germany lost control of Namibia, the then South West Africa, (SWA) as a result of World War I (Permanent Technical Team, 2005). Namibia was a colony of imperial Germany for thirty-one (31) years, from 1884 until 1915 when the apartheid South Africa administration invaded Namibia on behalf of Britain and defeated the German garrison.

2.6.3 Land Distribution in SWA under Apartheid South Africa

German colonial rule came to an end with the surrender of the German armed forces in 1915. South West Africa became a Protectorate of Great Britain, with the British King's mandate held by South Africa in terms of the Treaty of Versailles signed in 1919. Under the Treaty and the South West Africa Act 49 of 1919, land held by the German colonial administration effectively became Crown (or State) land of South West Africa. The Governor-General of the Union of South Africa had the power to legislate on all matters, including land allocation. During the intervening period of military rule from 1915 to 1920, no legislation existed under which land settlement could be carried out (Legal Assistance Center, 2005). When martial law came to an end in 1920, land settlement laws in force in the Union of South Africa were applied to South West Africa.

Apartheid South Africa had the intention to annex Namibia as its fifth province, but instead the League of Nations placed Namibia under the British as a 'C' mandate administered by South Africa. The intention of the 'C' mandate was that the administering power should not benefit economically or militarily, but should develop the territory so that the inhabitants could determine their own future (Ellis, 1984).

However, the apartheid South African administration used Namibia as a place to settle ‘poor whites’ who were displaced from agriculture in South Africa.

During the 1920s, South Africa followed a policy of settling poor South African whites in South West Africa, and the South West African Administration supported white settler farmers financially and logistically despite the drought conditions, lack of markets and financial depression prevailing at the time. To clear land designated for white settlement, the Administration introduced the Native Administration Proclamation 11 of 1922. This law provided that natives not employed by land owners or lessees were not permitted to squat on land without a magistrate’s permission. It also authorised the Administrator to set aside areas as “native reserves” for the sole use and occupation of natives generally or for any race or tribe in particular.

The division of land between white and black areas was continued, confirmed and reinforced by the South African administration in Namibia.

> While the South African Administration did everything in its power to support white farmers settling in Namibia, it paid little attention to the needs of the native black farmers living in native reserves. The Administration granted generous loans to white farmers to build dams, drill boreholes and buy livestock, and gave white farmers expert advice, back-up services, drought relief and regular access to the already subsidised South African marketing system. By contrast, almost nothing was spent on black farmers living in native reserves during the same period. The Native Reserves Commission recommended in 1922 that 9% of the land within the Police Zone (5 million hectares) should be set aside for native reserves. However, by 1925 a total of just 2 813 741 hectares south of the Police Zone accommodated a black

population of 11 740 people, while 7 481 371 hectares (880 holdings) were available for 1 106 white settlers (Legal Assistance Center, 2005, p. 2).

At the same time, mining activities increased, especially at the German-owned Tsumeb mine and the rich diamond fields which, in 1919, were acquired by the South African Anglo-American Corporation. For both white farms and mines, labour was needed. With the population of central and south Namibia decimated by the German campaigns of 1904 – 1908, northern Namibia was the obvious source of labour. "Headmen of indigenous communities in the north were rewarded for each of the subjects who agreed to such work in the south of the country" (Ellis, 1984, p. 15). The lack of alternative sources for earning cash and livelihood drove men from the north to the south of Namibia where they worked on white farms and mines as cheap labour.

Land dispossession by whites and displacement of indigenous black communities continued when apartheid South Africa took over the mandate in 1920, under the terms of Article 22 of the Covenant of the League of Nations and mandate agreement by the League Council. The mandate required that South Africa would promote the material, moral wellbeing and social progress of the people of South West Africa.

The mandate further stipulated that all land held by the previous German administration in Namibia was to be transferred to the South African administration (USA Department of State, 2009). The South African administration brought its own changes to the land distribution policies in Namibia, enforced by military rule; forcing blacks in urban areas to move out and settle in rural areas. This resulted in an increased supply of cheap labour to commercial white farmers.

Under the South African Land Settlement Proclamation of 1920, a Land Board was established to facilitate the white South African settlement into Namibia, followed by the establishment of a Land Bank in 1921. The Native Reserve Commission recommended division of land along racial lines and removal of blacks from the so-called ‘European areas’ to ‘reserves.’

With apartheid policies already functioning in South Africa, Prime Minister H.F. Verwoerd appointed the Odendaal Commission in 1962 to advise the South African Government as to how a similar policy of separate development could be introduced in Namibia. The Commission's report, published on 12 December 1963, recommended the granting of self-government to the “homelands” and the transfer of all land within homeland boundaries to all the respective ethnic Legislative Assemblies. This meant that the Assemblies would have the authority to release land for the alienation to individual ‘citizens’ of the various homelands, subject to permission from the South African Prime Minister.

The Odendaal Commission completed Namibia’s racially skewed land distribution and ownership pattern, benefiting the white minority and making the black majority landless. The Odendaal Commission created a white commercial agricultural sector and a black communal and traditional sector, and further entrenched the European-style private ownership of fenced and surveyed agricultural land (Akram-Lodhi, Borras Jr, & Kay, 2007).

The Odendaal Commission’s directive in 1964 led to the establishment of 10 reserves (homelands) for black people of South West Africa, as proclaimed in the Development of Self-Government for Native Nations in South West Africa Act 54 of 1968. This Act recognised Owamboland, Hereroland, Kaokoland, Okavangoland, Damaraland and Eastern Caprivi as “native nations”. The Act was purportedly introduced in South West Africa to assist native nations in the territory to develop in an orderly manner towards attaining self-governance and independence. In some ways the Odendaal Plan merely extended and rationalised an administrative system created in the 1920s by the Native Reserve Commission. Although the Odendaal Plan increased land available to black Namibians by nearly 50%, the agricultural potential of the newly 'received' land was very limited. Arguably, the whole concept of land "resettlement" facilitated by the Namibian Government exists in the shadow of the "resettlement" under the Odendaal Plan of thousands of Damara persons on 223 previously white-owned commercial farms acquired by the South West African Administration in the 1960s to create a "Damaraland". This resettlement experiment, still in operation, with the resettled Damara and their families still there, dwarfs in scale the hundred-odd farms purchased by the Namibian Government and resettled in Namibia's first eleven years of independence.

While extensive research has been done on the Damaraland experiment, suggesting that it has been a failure current resettlement policy has not been influenced by that research (Sullivan, 1996; Kambatuku, 1996). Each family resettled in the new homeland was granted a section of a former commercial farm, usually a camp or two. Here they were supposed to farm effectively, meaning that they were to sell off excess stock, maintain and repair infrastructure, employ scientific farming practices, and in short, invest capital so as to maximise income. The problem, however, was that hardly anybody possessed the resources necessary to do this. Most people were very poor, possessed very little stock and had no access to credit, either private or public. It is no surprise that they failed to farm "scientifically" and focused simply on trying to survive.15 Furthermore, the Odendaal Commission established ethnic homelands that served as reservoirs for cheap black labourers who worked on white commercial farms, mines and factories in urban areas.

South Africa became an independent republic in 1961 with a white minority rule and all its apartheid policies including land allocation and administration were also applied in Namibia. Measuring 824,269 km^2, Namibia had 69.6 million hectares of land suitable for agricultural purposes in commercial and communal areas.

By 1989, about "36.2 million hectares (52%) of this land was deemed freehold commercial agricultural land occupied and owned by some 4,200 (0.3% of the population) predominantly white farmers" (MAWRD, 1991, p.120). This situation means, on average, each white commercial farmer owned or had access to about 8,620 hectares of agricultural land in commercial areas while 1,015,142 million black Namibian population shared the 33.4 million hectares (48% of 69.6 million ha) mostly in communal areas. On average, each household in communal areas or reserves had access to less than 33 hectares of land for crop farming and grazing livestock (National Planning Commission, 2003/2004). Land in communal areas belongs to the State under the administration of Traditional Authorities (Chiefs), where individuals or households are given the user rights only, and not private ownership. Communal land supported livelihoods of about 72% of the Namibian population in rural areas who were dependent on communal subsistence farming.

Table 2. 4: Colonial and Apartheid land settlement Schemes in Namibia

Settlement Model	Type of Beneficiaries	Results
German Settlement Scheme 1890 – 1915.	German Settlers.	Concession Companies held 29 million ha. German forces killed +60% of Namibians (genocide) from 1904 – 1911. By 1913, about 1331 farms (13.4 million ha) given to German settlers.
Afrikaner Settlement Scheme, 1919 – 1989.	Poor South African Whites /Afrikaners.	1106 white families with 880 farms = 7.5 million ha. 1261 farms given to whites by 1932. No land tax paid.
Anglo Boers / Dorsland Trekkers Settlement Project of 1940.	War displaced South African Farmers from Angola.	150 farms given to them. Grants & farm infrastructure support given. No land tax.
Odendaal Relocation /Expropriation Scheme of 1968.	Afrikaner farmers & African Communal farmers.	Expansion of Communal Areas under the Bantustan Framework. Involuntary Land Expropriation. The Cordon Fence (Red Line); physical separation of Commercial from Communal areas.
Bantustan Administration Settlement Scheme of 1978.	African Communal Farmers with ties to the Second-Tier Authorities.	Creation of Homelands based on Self-Governing Ethnic Groupings.

Source: Permanent Technical Team on Land Reform Report, 2005

Table 2.4 shows that the land distribution schemes of the colonial German and the apartheid South Africa achieved remarkable results during their periods of implementation. Within “27 years of German colonial rule concession companies had 29 million hectares; 13.4 million hectares were distributed to German settler farmers; and 60 percent of indigenous Namibians south of the Etosha Pan were executed” (PTT, 2005, p. 59). From a geo-political and economic analytical point of view, the apartheid

South African Land Settlement Scheme was the most generous land settlement scheme in the world.

> Throughout 1930s, white settlers did not pay any income nor land tax. It is further reported that all the agricultural land allocated to white settlers under the German and South African administrations was not bought but scrupulously taken from the indigenous Namibians, especially the Ova Herero, the Nama and Damara communities. The colonial land distribution schemes were not based on the principle of a willing seller, willing buyer, but rather on forced expropriation without compensation (PTT, 2005, pp.59-60).

Table 2. 5: Land Ownership pattern in Commercial Districts of Namibia in 1991

District	Namibian Owners				Foreign Owners	
	White Owners		Black Owners			
	Number of Farms	Size (Ha)	Number of Farms	Size (Ha)	Number of Farms	Size (Ha)
Outjo	398	1,895,281	54	287,586	35	151,439
Otjiwarongo	406	1,640,960	16	61,815	41	192,003
Grootfontein	557	1,726,457	4	21,782	3	20,535
Tsumeb/Otavi	448	1,523,680	7	26,473	9	61,114
TOTAL NORTH	***1809***	***6,786,378***	***81***	***397,656***	***88***	***425,091***
Windhoek	528	2,998,218	5	38,552	17	105,396
Gobabis	809	3,673,681	41	192,313	31	131,933
Okahandja	358	1,497,676	4	23,674	17	104,745
Omaruru/Karibib	236	1,397,407	7	42,836	71	506,289
TOTAL CENTRAL	***1931***	***9,566,982***	***57***	***297,375***	***136***	***848,363***
Keetmanshoop	370	2,954,314	16	96,463	49	425,434
Mariental	759	4,314,168	14	97,629	18	197,834
Karasburg	263	2,485,458	4	27,374	56	562,826
Maltahohe	220	2,053,967	3	13,455	12	129,899
Bethanien & Lüderitz	208	2,253,385	6	50,308	23	378,405
TOTAL SOUTH	***1,820***	***14,061,292***	***43***	***285,229***	***158***	***1,694,398***
TOTAL	**5560**	**30,414,652**	**181**	**980,260**	**382**	**2,967,852**

Source: (Ministry of Agriculture Water and Rural Development, 1991)

Table 2. 5 indicates that a total of 30,414,652 hectares of commercial agricultural land in all commercial areas of Namibia was owned by white farmers compared to 980,260 hectares owned by black farmers; while foreigners owned 2,967,852 hectares, of which 131,933 ha were owned by foreigners in the Gobabis District alone with an average of 4,255.90 ha per foreigner. The commercial district with the highest number of farms owned by white farmers is the Gobabis District (in the Omaheke Region) with 809 farms, measuring 3,673,681 hectares followed by Mariental District (Hardap Region) with 759 farms measuring 4,314,168 hectares. On average, one farming unit for each white farmer in the Gobabis District is 4,541 hectares, while in the Mariental District a farming unit is 5,684 hectares. The number of farms owned by blacks in the same commercial districts is 41 in the Gobabis District measuring 192,313 hectares and 14 in the Mariental District measuring 97,629 hectares. Using the data on Table 2.5 to calculate the average farm sizes per farmer, it shows that each black Namibian in the Gobabis District had ownership of 4,690.56 ha compared to 4,541.01 ha per white Namibian.

Given the statistics in Table 2.5, the average size for a farming unit in the Northern Commercial Farming District is 3,846 hectares, while in the Southern Commercial Farming District it is 7,937 hectares. Furthermore, statistics in Table 2.5 indicate that more black Namibians were landless in the Windhoek, Okahandja, Grootfontein, Omaruru/Karibib and Karasburg Districts compared to whites at independence in1991.

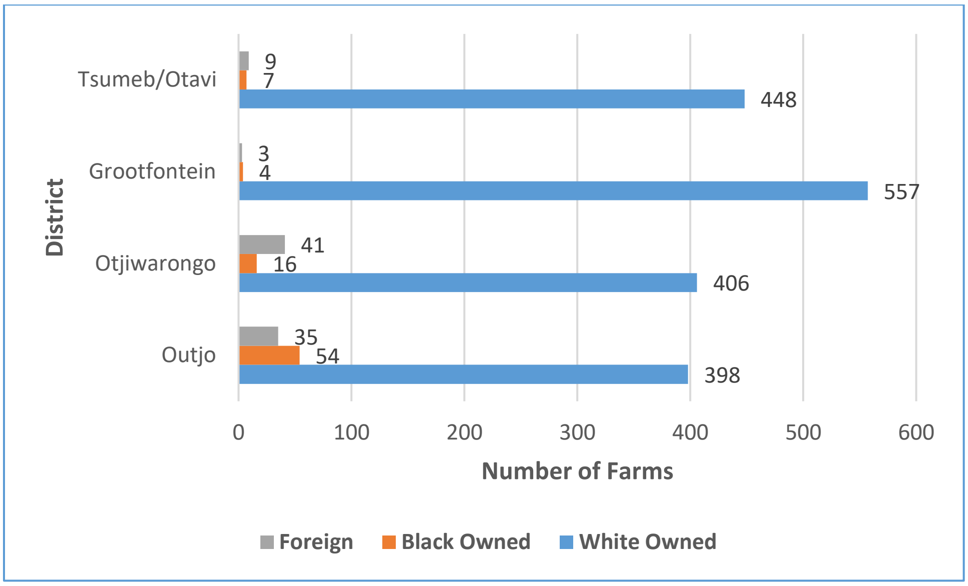

Figure 2.8 Farm ownership in northern commercial districts of Namibia in 1991
Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry, 1991

Figure 2.8 shows that white farmers owned 557 farms measuring 1,726,457 hectares in the Grootfontein District followed by Tsumeb/Otavi District with 448 farms compared to black Namibian farmers who owned only 4 farms measuring 21,782 hectares in the Grootfontein District and 7 farms in the Tsumeb/Otavi District, measuring 26,473 hectares. The highest number of farms owned by black farmers is in the Outjo District, with 54 farms measuring 287,586 hectares. However, white farmers still had more farms (398) in the Outjo District and 406 farms in the Otjiwarongo District compared to foreigners who owned 35 and 41 farms in the Outjo and Otjiwarongo Districts, respectively.

Most, if not all, foreigners in this situation were still white settlers, which means whites were in possession of the commercial farming land. The scenario in Figure 2.8 shows the effectiveness of the colonial German and the apartheid South African land dispossession and distribution schemes that changed the ownership of agricultural land from the indigenous black Namibians to the white settlers. This situation continued to create landlessness and systematic poverty among the previously dispossessed Namibians until the time of political independence in 1990.

2.6.4 Land Reform and Redistribution in Independent Namibia

Namibia celebrated her political independence, from apartheid South Africa, on 21st March 1990 under a democratically elected SWAPO-led government. The national elections were supervised by the United Nations (UN). A policy of national reconciliation was introduced as a political and economic necessity to forestall the flight of capital and minimise the risk of political destabilisation by opponents of the new government (Werner & Kruger, 2007). The adoption of a policy of national reconciliation and Article 16 of the Namibian Constitution made it possible to uphold the protection of private property. Specifically, Article 16 (1) of the Namibian Constitution states that:

> All persons shall have the right in any part of Namibia to acquire, own and dispose of all forms of immovable and movable property individually or in association with others and to bequeath their property to their heirs or legatees; provided that Parliament may, by legislation, prohibit or regulate as it deems expedient the right to acquire property by persons who are not Namibian citizens (Government of the Republic of Namibia, 1989, p. 13).

The policy of national reconciliation that was adopted by the SWAPO government and Article 16 of the Constitution helped to safeguard the property rights of white commercial farmers who owned massive agricultural land before independence. The newly elected Government of the Republic of Namibia inherited a racially skewed land distribution and ownership pattern at independence in favour of the white community.

Statistics from the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry in Table 6 below, indicate that most of the agricultural land (5560 farms measuring 30,414,652 hectares) in commercial areas was owned by some 4200 white farmers. In comparison, black Namibians owned 181 farms comprising 980,250 hectares, while foreigners had the ownership of 382 farms (2,967,852 hectares).

Given the political and economic history of land ownership during the colonial and apartheid regimes, all foreigners who owned land until 1991 were of European decent, and most of them were white South African and German nationals.

Table 2. 6: Land Ownership in Commercial Regions of Namibia, 1991

	Namibian Owners				**Foreign Owners**	
DISTRICT	**White Owned Farms**	**Size (Ha)**	**Black Owned Farms**	**Size (Ha)**	**Number of Farms**	**Size (Ha)**
Northern	1809	6,786,378	81	397,656	88	425,091
Central	1931	9,566,982	57	297,375	136	848,363
Southern	1,820	14,061,292	43	285,229	158	1,694,398
TOTAL	**5560**	**30,414,652**	**181**	**980,260**	**382**	**2,967,852**

Source: (Ministry of Agriculture Water and Rural Development, 1991)

Some (106) foreign nationals who owned private farms in Namibia did not live on their farms (MAWRD, 1991, p. 135) instead they visit their farms once or twice in a year to collect income during seasons of game hunting. Most foreigners and some Namibian white farm owners have converted their farms into close corporations (CCs) as lodges and tourist attractions to avoid expropriation. The possibility that some white farmers own more than one farm (multiple ownership) is very high in such a situation, hence some 'good Samaritan' white farmers donated some of their farms to the Government for resettlement purposes, in the pretext of national reconciliation.

The highly skewed land ownership in favour of the minority whites confirmed that Namibia, with a total population of 1.8 million by then, is one of the most economically dualistic countries in the world. In 1993, the richest 7000 Namibians were estimated to spend as much as the poorest 800,000 people's combined expenditure (National Planning Commission, 2005). A nation-wide household survey that was conducted in 1993/94 found that 47 percent (over 650,000 people) of Namibia's population were poor and more than two-thirds of the poor lived in rural areas. With a Gini Co-efficient of 0.67 in 1993/94, Namibia stands out as one of the most unequal societies in the world (National Planning Commission, 2005). The highly skewed land ownership pattern that was created during the colonial and apartheid administrations continue to exacerbate landlessness and asset poverty among black Namibians, especially the Ova Herero and the Nama/Damara communities who were mostly affected by land dispossession.

2.6.5 Addressing Landlessness in Namibia through Land Reform

"The history of land reform programmes elsewhere has been associated with changes in political regimes. The most thorough and rapid land reform programmes have followed revolutions in countries like China, Eastern Europe and Cuba or occupation after military defeat in countries like Japan, Taiwan and Korea" (Christiansen, 1996, p. 367).

More benign land reform programmes and ones with less fundamental changes have followed the end of colonial rule, the shift of political power and immigrant settler community or relatively peaceful ideological shifts such as in Algeria, Kenya, Zimbabwe, Bolivia and Mexico (Christiansen, 1996). Therefore, addressing landlessness through land reform seems to be a complex and complicated process, and in many instances the focus has either been on addressing equity (through State-and/or claims-driven) or on production (through market-and /or acquisition-driven).

In Namibia, like in most southern African countries, the complex issue of land reform arose mainly due to white settler society who dominated commercial agricultural land. The situation of resolving land distribution and ownership was made complex because the Southern African Development Community (SADC) sub-region had never expressed an opinion on land reform or tried to deal with it through a protocol for so long (Hunter, 2004).

Hunter (2004), posits that the closest the region has come to adopting standardised procedures for land reform was the consistency with which the British Government in former British colonies preferred applying the market or production – driven process to solve the land restoration and redistribution problems. Their approach manifested itself in willing seller, willing buyer policies linked to British-funded land restoration policies in Kenya, Swaziland and Zimbabwe at the time of decolonisation. After decades of struggling with the land redistribution problems in Zimbabwe, the Mugabe administration is the only country in southern Africa that produced the land invasion and the new, more radical legislation for land redistribution.

2.7 The First National Land Conference of 1991

In 1991 the SWAPO-led government called for a holistic, historic broad-based national conference to discuss land reform and the land question. The Conference is historic because it was the first national land conference in an independent Namibia that was held to discuss the question of land redistribution and ownership in Namibia. The Conference was more consultative and engaging, where various stakeholder were represented and had an opportunity to make input to the discussions and resolutions that came out at the end of the Conference. Among other issues, the Conference focused on the following three principal areas:

(a) Colonial land dispossession: How to get back land rights taken under colonial rule, and how to stop the continuing exploitation of farm workers;

(b) Equity: How to correct the extremely unequal distribution of agricultural land inherited from the apartheid regime and, how to enable the two-thirds of the Namibian households who are partly or fully dependent on the land for a living; and,

*(c)*Efficiency*:* How to increase the efficiency of land use so as to increase the contribution of agriculture to the national economy, now and in the long-term (Ndala, 2009, p. 18); (Geingob, 1991, pp. 9-10).

As stated by Ndala (2009), "the main aim of the 1991 National Land Conference was to review land related policies and develop strategic options and appropriate policies and programme of action aimed at resolving land ownership and distribution problems. Gross economic inequalities, especially in land ownership, were seen as a potential breeding ground for conflict and national instability. Such a situation was not compatible with sustainable socio-economic development" (Ndala, 2009, p. 18). At the end of the Conference twenty-four (24) 'Consensus Resolutions' were adopted and agreed upon, and the following are more relevant to this study:

2.7.1 Injustice

On the issue of injustice, the Conference acknowledged that during the colonial period, much of Namibia's [commercial] farming area was expropriated by the German and

South African colonial regimes; and allocated exclusively to white settlers while indigenous Namibian farmers were mainly confined to reserves (communal areas). The Conference concluded that there was injustice concerning the acquisition of land in the past and something practicable must be done to rectify the situation (Office of the Prime Minister, 1991).

In order to address the injustices of past colonial governments, the Government of the Republic of Namibia put in place laws and policies with a view to ensure that during the implementation of the land reform programme the rule of law prevails. The laws are also meant to guide the land reform programme so that it is carried out in conformity with the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia. Some of the laws and policies that were promulgated after the First National Land Conference for land reform purposes: the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act, Act No. 6 of 1995; the National Land Policy of 1998; the National Resettlement Policy of 2001; the Communal Land Reform Act, Act No. 5 of 2002, as amended; the Flexible Land Tenure Act, Act no. 4 of 2012; the Land Survey Act, 33 (Act No. 33 of 1993); the Property Valuers Profession Act, 2012 (Act No. 7 of 2012).

One of the objectives of the Commercial (Agricultural) Land Reform Act, No. 6 of 1995 is:

> To provide for the acquisition of agricultural land by the State for the purposes of land reform and for the allocation of such land to Namibian citizens who do not own or otherwise have the use of any or of adequate agricultural land, and foremost to those Namibian citizens who have been socially, economically or educationally disadvantaged by past discriminatory laws or practices (Government of the Republic of Namibia, 1995, p. 1)

Accusing his countrymen of “comfortable hypocrisy”, the former German President, Professor Horst Köhler (2014) called on his country to recognize the atrocities [and injustice] committed against Namibians during the colonial period. Muraranganda (2014), reports that Professor Horst Köhler state that awareness of history means remembering the genocide against the Herero people, unleashed in 1904 – exactly 110 years ago – on the orders of the Prussian officer Lothar von Trotha – a German military commander who issued an extermination order against the Ova Herero people including women, children and the elderly. Close to 100,000 Ova Herero and 10,000 Nama people died from starvation and thirst in the desert during the 1904 – 1907 genocide (Muraranganda, 2014).

Despite all efforts of government buying and distributing farmland, some critics are concerned about the role of the State in promoting justice, fairness and equity through its land redistribution programme. In response, Swartbooi (2016), iterates that the unfair distribution of land is a time bomb and has disheartened people in the south of Namibia who went to an extent of threatening not to vote in the next general elections (Beukes, 2016).

> I have seen people who have their mass of land in Oshana or Omusati Region and then they receive another chunk of land in Omaheke or Erongo Region while a person who lives immediately adjacent to these lands has not been considered… so you start to wonder what the State’s role is in promoting justice, fairness and equity if the State itself is part of injustice, inequity and discrimination. If someone says he is landless, should that not count at least 50% [in the application process for resettlement]? (Swartbooi, 2016, p. 3).

Raising a similar concern about justice and fairness in land allocation, the Maltahohe residents also threatened to illegally occupy farms in their area on which people from other regions are resettled. They reason that only a handful of 'powerful and politically connected' locals benefit from the land reform programme through underhanded dealings, and believe that it is grossly unfair that people from other regions are given preference in land allocations at the expense of the locals (Cloete, 2016).

2.7.2 Ancestral land rights

On the issue of ancestral land rights, the Conference resolved that 'given the complexities in redressing ancestral land claims, restitution of such claims in full is impossible' because during the colonial period there have been large population movements and mixing, therefore, claims of different communities will inevitably overlap (Office of the Prime Minister, 1991). This means no Namibian, even those communities (Herero and Nama) whose land was confiscated during colonial and apartheid administrations, can claim restitution to their ancestral land. Werner and Kruger (2007) are of the view that this resolution provided political legitimacy to widen the definition of land redistribution beneficiaries beyond those communities that were physically dispossessed of their land (Werner & Kruger, 2007).

However, decades after keeping this resolution, some communities started to raise their voices and urging other communities to stand up and join the call for ancestral land claims. In November 2016, the then Deputy Minister of Land Reform, Benardus Swartbooi, urged the Ova Herero, Nama and Damara communities to stand up and fight for the land from which their ancestors were brutally uprooted and resettled on less fertile land by colonial powers. Swartbooi, further laments that the Ova-Herero, Nama and Damara communities endured mass evictions and exterminations of their ancestors at the hands of marauding German imperial forces (Tjitemisa, 2016).

According to Swartbooi, the current poverty terrorising the Nama, Ova-Herero and Damara communities is in large part due to the land – a critical means of production that these communities were robbed of. Poverty would be significantly reduced among these communities if they get their [ancestral] land back (Tjitemisa, 2016).

The South West Africa National Union (SWANU) party President, Usutuaije Maamberua (2016) while intensifying the call for the second land conference also emphasised that land lost during colonial regimes should be returned to the rightful owners so that dignity and rights of people can be restored. He reiterated that core issues of ancestral land, restitution, resettlement land, landholding system, sacred land (The Namibian Newspaper, 2016), should be put on the agenda for a national debate as part of land reform programme.

2.7.3 Foreign-owned farms

On the issue of foreign-owned farms in Namibia, the Conference resolved that [in future] foreigners should not be allowed to own farmland but should be given the right to use and develop it on a leasehold basis (Office of the Prime Minister, 1991, p.24). The Conference did not make it clear whether current foreigners who own massive farmland would be affected by this resolution. The silence of this resolution on the current foreigners owning land in Namibia could basically mean protection of foreign investment because Namibia adopted an 'open door' policy towards foreign investment.

2.7.4 Absentee landlords

Furthermore, on the issue of absentee landlords, the Conference resolved that land owned by absentee landlords should be expropriated, by distinguishing between foreign owners and Namibian owners who do not live on their farms (Office of the Prime Minister, 1991, p. 25). However, since the announcement of the expropriation process in 2004, the Ministry of Land Reform managed to expropriate only five (5) farms measuring a total of 24,451 hectares (MLR, 2009).

The process of expropriation was legally challenged by farm owners which led to the Ministry suffering a defeat in court during the Kessl legal case. The expropriation process was halted because the Ministry of Land Reform's administration of the expropriation process violated Namibian law on several grounds. The court criticised the Ministry for mismanaging the process and thereby leaving the land reform programme in a state of disarray (Harring & Odendaal, 2008).

2.7.5 Farm Size and Number

On the issue of farm size and number of farms to be privately owned by individual, the Conference resolved that very large farms and ownership of several farms by one owner should not be permitted and such land should be expropriated (Office of the Prime Minister, 1991, p. 25). This resolution was complicated by the absence of a clear meaning of what constitutes a 'large' economic farming unit in the commercial agricultural areas. However, the Legal Assistance Center (2005) reported that there were approximately 10 900 title deed portions outside municipal areas, but for the purpose of extensive agriculture, as practised under Namibian climatic conditions, only those exceeding 3 000 ha were considered as economically viable farms. There were 6 010 of these title deed farms of more than 3 000 ha each, with a total surface area of 424 700 km² (the 4 890 remaining title deeds were plots and small farms, representing approximately 44 400 km² or 6.4% of the land normally referred to as 'agricultural land' (Legal Assistance Center (2005, p.7).

At the time of conducting this study, the Government of the Republic of Namibia had not put in place a policy to limit the number of farms a person should have /own in Namibia. This could be attributed to the prevailing free-market economy in which the programme of land reform is being implemented whereby those who are rich can continue to accumulate wealth (land) while the poor continue to be landless and poor.

This situation has led to some indigenous farmers in the southern regions of the country invading and occupying government farms with their livestock. A group of Aroab Small Farmers' Union who failed to get resettled after 20 years of waiting and applying could not continue to farm with cattle on a 1,700 hectare camp which belonged to Aroab Village Council, they wanted to be resettled at Dickbusch farm measuring about 8,400 hectares (Hamutenya, 2016). Landlessness is a reality that indigenous farmers face today as a direct result of colonialism when land in the area was largely fenced off by white farmers and thus leaving indigenous farmers in landless situation (Hamutenya, 2016, p. 3).

2.7.6 Farm Workers' Situation

On the issue of farm workers and their conditions of service, the Conference condemned the injustices on farm workers by some farmers in both commercial and communal areas. Amongst others, the Conference resolved that the government should enact legislation to protect farm workers from the occupational hazards of their work and extend the Workman's Compensation Act to include farm workers (Office of the Prime Minister, 1991, pp. 26-27).

This resolution was based on the understanding that many farm workers, especially those employed by whites on commercial farms, suffered and continue to suffer degrading and deplorable conditions of poverty, landlessness and repression, despite their hard work that contributes to the economic prosperity of the white commercial farmers (NEPRU, 1991).

In line with this resolution, and following a dispute between the farm owners and the workers, the Government expropriated Ongombo West Farm, measuring 4007 hectares, in 2005 and apportioned it to a group of landless Namibians (Nakale, 2018). However, the farm which thrived under the white owners by exporting fresh flowers to international markets has become a white elephant as the fertile land lies idle. The farm lacks farming infrastructure as vandalism and lack of care became a regular occurrence under the watchful eye of the families resettled on it (Nakale, 2018).

2.8 Policies and legislations to address landlessness in Namibia

Access to and ownership of land was among the most important concerns of the Namibian people in their struggle for independence. The long-standing grievances about injustice and inequalities of colonial land distribution needed to be addressed without delay. Hence, following the 1991 historic National Land Conference, the Namibian government deemed it fit to develop policies and legislations to address the colonial injustices and inequalities in land ownership and access to productive assets.

Given the prevailing political and socio-economic circumstances by then the SWAPO-led government committed itself to address the land reform and the land question in a spirit of national reconciliation in order to maintain peace and stability and promote sustainable economic development. To ensure that land reform and redistribution process takes place, the following policies and legislations were developed to guide implementation of the programme:

2.8.1 The National Land Policy of 1998

The National Land Policy (NLP) of 1998 describes the target group for land reform as 'the landless poor,' meaning those with little or insufficient access to land who are not in formal employment or engaged in non-agricultural business activities. The philosophy guiding the NLP is "to redress, in the spirit of national reconciliation and nation-building, the problem of land dispossession, discrimination, and inequitable distribution of land that characterized the pre-independence era" (MLR, 1998, p. iii).

The National Land Policy of 1998 "is based upon the principle enunciated in the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia and on the national commitment to redress the social and economic injustices inherited from the colonial past" (MLR, 1998, p. 1) The other principle of the NLP is "to secure and promote the interests of the poor, ensuring that they are practically able to enjoy the rights and equal access to land and security of tenure" (MLR, 1998, p. 1). The policy further stipulates that "the poor", as target group for resettlement refers to "the landless or those Namibians with little or no access to land, and are not in formal employment or engaged in non-agricultural economic activities" (Ministry of Lands and Resettlement, 1998, p. 1). The National Land Policy was undergoing a review at the time of this study; however, the review process was put on hold to accommodate inputs that may emanate from the Second National Land Conference that was scheduled for October 2018.

2.8.2 The National Resettlement Policy

The National Resettlement Policy (NRP) of 2001 divides the landless into three categories based on economic status as follows:

> People who have neither land, income nor livestock (triple zero category);
>
> People who have neither land nor income, but few livestock (double zero category; and
>
> People who have no land but have income or are livestock owners but need land to be resettled on with their families and to graze their livestock (single zero category) (MLRR, 2001, p. 3).

This description and categorisation of landless and landlessness are too broad and may create a challenge in distributing land because it includes almost everybody as long as a person is a Namibian without a clearly defined target group. Among others, the objectives of resettlement as outlined in the National Resettlement Policy of 2001 are:

> To address past imbalances in the distribution of natural resources, particularly land;
>
> To give an opportunity to the target group [the landless] to produce their own food with a view towards self-sufficiency;
>
> To enhance the welfare of the people through improvement of productivity;
>
> To develop destination areas where they are supposed to earn a decent living;
>
> To bring small-holder farmers into the mainstream of the Namibian economy by producing for the market and contribute to the country's gross domestic product (GDP); and

To alleviate or reduce human and livestock pressure in communal areas (MLRR, 2001, p. 3).

The resettlement philosophy does not simply mean providing people with land, housing, infrastructure, knowledge and skills to maintain and develop their new environment and entitlements. Instead, resettlement also means establishing an innovative attitude, in which the spirit of self-reliance is the underlying principle on which development is to be anchored by the government and the people themselves.

Resettlement, according to the Ministry of Land Reform (2001), is the physical movement of people from an area with insufficient resources to an area which is more likely to support a satisfactory standard of living. Resettlement is a voluntary exercise whereby people in need of land make an application and choose the preferred area for their resettlement, mostly in commercial agricultural regions of the country.

For resettlement to be successful and achieve the intended objectives, it is imperative that most suitable land for farming must be obtained through purchase from the landowners by government. Therefore, it is necessary that 'good' agricultural land with other supporting resources become the most important and decisive factor in achieving a sustainable and productive resettlement programme.

However, one of the challenges in the resettlement programme is the uncertainty of the number of landless people in the country who should be targeted as genuine beneficiaries of the land redistribution and resettlement programme. The estimated number of 243,000 (MLR, 2001, p.2) as landless Namibians in need of resettlement is not statistically verifiable because it was an estimation based on those Namibians who came from exile close to 1989 as Namibia was nearing independence. The Namibians who were inside the country during years of struggle might not have been included in that number. In 1991 the Namibian population was at 1.4 million (NPC, 2006); that means about 17.4% of the population at that time were landless and needed resettlement. Since independence most of those from exile have economically and socially benefited through other government reform initiatives and programmes.

It’s a fact that the Namibian population has been increasing over the years (from 1.8 shortly after independence to 2.2 million in 2014) (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2016) and so one may argue that the number of people in need of land for resettlement has accordingly increased. Given this assumption, it is of cardinal importance that the Ministry employs significant resources (human and financial) to establish the extent of land demand countrywide in order to try to match the unknown demand to the known and available land supply in terms of the hectares targeted for acquisition. The latter is assumed to be critical to an effective agricultural land reform process and also as a pre-requisite to the implementation of land expropriation process.

Gathering facts on the actual land demand would also help to bring an understanding of the fact that agricultural commercial land is limited and that the remainder 2.4 million hectares yet to be acquired may not be enough to meet the needs of all those still hoping to benefit from the resettlement programme. If time and resources were devoted on exploring other mechanism to address the poverty situation of the landless poor people outside the realm of the National Resettlement Programme, the better. It should be noted that the success of any land reform programme, by and large depends very much to the extent to which people’s patience and expectations can be managed by the government.

However, if the figure is correct, then it is reasonable to argue that agricultural farmland has to be sub-divided into reasonably smaller but economically viable farming units and redistributed to the landless black Namibians. This approach of commercial land fragmentation is assumed as a strategy to achieve maximum fair access and equitable distribution of commercial agricultural land to the landless Namibians.

2.8.3 The Agricultural Commercial Land Reform Act

The Agricultural Commercial Land Reform Act (ACLRA), No.6 of 1995, and the Communal Land Reform Act of 2002 (CLRA), No.5 of 2002 serve as the legal basis upon which the redistributive and land tenure reform programmes are to be implemented under the custodianship of the Ministry of Land Reform. The ACLRA of 1995 with its amendments, among other provisions, stipulates the following:

- The State has a preferential right to purchase [or not to purchase] any commercial farmland offered for sale;
- Prescribes the manner in which commercial farmland has to be planned and allocated;
- Provides for the subdivision of large commercial farms into small-scale farming units and survey of such farming units for redistribution purposes;
- Restricts the acquisition of commercial farmland by foreigners; and
- Provides for a market-related compensation for any expropriated commercial farmland.

Since independence in 1990, the largest consolidated quantities of commercial agricultural land in Namibia are either in the hands of non-indigenous Namibians or corporations that are foreign-owned. This is perceived as a perpetuation of landlessness and inequality for some individuals to own land in the thousands of hectares while the majority are squatters (The Point, 2000).

2.8.4 The Namibian Constitution

The Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, under Article 16 (1), states that:

> All persons shall have the right in any part of Namibia to acquire, own and dispose of all forms of immovable and movable property individually or in association with others and to bequeath their property to their heirs or legatees; provided that Parliament may by legislation prohibit or regulate as it deems expedient the right to acquire property by persons who are not Namibian citizens (GRN, 1989, p.13).

Article 16 (1) of the Constitution is based on the principle of the free market economy where individuals who have means to acquire as much land as they can afford can do so without restrictions, and the rights to private property are also protected. The Constitution is silent on the issue of farm size or limits above which no individual may own agricultural commercial land. Furthermore, Article 16 (2) of the Namibian Constitution makes provision for expropriation of property but such expropriation should be done in the public interest and subject to the payment of just compensation (GRN, 1989, p.13).

The other complication for Namibia's land reform programme is that there is no properly defined and agreed-upon definition of an 'economic farming unit' which could be used as a yardstick to determine the land ownership ceiling in a given agro-ecological zone. The National Land Policy of 1998 states that freehold land in excess of two economic units may be compulsorily acquired by the Minister for redistribution (Ministry of Lands and Resettlement, 1998). Thus, the concept of economic farming unit remains ambiguous and unqualified and this has created a loophole for those who are economically well-off to own more agricultural land in Namibia at the expense of the poor and socio-economically marginalised citizens.

Colonialism contributed to the prevailing problem of landlessness because it involved appropriation of significant quantities of land that was never returned by the new government upon independence to the original owners or those who suffered dispossession. On the contrary, restitution of land rights abrogated by the colonial and apartheid South Africa prior to independence did not form part of Namibia's Land Policy (Ministry of Lands and Resettlement, 1998).

Due to the social fact of differences on the quantity of land owned, the proponents of equity are of the view that there should be a policy explicitly setting a limit to the size of agricultural land that an individual may own or use in Namibia. The assumption is that if land ceilings were set, through land reform and redistribution programme, the land would fall into the hands of those who wish to use it productively and perhaps solve the abiding problem of food insecurity and poverty.

While the debate on land reform seems to have identified appropriation of land from foreigners with large tracts of under-utilised agricultural land as a solution, there is no clear consensus on what the goals of land redistribution should be (The Point, 2000). The aims and objectives of embarking on a land reform should either be political, social or economic, depending on the prevailing political and socio-economic circumstances in a particular country. Land reform is a political project that needs to clarify its economic rationale. The land reform policy has not envisaged what kinds of production are to be promoted through the process of reform, and, therefore, what kind of structural changes in production, markets and settlement patterns are being pursued, alongside the de-racialisation of land ownership (Hall, 2000).

2.9 Key Strategies to Manage Landlessness in Namibia

The Agricultural Commercial Land Reform Act, (ACLRA) No. 6 of 1995 provides for the acquisition of agricultural land by the State for purposes of land reform and for the allocation of such land to Namibian citizens who do not own or otherwise have the use of any or of adequate agricultural land. The Act seems to give special attention to those Namibians who have been socially disadvantaged by the past discriminatory laws or practices of colonialism and apartheid. During the implementation period, the ACLRA went through several amendments such as; to provide for the establishment of the Land Acquisition and Development Fund (LADF), for the imposition and collection of land tax on commercial farms, and closing some loopholes that seemed to hinder smooth implementation of the land reform and resettlement programme. The ACLRA makes provision for two approaches of acquiring agricultural land for redistribution to the landless purposes, namely; the willing seller, willing buyer and expropriation.

2.9.1 Willing-Seller and Willing-Buyer (WSWB) principle

As stipulated in the Agricultural Commercial Land Reform Act, No.6 of 1995, the State has the preferential right of first refusal [or acceptance] for any commercial farmland offered by a willing seller. As stated in the Act, “to vest in the State preferential right to purchase agricultural land for the purpose of the Act and to regulate the acquisition of land by foreign nationals” (GRN, 1995, p.1-2). This means that every farmland that is sold must first be offered to the MLR, the representative of the State, to exercise its preferential right to buy or not to buy such land.

The government of Namibia, in line with the principle of free and open market-driven economic system, opted for the willing-seller, willing-buyer (WSWB) principle as the approach for acquiring agricultural land for redistribution. Through the willing seller, willing buyer approach, commercial agricultural land is acquired from white commercial farmers and such land is redistributed to those who indicate willingness to be resettled through application system. The system of applying for resettlement allows self-selection of landless Namibians who voluntarily desire to be resettled on commercial farms.

Critics of the willing-seller, willing-buyer (WSWB) principle and the preferential right of the State argue that this mechanism seem to have created a monopoly buyer, the State, and this has discouraged land owners to offer more good farms in the market (Ndala, 2009). Willing seller, willing buyer has been criticised by many for being slow, inefficient and expensive and allowing white farm owners to dictate by deciding when to make an offer and the type of land to offer. The willing-seller, willing-buyer principle has made the State (the buyer) more passive because the willing buyer has to wait for the willing seller to make land available in the market. This situation has further made resettlement farms being bought all over the country without a pre-determined and properly planned resettlement scheme.

For the past years since the first National Land Conference of 1991, land reform discourse has been dominated by the inability of the willing seller and willing buyer approach to effectively transfer agricultural land from the minority white farmers to the majority landless Namibians.

It has been argued that much more land was available for purchase than the Government could buy. The Institute for Public Policy Research (IPPR), an independent research organisation in Namibia, has pointed out that the slow process of land reform should be attributed to “leaden-footed bureaucracy rather than commercial farmers dragging their heels”.

The IPPR found, for example, that 142 farms were offered for sale to the Government in 1999, but only 4 were purchased, while in 2000 only 15 of 125 farms offered were purchased for resettlement purposes. “Thus it appears that the Ministry of Lands and Resettlement has been under- rather than overspending its budget for purchasing farms. It is also possible that most farms that the MLR waivered have been made available for emerging black farmers to buy under the Affirmative Action Loan Scheme (AALS), hence by the beginning of 2005, approximately 612 farms had been bought by emerging black commercial farmers through the AALS (De Villiers, 2003, p.38).

The other perception is that the focus of the land redistribution programme has been on land acquisition and redistribution to black Namibians and not much emphasis was put on the productivity or economics of the transferred agricultural land.

While many seem to criticise the *WS-WB* mode of land acquisition, terming it as either too slow; that it results in poor quality of land being offered; that land is not forthcoming in good areas; further, that it makes the buyer more reactive and docile in terms of its inability to allow for targeted acquisition of desired quantities and qualities of land etc., results in the books of the Ministry of Land Reform seem to depict a different picture. Since the inception of the implementation of the ACLRA of 1995, millions of hectares of agricultural (commercial) land have been offered to government for acquisition and of which very little have been acquired.

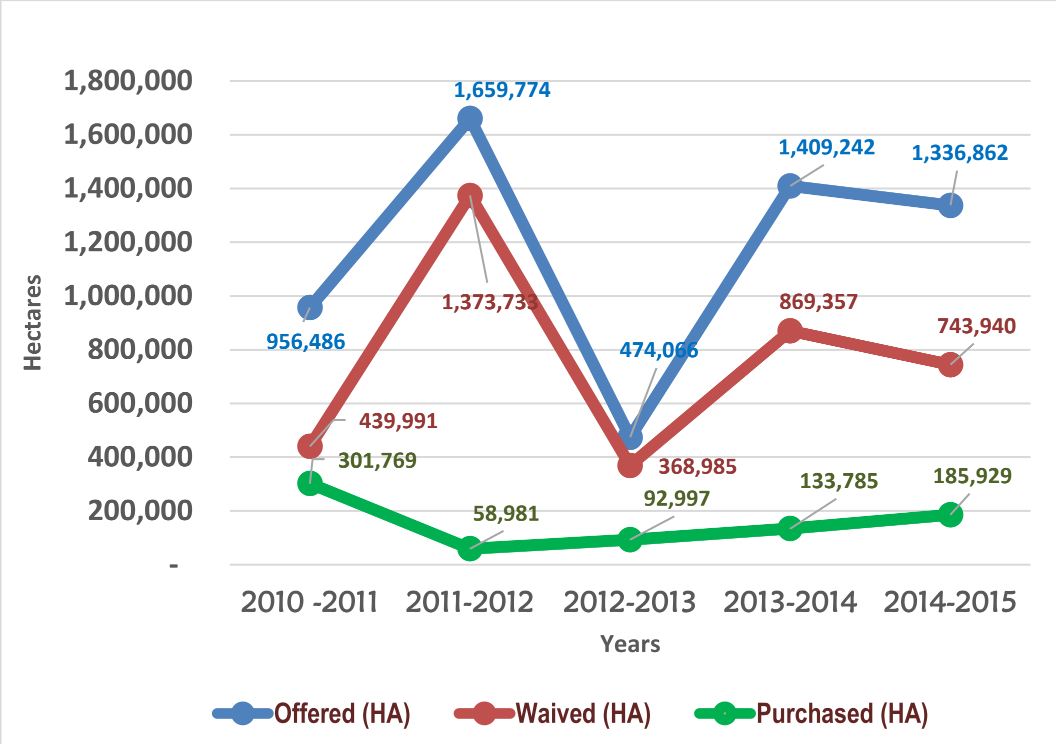

Figure 2.9: Number of farm offers, waivers and purchases from 2010 - 2015
Source: Statistics from Annual Reports of the Ministry of Land Reform, 2010 – 2015.

Figure 2.9 shows that between the 2010/11 and 2014/15 financial years, a total of 5.8 million hectares of land have been offered to the Government through the willing seller willing buyer principle in accordance with Section 17(4) of the ACLRA of 1995. This is more than the 5 million hectares of land targeted to be acquired under the National Resettlement Programme (NRP) by 2020. Therefore, it is worth noting that from 5.8 million ha, about 3.8 million (65%) hectares have been waived either because, the land was found not suitable for resettlement or waived in favour of previously disadvantaged buyers (Affirmative Action (AA) buyers). Further, 773 thousand hectares or 13% of the total hectares offered to the State over a period of five years have been acquired for resettlement, while the remainder 1.3 million hectares (22%) represents offers withdrawn and/or pending purchases.

Given these statistics as factual evidence of the performance of the WS-WB mode, one question as to whether the notion that, land thorough this method is not forthcoming has any justification, let alone the perception that the WS-WB mode of acquisition is too slow? This study concludes that WS-WB principle has offered more than enough commercial agricultural land for purchase to the State for land reform but most of it was not acquired.

A further question should thus be asked: what are people using as the measure to cast the conclusion that the WS-WB is not working, especially given the absence of a proper and consistent monitoring and evaluation mechanism for the land acquisition and redistribution programme? Given the above reflection, one may conclude that the latter notion or perceptions cannot be justified and that informed answers may stem from further discourse of the issues raised in this study, as well as from the detailed analysis of available data on the land reform and redistribution programme. The lesson that may be drawn from the above highlighted statistics is that there is a need to base arguments on facts and seek to introduce changes to current strategies based on quantitative evidence of the outcomes of the programme.

2.9.2 Land Redistribution through Expropriation

The aim of land redistribution in Namibia is about redistributing land ownership from large private landowners to small peasant farmers and landless agricultural workers, with great emphasis on 'redistribution' of wealth. This process is inherently dialectical in nature because it involves differing opinions from groups that are involved. Borras (2005), conjectures that to be truly redistributive, a land reform must effect on a pre-existing agrarian structure a change in ownership of and/or control over land resources, wherein such a change flows strictly from the rich landlords to the poor landless peasants (Borras, 2005). In the case of Namibia, land redistribution means distributing agricultural land for the third time after two successive periods of colonization.

Borras (2005) further points out that redistributive land reform is inherently a matter of degree, it is seldom either 100 percent redistributive or 100 percent non-redistributive. There are two interrelated elements that define the redistributive character of land reform policy, namely; the compensation to landlords and the payment by peasants (Borras, 2005).

According to Borras (2005), compensation to the landlord can be between zero and somewhere below the market price of the land. The difference between the market price and the actual compensation partly defines the degree of redistribution. As a consequence, payment by peasants for the land can be between zero and somewhere below the acquisition cost; the difference between the peasant's actual payment and the acquisition cost also defines the degree of redistribution.

Furthermore, Borras (2005), argues that a land reform programme that confiscates lands without compensation to landlords and distributes such lands to landless peasants for free constitutes redistributive reform. Similarly, a land reform that expropriates lands with compensation to landlords at below market price and distributes such lands to landless peasants at reduced or subsidised cost is also redistributive. Hence, Borras (2005) maintains that the degree of redistributive reform is higher in the former than in the latter.

Taking the two approaches into consideration, the Namibian land reform could be classified as non-redistributive because Government pays a market related price through willing-seller, willing-buyer principle, and a compensation which is regarded as fair to the landlord in case of land expropriation. However, the landless beneficiaries in the Namibian land redistribution programme do not pay anything for the land but enter into a 99 years lease arrangement with the State, represented by the Minister of Land Reform. In comparison to Namibia's land reform, the first phase of land reform in the Philippines benefited about 0.5 million households compared to only about "5400 families" (beneficiaries) (MLR, 2018, p. 4) of Namibia's land reform.

Aided by the availability of green revolution technology, this measure led to significant improvements in household welfare in the Philippines. The agrarian structure in the Philippines was transformed in a time of less than 10 years while Namibia has not done so in more than 20 years of land reform programme.

The Agricultural Commercial Land Reform (ACLR) Act of 1995 gives the power to the Minister of Lands to expropriate agricultural land in the public interest for resettlement purposes. The Act states that the Minister may, after consulting the Land Reform Advisory Commission (LRAC), and in case where a landowner is not willing to sell his/her land, expropriate such land subject to payment of compensation in accordance with the provisions of the Act. The Act further stipulates that the process of expropriation of commercial agricultural land should be carried within the legal framework whereby a landowner whose land is being expropriated is paid a fair compensation.

This kind of land expropriation means a landowner, though not willing to sell his/her land may still be paid a market-related price or even more compensation for the expropriated farmland. However, proponents of land expropriation are of the view that the only fastest approach to acquire commercial agricultural land is by invoking the expropriation provision of the CALRA of 1995. Proponents of expropriation continue to argue that land was taken by force from the indigenous Namibians and they were not compensated, therefore, the same land should be returned back through expropriation without compensation.

In March 2004, the Ministry of Lands and Resettlement then announced that expropriation of commercial agricultural land was to begin; that the Ministry had put all the necessary mechanism in place to expedite expropriation in earnest. The landless communities anticipated that expropriation would speed up the land acquisition and redistribution process because the WSWB had been regarded as too slow and inefficient to deliver land to the landless Namibians.

Table 2. 7: Number and Size of Farms Expropriated in 2006

Region	Farm Name	Size (Ha)	Compensation Paid (N$)	% of Total Compensation	Av. Cost/Ha
Omaheke	Kansas	4,972	1,517,401	12%	305
Omaheke	Wyoming	5,038	1,684,223	13%	334
Omaheke	Groot Ruigte	5,919	1,737,915	13%	294
Otjozondjupa	Marburg	5,112	2,968,910	23%	581
Otjozondjupa	Okorusu	3,410	5,049,148	39%	1,481
Total		**24,451**	**12,957,597**	**100%**	**530**

Source: Statistics obtained from the Ministry of Land Reform reports

Table 2.7 shows that since the announcement of expropriation of farms in 2004 the Ministry had expropriated five (5) farms in 2006, measuring 24,451 hectares in total. Three out of the five farms are located in the Omaheke Region, while two are located in the Otjozondjupa Region. This shows that 65 percent of the expropriated farmland is in the Omaheke Region and 35 percent is in the Otjozondjupa Region.

Although these farms were expropriated the Ministry had to pay a market-related compensation totaling N$12,957,597 million to the landowners. Compensation amount of N$1,481 per hectare paid for Farm Okurusu is four times more than the amount paid for other farms. The question that remains to be answered is whether the compensation amount that was paid for these farms is below or above the market price.

From this analysis one may assume that expropriation of land with compensation paid to landlords at market price might be expensive compared to buying land through the willing seller, willing buyer approach.

The Ministry further reported that seven other farms that were earmarked for expropriation could not be expropriated because the landowners took the Ministry of Land Reform and Resettlement to court and challenged the manner in which their farms were identified as suitable for resettlement and thus legible for expropriation. Therefore, expropriation was said to be in the 'intensive care unit' (ICU) since the Ministry suffered legal defeat in court from the land owners during the famous Kessler Case (Imbuwa, 2009). This legal challenge by landowners led to the halting of the expropriation process.

Harring and Odendaal (2008) explain that expropriation was suspended because the Ministry of Lands and Resettlement's administration of the expropriation process violated other Namibian laws on several grounds (Harring & Odendaal, 2008). The court, in the process of giving judgement, criticised the Ministry for mismanaging the expropriation process and thereby leaving the land reform programme in a state of disarray (Harring & Odendaal, 2008).

2.10 Resettlement Schemes for Economic Empowerment

According to the Permanent Technical Team (2005), a multifaceted approach to land reform programme by the colonial German and apartheid South Africa put more emphasis on widening access to land and provision of post-settlement support to be of fundamental importance in achieving the policy objectives of poverty reduction, self-reliance and food security (PTT, 2005).

The Permanent Technical Team (2005), notes that given the geopolitical context of the colonial times, the programme of land distribution and settlement were racially based with the primary aim of making economic room for new white settlers by forcefully dispossessing indigenous Africans of their land. The Permanent Technical Team (2005) further reveals that the Angola Boers Settlement and the Odendaal Relocation Plan were carried out during the colonial period as settlement schemes to economically empower the white settlers. The Permanent Technical Team (2005), argues that this phenomenon created a skewed pattern of land ownership leading to a high level of landlessness and poverty among the indigenous Namibians while white settlers became rich owners of large tracks of agricultural land. It is, therefore, prudent that the post-independence land reform in Namibia is aimed at redistributing land with the aim of economically empowering the landless, reduce poverty and inequalities (PTT, 2005), (GRN, 1999).

Two main types of land redistribution schemes, namely; the National Resettlement Programme and, the Affirmative Action Loan Scheme, were introduced and concurrently implemented as strategies to address landlessness (GRN, 1999.

2.10.1 The National Resettlement Scheme (NRS)

Oxford University (2006), defines resettlement, as the process of moving people from one place to a different place to live, because they are no longer allowed to stay in the area where they used to live. This movement of people may be prompted by circumstances beyond their control. For example, the transfer of refugees from an asylum country to another state or country that has agreed to admit them and ultimately grant them permanent settlement. (Oxford University, 2006)

In the context of the National Resettlement Scheme administered by the Ministry of Land Reform, resettlement is a movement of people from an area with insufficient resources to an area which is more likely to provide a satisfactory standard of living (MLRR, 2001). Resettlement is a voluntary programme for which people apply and choose the preferred area for their resettlement, which can be either in communal or commercial agricultural area. To be able to resettle the landless people, land which is suitable for farming or other economic activities becomes a necessity.

Availability of suitable agricultural land becomes the critical factor in the resettlement process. Resettlement programmes should promote economic development through the development of the allotments and the improvement in living standards of the beneficiaries (MLR, 2010). The National Resettlement Scheme comprises three main types, namely; the Individual Holding (IH), the Group Holding (GH), and the Co-operative Holding (CH). An individual holding is where a unit or portion of a farm is allocated to an individual or one family in line with the minimum size of a commercial or subsistence viable unit in a given agro-ecological zone.

A group holding is when a farm is allocated to a formal or informal group consisting of more than one person who cannot form a co-operative but are interested to indulge in agricultural or related socio-economic activities as a group (MLRR, 2001). This type of resettlement is also referred to as project farms that were established immediately after independence to resettle a large number of landless Namibians, mostly from the San community and former farm workers who were left desperately landless by the apartheid South African regime. Groups of San people needed urgent and special attention in terms of resettlement (land) because they were left without any means of economic and social support when the apartheid South African army withdrew its military forces from Namibia.

Given the urgency to make land available to these vulnerable landless groups, the group resettlements were generally not properly planned. In some cases, large communities of more than 1000 people were resettled on farms that were not big enough to accommodate future demographic changes and land needs. By 1995 there were about 40 Group Resettlement Projects countrywide in commercial and communal areas.

The Co-operative Holdings is a resettlement type whereby a farm is allocated to a legal entity or formal groups in line with the provisions of the Close Co-operative Act and the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act of 1995.

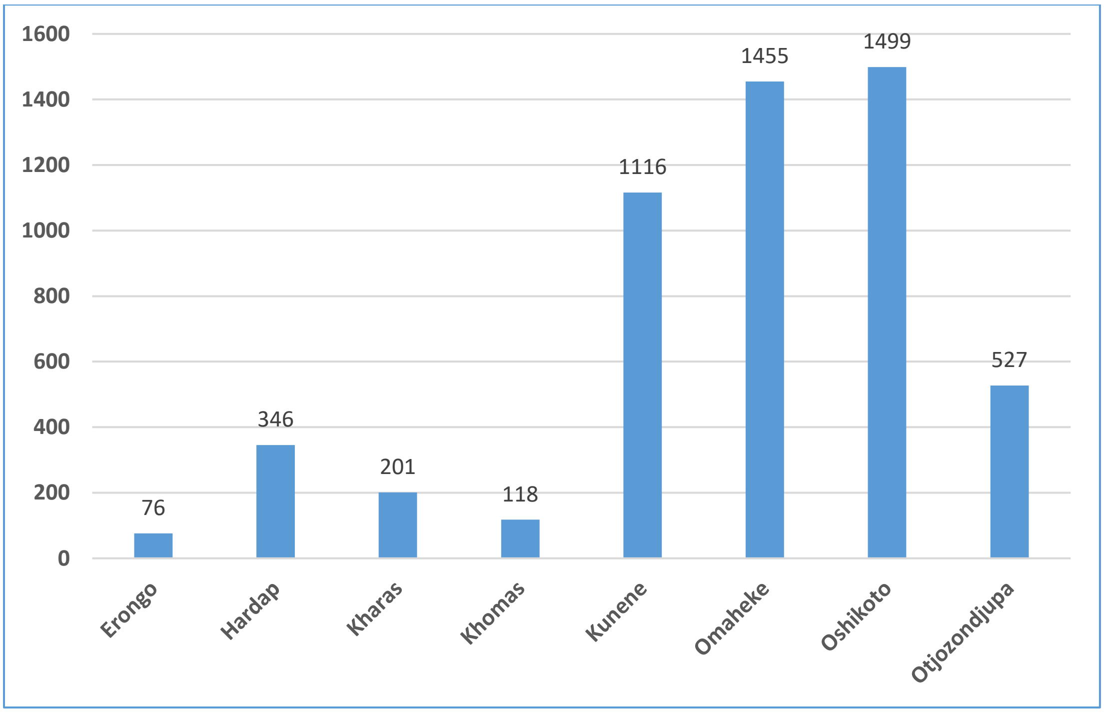

Figure 2. 10 Number of people resettled in eight regions of Namibia, 1990 - 2018
Source: Ministry of Land Reform Reports, 1990 – 2018

Figure 2.10 shows that since the inception of the resettlement programme, a total number of 5338 beneficiaries have been resettled on commercial agricultural land in the eight regions. Most beneficiaries are resettled in Oshikoto (1499) followed by

Omaheke (1455) and Kunene comes third with 1116 beneficiaries. The three regions with the most resettled beneficiaries (Oshikoto, Omaheke and Kunene) include San communities that were resettled immediately after independence as group projects on commercial farms. The region with the least resettled beneficiaries is Erongo with 76. The number of beneficiaries consists of 2,119 males and 1,464 females. The records could not specify the gender class of the 1755 beneficiaries. The total of 5338 beneficiaries is inclusive of the Individual, the Group and the Co-operative Holdings of resettlement types. Since 1990 a total of 549 freehold farms measuring 3.2 million hectares have been acquired through the willing-seller-willing-buyer and expropriation principles by the Ministry of Land Reform (MLR) at a cost of N$ 1.8 billion (MLR, 2018).

2.10.2 The Affirmative Action Loan Scheme (AALS)

The Affirmative Action Loan Scheme is a State-subsidised, market-assisted land redistribution scheme. Through the AALS the previously disadvantaged black Namibians may acquire agricultural land on a free-hold basis with financial support of a State-subsidised loan. The Scheme is administered and managed by the Agricultural bank of Namibia (Agribank) as a State-owned enterprise (SOE). The mission of Agribank is to promote socio-economic development through affordable and innovative agricultural financing solutions (AGRIBANK , 2017).

The main objective of establishing the AALS is to advance financial resources to the previously disadvantaged Namibians and enable them to acquire commercial agricultural land in the freehold areas. This strategy was seen to encourage communal farmers with large livestock to move to commercial farms in order to relieve grazing pressure on overcrowded communal areas. It is an empowerment tool for black

Namibians to become fully fledged commercial farmers who may contribute to food security and gross domestic products (GDP) of the country.

Since AgriBank establishment shortly after Namibia's independence, it has funded a total of 1000 previously disadvantaged Namibians through both AALS and commercial loans. In the process Agribank disbursed N$1.4 billion to purchase 6 million hectares of commercial land, thereby already contributing 40 percent towards the national goal of acquiring and redistributing 15 million hectares of commercial land by 2020 (AGRIBANK, 2016). Furthermore, the Bank, in close collaboration with the Ministry of Land Reform, the Ministry of Agriculture Water and Forestry, the Namibia Agronomic Board, and the Rangeland Management & Livestock Production Forums, identified training of farmers as a critical factor in imparting farming skills that are necessary to increase productivity and ensure national food self-sufficiency and job creation. During the financial year 2016/17, the Farmers' Support Project (FSP) reached 3286 farmers through mentorship and 1544 farmers through training (AGRIBANK, 2016).

Agribank (2016), reports that the Affirmative Action Loan Scheme (AALS) is a more favourable scheme for land acquisition and redistribution dominating the land market, because commercial agricultural land owners (the willing sellers) seem to prefer selling their land to AALS buyers rather than to the Government for two reasons: flexibility and freedom in negotiating the price of land, and the speed of payment once the deal is concluded. Agribank (2016), argues that the transactions are faster and less costly under the AALS compared to the more bureaucratic process when selling to the Government through the Ministry of Land Reform.

However, the PTT (2005) observed that AALS buyers, on the other hand, end up paying higher prices for commercial agricultural land, due to the fact that loans are subsidised by government leading to increased demand for land by landless Namibians, and this high demand for land creates pressure on land owners to inflate land prices. PTT (2005) argues that the topping-up of the loans with the State guarantee induces higher land prices because loans are always linked to the asking price and not to the actual valuation (PTT, 2005). Ultimately, the AALS buyers end up with loans that are not easy to service; higher loans lead to higher debts. The PTT (2005), concludes that most AALS farmers start farming with small number of livestock far below the carrying capacity of the newly acquired farm and servicing a loan that has accrued interest after a grace period of some years becomes a huge financial challenge. Therefore, the AALS is not fully helping the landless poor to own commercial agricultural land and becoming economically empowered, instead, the Scheme is making beneficiaries become perpetual slaves of the Bank and deepening their landlessness (PTT, 2005).

2.10.3 Contextualising Landlessness in Namibia

The Ministry of Land Reform (2018), reports that by the end of 2017/18 financial year about 3.2 million hectares and 5,338 beneficiaries are recorded under the National Resettlement Programme (NRP). This translates into an average land allocation of 599 hectares per beneficiary (3.2 million ha / 5,338). If 5,338 is deducted from 240,000 people mentioned in the National Resettlement Policy (2001) who are in need of land for resettlement, the remaining 234, 662 thousand people are still in need of land. Given that 1.8 million ha of the 5 million hectares which is targeted for acquisition remains to be acquired, it would translate into allocations of about 8 hectares to each of the 234,662 beneficiaries yet to be allocated agricultural land (i.e. 1.8 million ha / 234,662).

However, considering the current mode of land allocation which requires the subdivision of acquired land into farming units of an average size of 2000 hectares per unit, it would mean that only about 900 of the 234,662 people can be resettled. This hard reality shows that the current approach of land acquisition and redistribution, if not reviewed, presents a serious constraint in terms of allowing the redistribution of land to a wider spectrum of beneficiaries.

The conclusion therefore, even if the Ministry of Land Reform was to acquire the estimated 33 million hectares of available agricultural land in Namibia, not all previously disadvantaged Namibians who are landless would economically benefit (i.e. 33 million Ha / 2000 Ha = 16,500 farming units or 33 million Ha / 240,000 beneficiaries = 138 Ha per beneficiary). This explanation paints the reality of the challenges that the government of Namibia is facing in the land reform and redistribution programme. This scenario indicates that there are more people in Namibia who are still landless, while land is not sufficient to satisfy such a high demand.

The above scenario challenges those responsible for planning and implementing the land acquisition and redistribution programme to think strategically. It brings to the fore the reality that, time is now, and that the Ministry of Land Reform should start to sensitise the public, particularly those eligible and landless who are still hopeful to benefit from resettlement, that they should seek for alternative economical means from other sectors in order to address their needs for an improved livelihood. If the situation is not properly taken into consideration, the perpetual existence and deepening of landlessness among the landless Namibians may be detrimental to political stability, peace and economic growth.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 outlines the research design, the research method, the population under study, the sampling procedures and sample size, and the method that was used to collect and analyze the data. The reliability and validity of the research instrument are addressed, as well as ethical considerations pertaining to the research. Research methodology refers to a range of associated issues and considerations a researcher has to make in order to inform the research activities. Such considerations include who is to be researched, where will the research take place, etc. (William & Buckler, 2011).

3.2 Research Design

Research design (Royer & Zarlowski, 2001), is the framework through which the various components of a research project are brought together. This includes the research question, literature review, data collection, data analysis and results. According to Grunow (1995), research design is a crucial element of any empirical research project, whatever the research question and the chosen methodological point of view.

Given the complexity and multidimensional nature of land and economic development, this study used a combination of research approaches, namely; the grounded theory approach, the case study approach, the historical approach and the phenomenological approach.

As stated by Royer and Zarlowski (2001), grounded theory involves the construction of an explanatory theory about landlessness and how it impacts economic development. Grounded theory uses case study as a method of investigation by conducting interviews and use of written materials and observation. Grounded theory makes a combination of qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis. The findings of the study needed to be quantifiable, reliable and able to examine cause-and-effect relationships; which would be attained when using a quantitative approach. This study used the phenomenological research design to understand landlessness as a phenomenon and how it affects economic development. These approaches are described in detail in Section 3.4.

3.3 Research Method

This study employed a combination of the quantitative and qualitative methods approach, commonly known as mixed methods research (MMR) or triangulation, by using interviews and questionnaires, and documentary analysis. Mixed methods is a research approach whereby researchers collect and analyze both quantitative and qualitative date within the same study (Shorten & Smith, 2017, pp. 74-75). Mixed methods research is a purposeful mixing of methods in data collection, data analysis and interpretation of the evidence.

The rationale for adopting a mixed methods approach in this study is in line with what Schutt (2017) states, that mixed methods are especially useful in understanding contradictions between quantitative results and qualitative findings. Mixed methods helps the researcher to triangulate the measurement strategy – use different measures of the same concept to provide a more robust overall measure; answering research questions that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods could answer alone . Mixed methods give a voice to study participants and ensure that study findings are grounded in participants' experiences (Schutt, 2017; Shorten & Smith, 2017). Despite evidence of the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods in the past, it was only in the late 1980s and early 1990s that Mixed Methods Research was recognised as a distinct and self-conscious strategy with attention been given to how to effectively combine the quantitative and qualitative approaches (Maxwell, 2015).

Campbell and Fiske (1959) also contributed to the evolution of MMR with their multitrait, multimethod matrix that recommended the use of several methods to measure each of several traits in order to strengthen the validity of research conclusions (SAGE Publications, 2018). Since then, many evaluators and researchers intuitively came to the conclusion that evaluations on complex social programmes could be enhanced by the use of multiple methods; hence the combination of both quantitative and qualitative data in the same study is nothing new (Mertens & Hesse-Biber, 2013), (as cited in SAGE, 2018, p. 3).

3.3.1 Quantitative or Positivist Method

William and Buckler (2011), assert that quantitative research methods involve counting and dealing with numbers or statistics. Quantitative research methods emphasise objective measurements and the statistical, mathematical, or numerical analysis of data collected through questionnaires, polls and surveys, or by manipulating pre-existing statistical data using computational techniques. Quantitative research methods collect data as information that can be measured and written down with numbers. There are four main types of quantitative research designs, namely; descriptive, correlation, quasi-experimental and experimental. This study used the descriptive and correlation designs to seek and establish a cause-effect relationship between landlessness and economic development variables.

3.3.1.1 Reliability and Validity

Measurement is the assigning of numbers to observations in order to quantify phenomena (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). In land reform, like in health care, many of the phenomena such as quality of life, landlessness, beneficiary adherence, peace and security, economic development, are abstract concepts known as theoretical constructs. Therefore, measurement involves the operationalisation of these constructs in defined variables and the development and application of instruments or tests to quantify these variables (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). Reliability refers to whether the data collection techniques and analytical procedures would reproduce consistent findings if they were repeated on another occasion or if they were replicated by another researcher. In other words, if the investigation had been carried out again by different researchers using the same methods, the same results would be obtained (Shipman, 1988).

Alternatively, validity, according to Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008) is often defined as the extent to which an instrument measures what it purports to measure. Validity requires that an instrument is reliable. Validity of a research instrument can be explained in three ways, namely; construct validity, internal validity and external validity. Construct validity is concerned with the extent to which research measures what it claims to measure. Internal validity is established when research demonstrates a causal relationship between two variables.

External validity or generalisability is concerned with whether a study's research findings can be generalised to other relevant settings or groups. The data was analyzed by using SPSS to compute the Cronbach alpha reliability of the variables in the questionnaire. As indicated earlier, the data presented here was collected from the seven (7) Constituencies that constitute the Omaheke Region.

D2 Reliability

Table 3.1 Cronbach's Alpha of Reliability

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
.577	8

Cronbach's coefficient alpha, as shown in Table 3.1, is a statistic used to test the reliability of items in a questionnaire. It shows the average of all possible split-halves and can be used for dichotomous and continuously scored variables. Cronbach's coefficient alpha is an estimate of reliability, especially internal consistency reliability; an indicator of consistency. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used in this study not as a measure of homogeneity but as a measure of internal consistency reliability of indicators or items.

The assumption behind reliability is that all items or indicators measure a single dimension, hence reliability assumes uni-dimensionality in the data. In this study, the various questions, or items were about assessing landlessness and its impact on economic development. Internal consistency reliability is relevant to composite scores (the sum or average of two or more scores in a test). Consistence and reliability in measurement is a good thing, especially in social sciences research of this nature.

According to Cortina, (1993) alpha estimates the degree of interrelatedness among a set of items and variance among the items, and a widely advocated level of adequacy for coefficient alpha is at least .70 (Cortina, 1993). The standardised Cronbach's alpha is usually expressed in a formula as follows:

Where: k = represents the number of indicators or items

$\bar{r}$ = represent the mean inter-indicator correlation

Therefore, $a = .92$

The composite score of the eight items is .92, which means 92 percent of the scores in those items is reliable variance. The degree of reliability and validity is very high (.92 scores) in the items computed under this section of the questionnaire.

For example: 0.73

From this example of a composite score of 0.73 means that 73 percent of the scores is reliable variance.

A Cronbach alpha scale ranges from .00 to 1.0 is used to determine reliability; where .00 means there is no consistence in measurement, while 1.0 means there is perfect consistence in measurement. It is generally assumed that a Cronbach alpha of .60 is acceptable but .70 and above are even better (Cronbach, 1951). A score of .73 in the example given above means that 73% of the variance in the scores is reliable variance, while 27% is error variance. Sekeran & Bougie (2011) contend that reliabilities which are less than .60 are poor (Sekaran & Bougie, 2011). However, Lance & Butts (2006), reasons that .70 is acceptable for exploratory research, and .80 is acceptable for basic research, while .90 and more is acceptable for applied research scenarios. (Lance & Butts, 2006).

3.3.1.2 Correlation Coefficient

A Correlation coefficient is a statistical measure that calculates the strength of the relationship between two variables. The Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (Pearson's *R*) is commonly used to measure the strength or degree of association between and among variables and tests for a linear relationship between two variables (Keller & Warrack, 2003). Correlation coefficient was used in this study to calculate and show how strong a relationship is between variables. The formulas return a value between -1 and 1, where; a result of 1 indicates a strong positive relationship; a result of -1 indicates a strong negative relationship; while a result of zero (0) indicates no relationship between variable at all (Heckard & Utts, 2007). Therefore, a correlations coefficient of 0.40 and above are considered to be significant and positively strong, while -0.40 and below is significant and negatively strong (Stephanie, 2018). The most commonly used formula or equation for Pearson's Correlation Coefficient, which was used in this study is as follows (Study .com, 2019):

Pearson **r**, where ***n*** represents the number of ordered pairs; ***Σ*** represents the sum of or summation; while ***x*** and ***y*** represent two variable or values.

Other formulas used for expressing Correlation Coefficient equation are the sample correlation coefficient and the population correlation coefficient, which are presented as follows:

Sample Correlation Coefficient**:**

Where ***Sx*** and ***Sy*** are the sample standard deviations, and ***Sxy*** is the sample covariance.

Population Correlation Coefficient:

Where ***σx*** and ***σy*** as the population standard deviation, and ***σxy*** as the population covariance (Stephanie, 2018).

3.3.2 Qualitative Method

According to Astalin (2013), qualitative research is a systematic scientific inquiry which seeks to build a holistic, largely narrative, description to inform the researcher's understanding of a social or cultural phenomenon. McMillan and Schumacher (1993, p. 479) define qualitative research as primarily an inductive process of organising data into categories and identifying patterns (relationships) among categories. This definition implies that data and meaning emerge organically from the research context.

In addition, Mason (2002) describes a qualitative research approach as having the following in common:

- Being grounded in an interpretative position i.e. they are concerned with how the phenomena of interest are interpreted, understood, experienced, produced or constituted.
- Based on research methods which are flexible and sensitive to social context.
- Based on analytic methods which take account of complexity, detail and context.
- Qualitative research is a broad term for investigative methodologies described as ethnographic, naturalistic, anthropological, field or participant observer research.

Furthermore, qualitative as a research method is useful in understanding the underlying reasons, opinions, and motivations that may determine the behaviour of individuals or groups of people. This method provides insights into the problem or helps to develop ideas or hypotheses for potential quantitative research. Qualitative research is classified into six categories, namely; phenomenological research, ethnological research, grounded theory, case study, historical, and narrative research. Given the multi-dimensional nature of land and how it affects people's lives, this study used a combination of case study, historical, narrative, grounded theory and phenomenological research methods to understand the meaning that participants place on issues of landlessness and socio-economic well-being.

3.3.2.1 Case Study

Case studies are analyses of persons, events, decisions, periods, projects, policies, institutions, or other systems that are studied holistically by one or more methods and may be descriptive or explanatory (Astalin, 2013). Like surveys, the case study research approach can be treated as qualitative or quantitative. Case study research is used to describe an entity that forms a single unit such as a person, an organization or an institution. As a research design, the case study claims to recommend a wealth and depth of information which is not usually offered by other methods (Wievioka, 1992).

With many variables the case study can be identified as a complex set of conditions which produce a particular demonstration. Case study can employ any and all methods of data collection from testing to interviewing; it is a highly multipurpose research method; hence, this study has employed it to understand the phenomena of landlessness and its impact on the social and economic aspects of people in the Omaheke Region. However, one limitation of case studies is that they are not always generalizable.

3.3.2.2 Historical Research Method

Junilla-Tan (2015), explains that the historical research method is the process of investigating past events systematically to provide an account of happenings in the past. It is not simply the accumulation of dates and facts or even just a description of past happenings but is a flowing and dynamic explanation or description of past events which include an interpretation of these events in an effort to recapture implications, personalities and ideas that have influenced these events (Tan, 2015). Junilla-Tan (2015) stresses that historical research attempts to methodically recapture the complete nuances, people, meanings, events and even ideas of the past that have impacted and shaped the present (Hamilton, 1993; Leedy, 1999) as cited in Berg (2000).

Historical research is the systematic collection and evaluation of data to describe, explain, and understand actions or events that occurred sometime in the past. Historical research method enables a researcher to explore and explain the meanings, phases and characteristics of a phenomenon or process at a particular point in the past.

Historical research design involves synthesising data from many different sources, and an attempt is made to reconstruct what happened during a certain period of time as completely and accurately as possible. The purpose of historical research is to make people aware of what happened in the past in order to learn from past failures and successes, apply them to present-day problems, make predictions, test hypotheses concerning relationship or trends, and understand present practices and policies more fully.

Based on Marxist theory, history is the story of struggles between social classes where those in power control wealth and resources while the powerless struggle to survive (Cassell, 2014). This study used the historical research method to search and identify the relationship of past land dispossession by colonial and apartheid regimes and their links to the present landlessness situation in Omaheke and Namibia and in general.

3.3.2.3 Grounded Theory

Astalin (2013, p.121), avers that grounded theory is a type of qualitative research method that allows theory/theories to emerge from the data that is collected. Grounded theory research follows a systematic yet flexible process to collect data, code the data, make connections and see what theory/theories are generated or are built from the data.

A theory, according to Hager (1972), is a set of concepts that are integrated through a series of relational statements. In grounded theory, the researcher does not commence the process of research with a predetermined theory in mind, but the formulation of theory/theories stem from the data that allows one to explain how people experience and respond to events such as land reform, resettlement.

Therefore, the main feature of grounded theory research in this study is the development of new theory about landlessness as a phenomenon and its impact on social and economic development in Namibia. The theory of landlessness as a phenomenon is the main contribution of this study to knowledge. Grounded theory design uses many techniques for data collection, such as interviews and observation, while literature review and relevant documentary analysis make important contributions.

3.3.2.4 Phenomenological Theory

Literally, it is known that phenomenology means the study of phenomena (Astalin, 2013). Phenomena may be events, situations, experiences or concepts. Phenomenology is a way of describing something that exists as an integral part of the world in which we are living. People are surrounded by many phenomena and they are sometimes aware of it, but they may not fully understand the phenomena. Sometimes it happens that our lack of understanding in respect of these phenomena may exist because the phenomenon has not been overtly described and explained or our understanding of the impact it may be unclear (Astalin, 2013).

In this study landlessness is a phenomenon that needs to be investigated in terms of how it impacts the socio-economic aspects of people in the Omaheke, in particular, and Namibia in general. Phenomenological research will not necessarily provide definitive explanations, but it does raise awareness and increases insight about landlessness and economic development as phenomena.

3.4 Population

Polit and Hungler (1999, p. 37) refer to the population as an aggregate or totality of all the objects, animals, plants, set of subjects or members that conform to a set of specifications from which a researcher wants to collect data. Population is the total number of people who live in a chosen study area. In this study the population was Namibians of all races, age groups, educational status, socio-economic status and residential areas, who are still landless after 25 years of independence in the seven Constituencies of the Omaheke Region.

Namibia was demarcated by the Delimitation Commission into 14 political regions, and each region is subdivided into constituencies. Out of the 14 political regions, this study focused on the Omaheke Region. Spatially, the Omaheke Region is situated in the eastern part of Namibia covering 10.3 percent of Namibia's total land surface. The Omaheke Region borders the Otjozondjupa Region to the north and north-west, the western to south-western regional boundary is shared with the Khomas Region, while the Hardap Region adjoins its southern border. To the east, the Omaheke Region is bounded by the international border between Namibia and Botswana and forming the Western extension of the Kalahari Desert.

The name Omaheke derives from the OtjiHerero word for Sandveld. The surface area of the Omaheke is 84,981 km^2, with a total population of 70,800, and a population density of 0.8 persons per square meter (National Planning Commission, 2012). There are about 924 localities or settlement areas in the whole of the Omaheke, and the majority of them being traditional and rural villages. Gobabis is the main urban center serving as the only municipality and main business area in this region; and the seat of the Regional Council. Gobabis is about 205 km east of Windhoek (Namibia's capital city) along the Trans-Kalahari Highway and is also linked to the capital city by a railway line. Most of the regional gravel roads are confined to the western and south-western areas, while the communal areas of north-eastern Omaheke are poorly served in terms of road infrastructure, telecommunications, water provision and access to electricity supply (National Planning Commission, 2006).

After independence in 1990, the Omaheke region was divided into seven (7) political constituencies, namely; Aminius, Epukiro, Gobabis, Kalahari, Otjinene, Otjombinde and Okorukambe. A survey was conducted in all the 7 constituencies of this region. The agricultural patterns of Omaheke region are to a large extent homogenous. Most of the farmers in Omaheke region are livestock farmers. The Agricultural Census of 2013/2014 reports that livestock only holdings was more prominent in the Omaheke and constituted about 25.3 percent of the holdings while crop only holdings was 0.1% (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2015).

Most of the western, central and south-western the Omaheke is taken up by privately owned freehold commercial farms comprising around 900 households. At the time of conducting this study, the Ministry of Land Reform had acquired 81 farms making 441,099 hectares in the Omaheke Region. These farms have been allocated to 1429 previously landless Namibians through its land acquisition and redistribution programme (Ministry of Land Reform, 2017). Given the statistic on hectares acquired and number of people resettled in the Omaheke Region, on average, each resettled beneficiary has access to 309 hectares. This is far less than the average hectares of about 1500 required for one commercial farmer in the Omaheke Region.

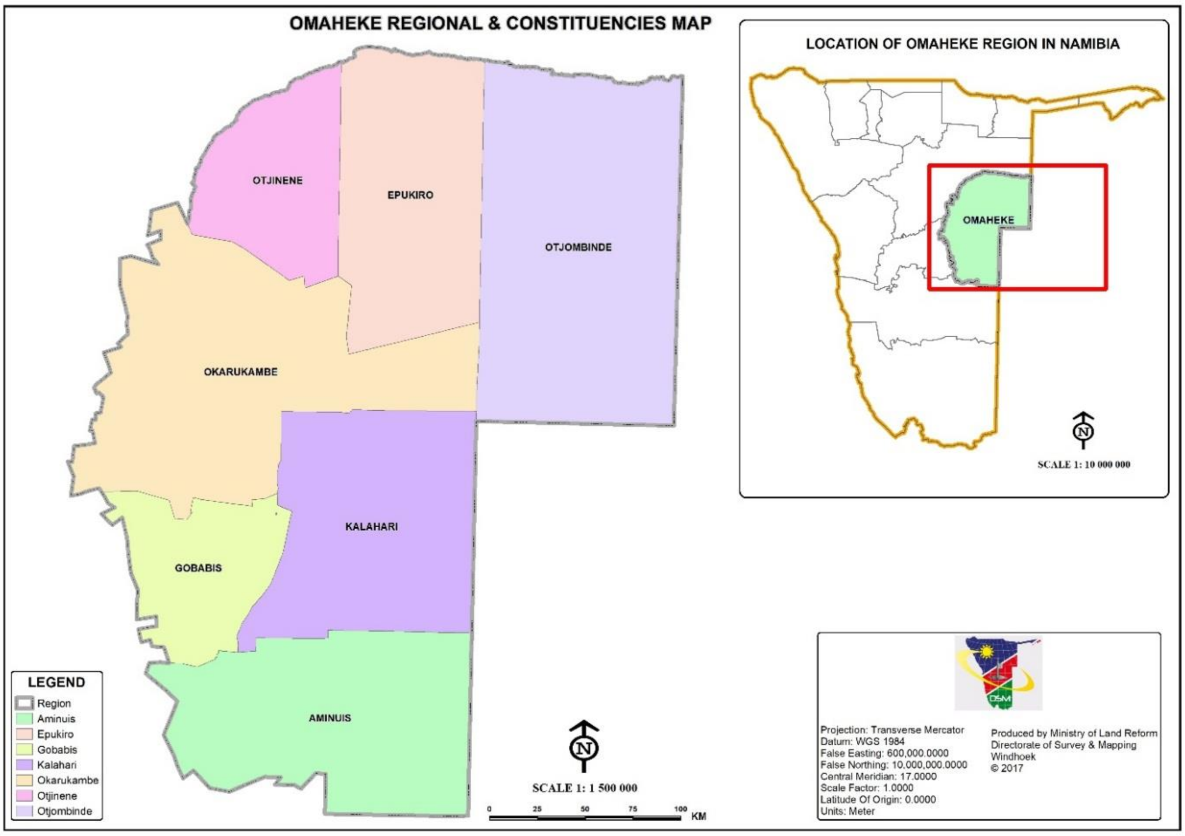

Figure 3.1: Map of Namibia showing the location of Omaheke Region with its Seven Constituencies
Source: Directorate of Survey and Mapping in the Ministry of Land Reform, 2017

3.5 Sampling and Sampling Procedure

The process of selecting a portion of the population to represent the entire population is known as sampling (LoBiondo-Wood & Haber (1998, p. 250); Polit & Hungler, (1999, p.95). A combination of probability and non-probability sampling methods were used to collect quantitative and qualitative data respectively. A non-probability sampling method, as alluded to by LoBiondo-Wood and Haber (1998, p. 249), is less vigorous and tends to produce less accurate and less representative samples than probability or random samples. Non-probability sampling implies that not every element of the population has an opportunity for being included in the sample, using techniques such as convenience (accidental), quota, purposive and network sampling procedures (Burns & Grove 2001, p. 804). However, it is important to take note that the non-probability sampling procedure might have limited the generalisability of the findings. On the other hand, probability sampling refers to sampling techniques for which a subject or person's likelihood of being selected from the sampling frame is known (Burns & Grove 2001). Probability sampling method allows the researcher to choose samples from a large population using techniques such as simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, and cluster sampling.

All of these techniques belong to the theory of probability sampling method. This study used a combination of cluster and stratified sampling techniques to select the sample from the population. This approach enables the researcher to have a representative sample that would allow the findings and results of the study to make generalizations to the larger population in the study area.

3.5.1 Sample Size

A sample is a subset of a population selected to participate in the study, it is a fraction of the whole population, selected to participate in the research project (Brink, 1996, p. 133; Polit & Hungler, 1999, p. 227). A general rule of the thumb is to always use the largest sample possible, because the larger the sample, the more representative it is going to be. Smaller samples produce less accurate results because they are likely to be less representative of the population (LoBiondo-Wood & Haber 1998, pp. 263-264). In this study, the researcher applied a deliberate, also known as purposive or non-probability sampling technique to select a total sample of 140 people as follows: 20 people from each of the seven Constituencies of the Omaheke Region; the seven (7) Constituency Councilors were also included in the sample for interviews to provide the political perspective on landlessness and socio-economic issues in their respective

Constituencies; one regional official of the Ministry of Land Reform at Gobabis office was also included and interviewed to provide the perspective of Government on the issue of landlessness in the region.

The total sample was 140, however, due to other factors beyond the control of the researcher and the unavailability of some respondents, the end result for this study was 113 respondents. This means the study had an 81 percent response rate. A purposive sampling method was chosen for this study because it allowed the researcher to select the respondents from the population for inclusion in the sample based on the ease of access or convenience (De Vos, 1998, p. 199; LoBiondo-Wood & Haber, 1998, p. 253) describe a convenience sample as the use of readily accessible persons in a study. Any case, which happens to cross the researcher's path, and meets the inclusive criteria set for the study, gets included in a convenience sample. The sample consisted of people from rural and urban areas, with some resettled beneficiaries of land reform and other rural and urban households in all seven constituencies.

3.6 Research Instruments

A structured, closed-and open-ended questionnaire was developed as the research instrument for data collection, and it contained both closed and open-ended questions. Information and data pertaining to land ownership pattern and relevant socio-economic aspects was collected from reports and databases of the Ministry of Land Reform. The researcher also used a digital camera to take pictures of the living conditions, assets and other facilities at some areas. This was only possible with permission and consent from the respondents.

3.7 Procedure for Data Collection

Polit and Hungler (1999) define data as information obtained in a course of a study. This study employed a triangulated approach in collecting data from the seven Constituencies. Respondents were selected using the purposive sampling method for participation in the study. A structured, closed-and open-ended questionnaire was administered to most of the respondents, and a few of the respondents completed the questionnaire on their own. A face-to-face interview method was conducted by administering a structured questionnaire to collect quantitative and qualitative data.

The researcher and the assistant administered the closed and open-ended questionnaire to the respondents by knocking door-to-door and travelling to some farms in the seven constituencies of the Omaheke Region. The questionnaire was used to collect information mainly on socio-economic conditions of households, land ownership patterns, and other relevant aspects pertaining to landlessness, socio-economic development and asset generation processes. The researcher and the assistant conducted face-to-face interviews with respondents. It took three weeks for the researcher to complete interviews in all the Seven Constituencies of the Omaheke Region. Interview sessions lasted for about three hours with groups of respondents in each constituency.

Document reviews were also carried out in order to triangulate the evidence. Documents that were consulted included the annual reports, the land reform and resettlement policies, the land reform acts, the Strategic Plan and annual plan of the Ministry of Land Reform. Data and statistics on resettlement beneficiaries were obtained from the database of the Ministry of Land Reform and the Omaheke Regional Office at Gobabis. A literature review was conducted to benchmark the land reform programme of Namibia with those of other countries in Africa, Asia and beyond. Relevant print media reports were collected to supplement data and information. Websites of various journals were also visited as sources of data and information on land reform in various countries.

3.8 Data Analysis

This study employed a quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods as described in detail below.

3.8.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

This study used descriptive statistics to compute and measure the relationship between landlessness and the standard of living of households. A regression model was used to measure the strength of relationship between variables. Relevant literature and reports on land reform were scrutinised to obtain numerical data on land acquisition and allocation. Quantitative data analysis was made possible by using SPSS software. Microsoft Excel and Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software were used to derive descriptive and correlation of variables, cross-tabulation, group differences as well as factor analysis reports.

Data collected on basic needs was processed in percentage through the descriptive analysis. Frequency distribution of the respondents, based on income pattern, land ownership, and access to basic utilities was used. Descriptive analysis referring to the factors that involve a standard of living as a proxy of economic development made it possible for this study to be comprehended and interpreted. Data entry was done by using Microsoft Excel software and thereafter the raw data was transferred and uploaded into the statistical package for social sciences, commonly known as SPSS software for quantitative data analysis. Frequency tables and graphs were produced to show correlations, cross-tabulations and present information.

3.8.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative data analysis was done by employing the ATLAS.ti software. The ATLAS.ti software is an analytical tool used in qualitative research for coding, reducing, and inferring qualitative data. After all the quotations were recorded in a word document, the Primary Document was assigned or loaded into ATLAS.ti. The quotations were then coded where *Open or in vivo coding* was used. Lines of data in the quotations that were considered important or relevant were coded. This process, as iterated by Silva and Lewins (2014), attempts at systematically grouping aspects that are of interest to the research.

After coding, prominent codes emerged and these were the ones that were focused on answering the research questions (Silva & Lewins, 2014). Codes that have similarity were merged and those that did not appear much were eliminated during the second stage of coding. Krippendorff (2013, p. 356) contends that ATLAS-ti software provides the ability to link quotations to create networks where patterns are identified which are helpful in report writing (Krippendorff, 2004). The themes were grouped into families of networks to make connections and relationships between quotations, codes and themes.

ATLAS-ti software was used to analyze the qualitative data by coding it into categories and transform it into symbols that can be tabulated and counted. Miles and Huberman (1994), suggest that there are three concurrent activities that are necessary in all qualitative data analysis, namely; data reduction, data display and, conclusion drawing or verification. The narrative analysis was used to analyze the narrative and qualitative data and transform it into meaningful information. The process of data reduction and analysis was a sequential and continuous procedure from the beginning of data collection and became more complex as the research project progressed. The central requirement in qualitative data analysis is clear thinking on the part of the analyst, where the analyst is put to the test as much as the data (William & Buckler, 2011).

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The researcher was guided by the ethical requirements of conducting research as stated by the University of Namibia's Guidelines. The following are the most important ethical issues that were observed and applied by the researcher, among others: By applying the principle of informed consent in line with the requirements outlined by the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (OPRS) (2009). Informed consent is a voluntary agreement to participate in research; it is not merely a form that is signed but is a process, in which the subject has an understanding of the research and its risks (OPRS, 2009). This means the researcher first had to explain the purpose of the survey and sought consent from respondents to be interviewed.

Respondents were informed that they have the liberty to withdraw from the interview if they felt uncomfortable. The researcher informed respondents that the information they would provide will be handled with confidentiality and would only be used for study purposes. Respondents were informed that their names and the information they provide would remain anonymous. The researcher also ensured that permission was sought in advance from the relevant authorities to allow interviews to be conducted in their offices and areas of jurisdiction. Furthermore, the researcher ensured that all questionnaires and data were kept and stored safely during the time of data collection and then destroyed after the final dissertation report has been completed and approved.

3.10 Consent for Conducting the Research

Consent to conduct research and interview was obtained from the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Land Reform in Windhoek; the Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences at the University of Namibia (UNAM); the Deputy Director for the Omaheke Regional Office of the Ministry of Land Reform.

CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATIONS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 is divided into two sections, namely; Section A, which presents the quantitative data analysis and Section B, which presents the qualitative data analysis. As indicated in Chapter 3, this study used a combination of research methods to analyze and present both quantitative and qualitative data by using tables, figures and graphs.

4.2 Section A: Quantitative Data Analysis

This section presents the quantitative data that was collected from the field by using a questionnaire. The results and findings are presented in frequency tables and graphs to show trends and differences and correlations between variables that were identified as a means to assess the impact of landlessness on social and economic development of communities in the Omaheke Region. As indicated earlier, the data presented here was collected from the seven (7) Constituencies that constitute the Omaheke Region in Namibia.

4.2.1 Demographic Characteristics

The Region of Omaheke is constituted by seven (7) constituencies as demarcated by the Delimitation Commission, and each constituency is headed by an elected political councilor. The study was conducted in all the seven constituencies as indicated in Figure 4.1 below.

90 percent of the participants in the Gobabis Constituency lived in urban area as employees in various private and public institutions but have some agricultural land in

rural areas. They practice what is commonly known as ‘week-end farming’. Their farms are under the care of their employees or family members. The remaining 10 percent of participants in the Gobabis Constituency lived on their farms as fulltime farmers. Participants in the Gobabis Constituency were interviewed one by one, face-to-face.

The majority (80 percent) of participants in the Otjombinde Constituency were members of the Mbanderu Traditional Authority and lived in rural areas. The remaining 20 percent lived in the town of Talismanus, some as employees in public and private sectors. A group of 13 people were involved in the discussion group and one participant was interviewed alone face-to-face.

In the Aminius Constituencies 95 percent of the participants were members from the Tswana Traditional Authority and lived in rural areas as a combination of communal and commercial farmers, the remaining 5 percent were ordinary members in the community, some were employee in the public and private sectors. The 19 participants were dived into two groups of 10 and 9 people per group interview and discussion.

60 percent of participants in the Epukiro Constituency lived in urban areas while 40 percent of them lived in rural areas. The 16 participants were divided into two groups of 8 people per group interview and discussion.

In the Okorukambe Constituency, 100 percent of participants lived on resettlement farms called Omitara Settlement. The 16 participants were divided into two groups of 8 people per group interview and discussion. The Omitara group consisted of members from the Damara, Nama, and Oshiwambo ethnic groups.

The 17 participants in the Kalahari Constituency includes people resettled on a commercial farm at Drimiopsis Group Resettlement; a combination of the San people and others from different ethnic groups. They were interviewed face-to-face individually. The 14 participants in the Otjinene Constituency were also interviewed face-to-face, individually.

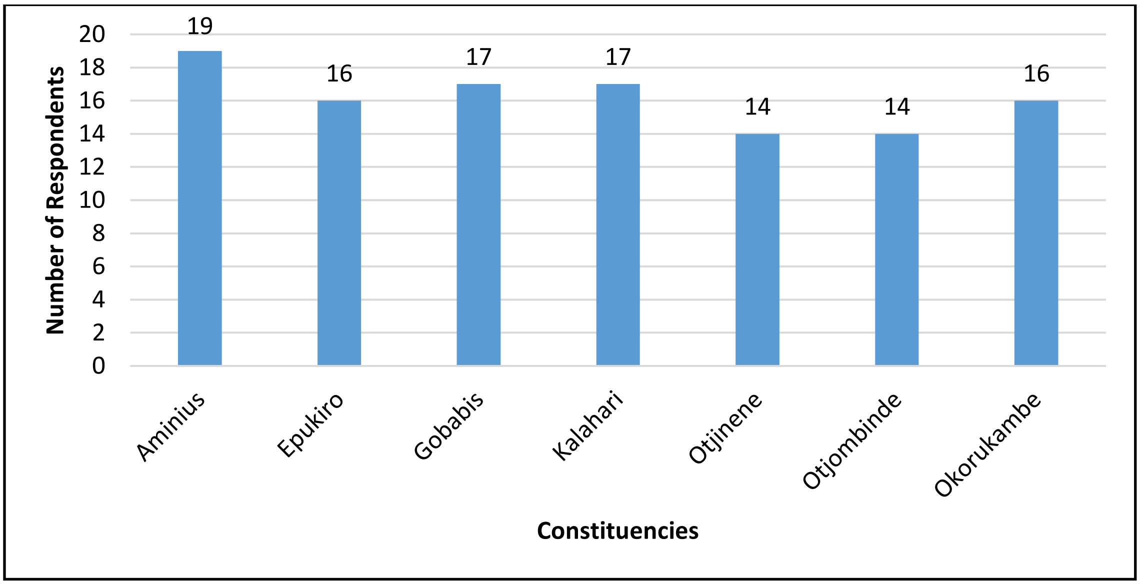

Figure 4.1 Number of respondents by Constituency

Figure 4.1 indicate the frequency by constituency of those respondents who participated in the study. The total population sample that was targeted for this study was 140. However, the study managed to administer the questionnaire to 113 respondents. Given the sample size of 140 people that were targeted to participate, the study managed to achieve an overall response rate of 81%. Out of a total of 113 respondents, there was a high response rate in the Aminius Constituency with 19 respondents (16.8%), followed by Gobabis and Kalahari Constituencies with 17 (15%) each.

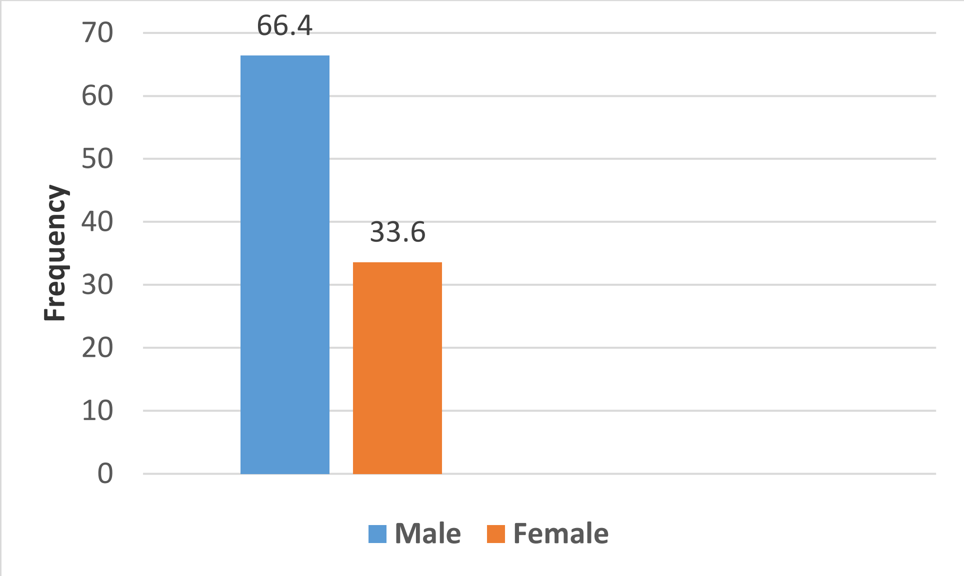

Figure 4.2 Respondents by Gender

Figure 4.2 illustrate that out of a total of 113 participants, more males (66.4%) participated in the study than females (33.6%).The plausible reason for the low participation of women is that at some resettlement farms women were not free to participate in answering the questionnaire in the presence of their husbands.

4.2.2 Household Sizes

This section explains the various sizes of households where respondents came from as shown in the table below.

Figure 4.3 below shows the sizes of household that participated in the study. A household in this context is a group or members of a family that share a common residential place and facilities such as a house or a piece of land. Figure 4.3 shows that the respondents came from households that vary in sizes.

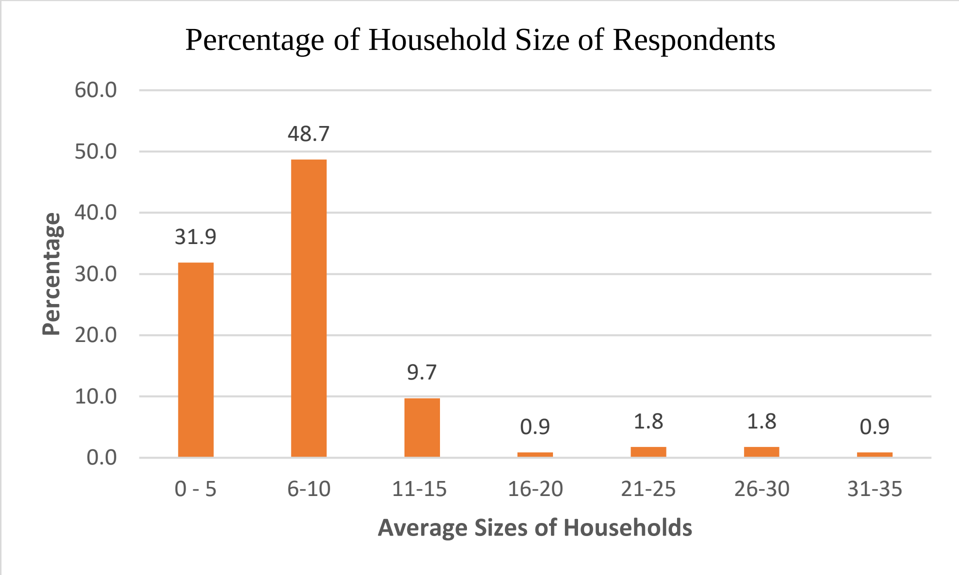

Figure 4.3 Percentage of household sizes of respondents

Figure 4.3 shows that the majority, 48.7 percent, of respondents indicated to have come from households that have 6 to10 members, followed by those respondents who came from a household that have 0 to 5 members at 31.9 percent. The graph further shows that 9.7 percent of respondents came from households that have 11 to 15 members, while 1.8 percent of respondents indicated to have come from households that have members ranging from 21 to 25 and 26 to 30.

4.2.3 Ethnicity of Respondents

This section presents the different ethnic groups that took part in responding to the questionnaire in the seven constituencies of the Omaheke Region, as indicated in Figure 4.4 below.

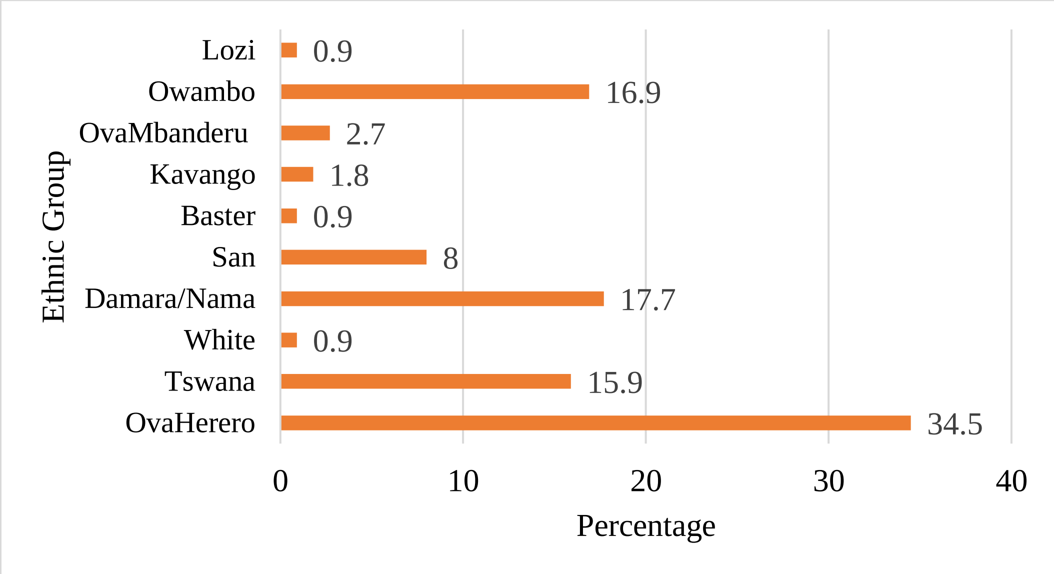

Figure 4.4 Ethnic Groups of Respondents
Source: Research Questionnaire

Figure 4.4 show that out of a total of 113 respondents, the majority of the respondents came from the Ova Herero ethnic grouping that represents 34.5%, followed by respondents from the Damara/Nama and Owambo ethnic groups at 17.7% and 16.9% respectively. Respondents from the Tswana ethnic group made 15.9%. The Batswana of Namibia are predominantly found in the Aminius and the Kalahari Constituencies inhibiting the Kalahari Desert. The graph further shows that 8.0% of respondents are from the San community.

4.2.4 Age and Marital Status of Respondents

This section shows and explains the age groups of those respondents who participated in this study by providing information, as indicated in the Table below.

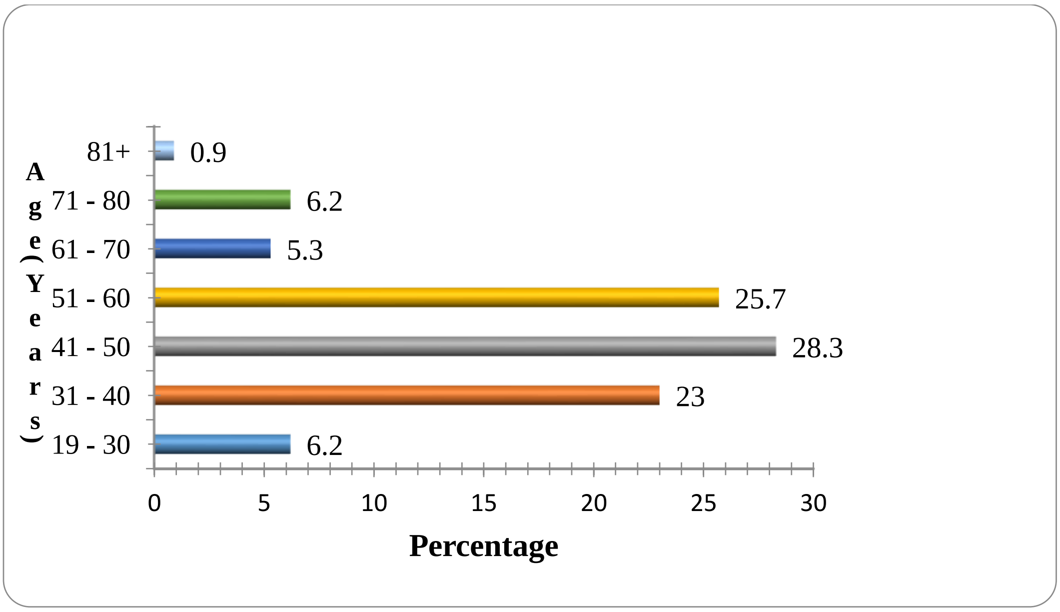

Figure 4.5 Average Ages of Respondents

Figure 4.5 show that the average ages of respondents varied from the youngest of 19 years old to the oldest of 83 years old. Respondents aged between 41 and 50 years constituted 28.3%, followed by 25.7% of those aged between 51 and 60 years, and those aged between 31 and 40 years constitute 23.0%. Respondents with the age ranging between 61 to 70 years old made 5.3%, while 0.9% of the respondents are between 81 years old and more. The majority (77%) of respondents are aged between 31and 60 years. Given the statistics on the age of participants, it could be assumed that farming in the Omaheke region is mostly done by people whose age ranges from 40 to 60 years old.

4.2.5 Marital Status of Respondents

Marriage is a union between a female and male and it was constituted, for the first time, by God in the Garden of Eden during the process of creation. The book of Genesis, Chapter 2 verses 18 onwards records that:

God said: It is not good that the man [Adam] should be alone; I will make him a help meet …And God caused a deep sleep to fall upon Adam, and God took a rib from him [Adam] and formed a woman [Eve] whom he gave to him as a wife. Therefore, shall a man leave his parents and shall cleave unto his wife, and they shall be one flesh.

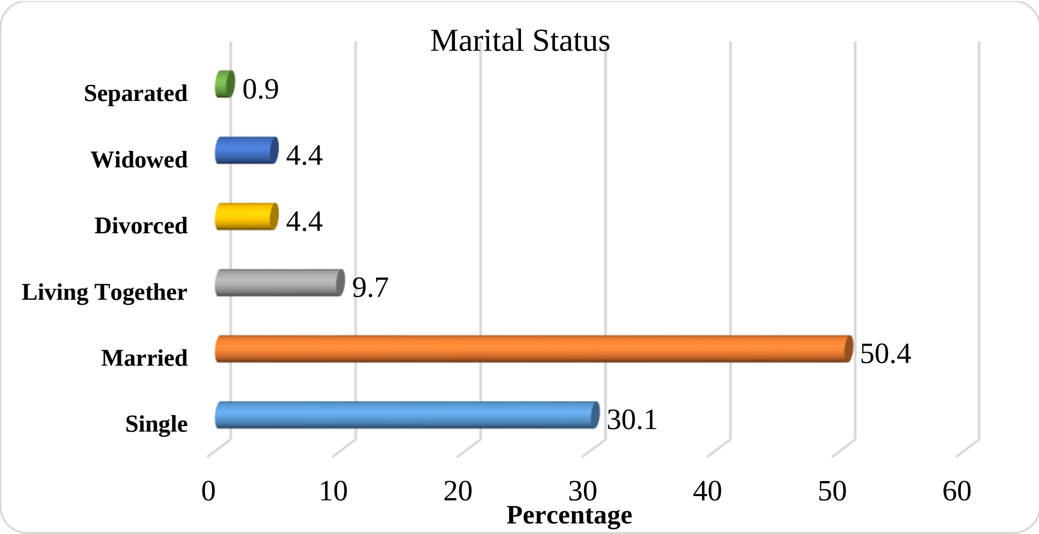

Figure 4.6: Percentage of Marital status of Respondents

Figure 4.6 indicate that the majority, 50.4%, of the respondents were married and 30.1% were single, while 9.7% were just living together without a formal marital arrangement. Figure 4.6 further shows that 4.4% of respondents were divorced and the other 4.4% were widowed. From these statistics, it could be assumed that marriage in these communities is an institution that is considered being important and seems to be encouraged by the cultural and traditional way of living among the Ova-Herero, Batswana and the Ova-Mbanderu communities.

4.3 Employment Status and Type of Employment

This section outlines the employment status and the type or nature of employment of the respective respondents.

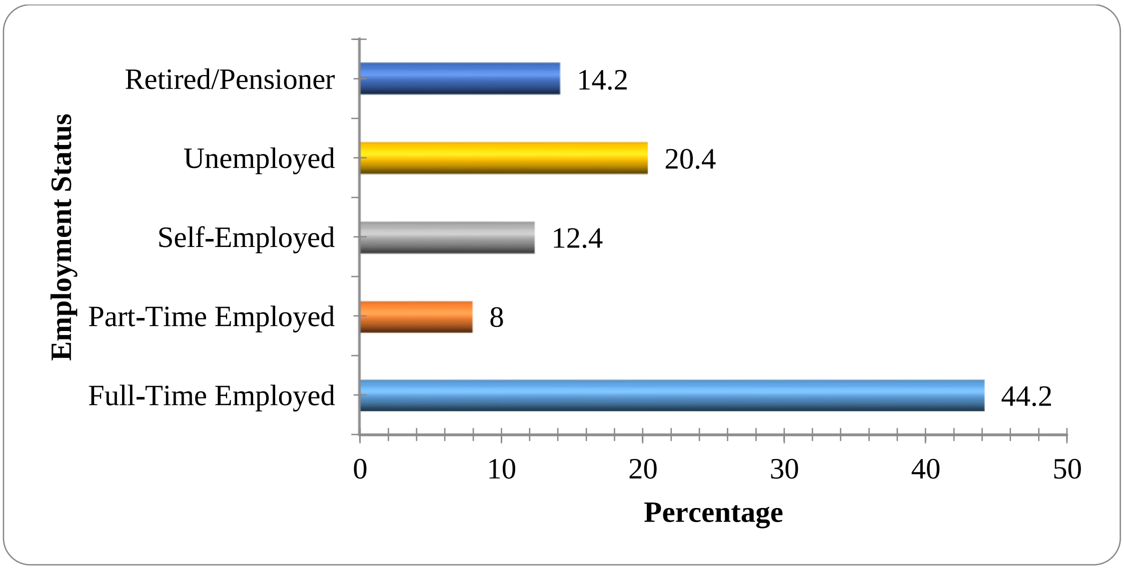

Figure 4.7: Employment status of Respondents

Figure 4.7 shows the different statuses of employment of the respondents who participated in this study. Figure 4.7 shows that the majority, 44.2 percent of respondents were employed on a full-time basis and 20.4 percent were unemployed. 14.2 percent of the respondents indicated that they were pensioners on retirement, while 12.4 percent were self-employed, and 8.0 percent were employed on a part-time basis. The 20.4 percent of unemployment status seems to be high among those who participated in this study. The Namibia Poverty Mapping Report of 2015 indicate that 21.7 percent of the economically active population (labour force) in the Omaheke was unemployed in 2014, while 18.4 percent of the economically active population was employed in the subsistence economy.

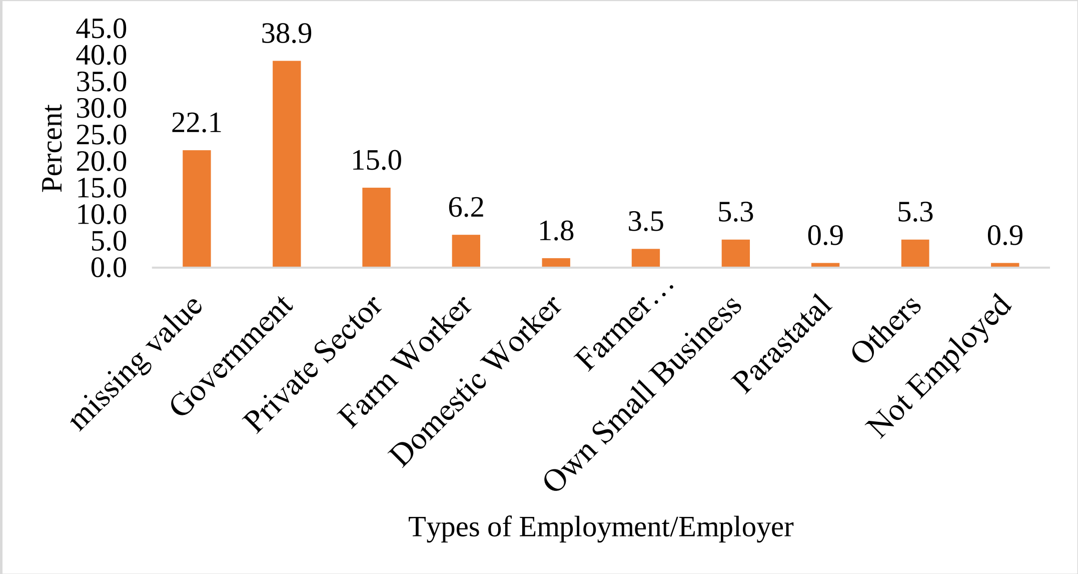

Figure 4.8 Types of Employment /Employer of Respondents

Figure 4.8 shows that 38.9 percent of those who participated in this study are employed by Government, 15.0 percent are employed by the private sector; while 22.1 percent of respondents did not indicate their employers. This indicates that most people who are engaged in small scale farming are still dependent on salaries from their formal employment, especially in the public sector. These are sometimes called 'week-end farmers', because they spend five days at their formal employment and only go to their farms during the week-end.

However, most of those who did not indicate their employers are those who are not employed but dependent on selling livestock to sustain their livelihood, especially in communal areas. Another 6.2 percent of the respondents reported to be employed as farm workers. Farm workers are mostly employed by white commercial farmers in the Omaheke Region. Omaheke Region is well known for its large commercial cattle ranches (National Planning Commission, 2015). However, 5.3 percent of respondents reported to be running their own different small businesses ranging from needle work, small bakery, selling roasted meat, commonly known in Namibia as 'kapana,' and fat cakes, to tyres repair business.

4.4 Sources and Average of Income

This section outlines the main sources of income as well as the average income of respondents. In line with the objectives of this study, namely; assessment of the extent of landlessness and its perceived impact on the social and economic development in Namibia, this study collected information on a household's income. Income, like access to land, is also one of the factors that determines the distribution of economic resources amongst the Namibian population. Respondents were asked to state their main sources of income in an open-ended question.

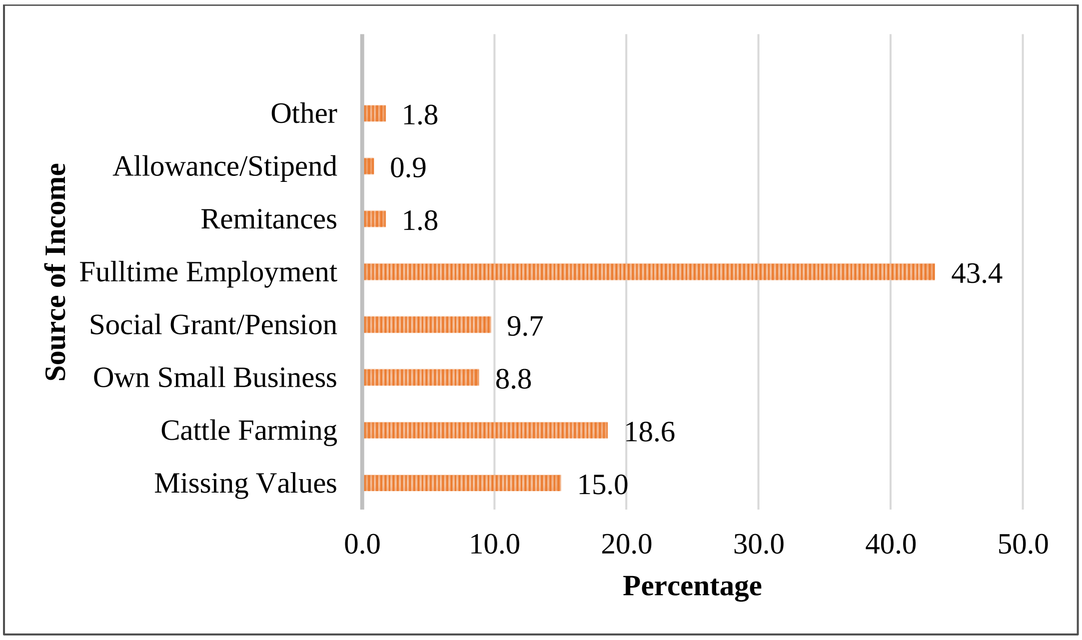

Figure 4.9 Main Source of Income by Respondents

Figure 4.9 shows that respondents in this study had various sources of income, ranging from fulltime employment in government institutions, small business, to selling cattle. The data shows that 43.4 percent of respondents obtain their income from salaries as fulltime employees in government, private sector and parastatals. Close to 19 percent of respondents obtain their income from commercial and communal livestock farming.

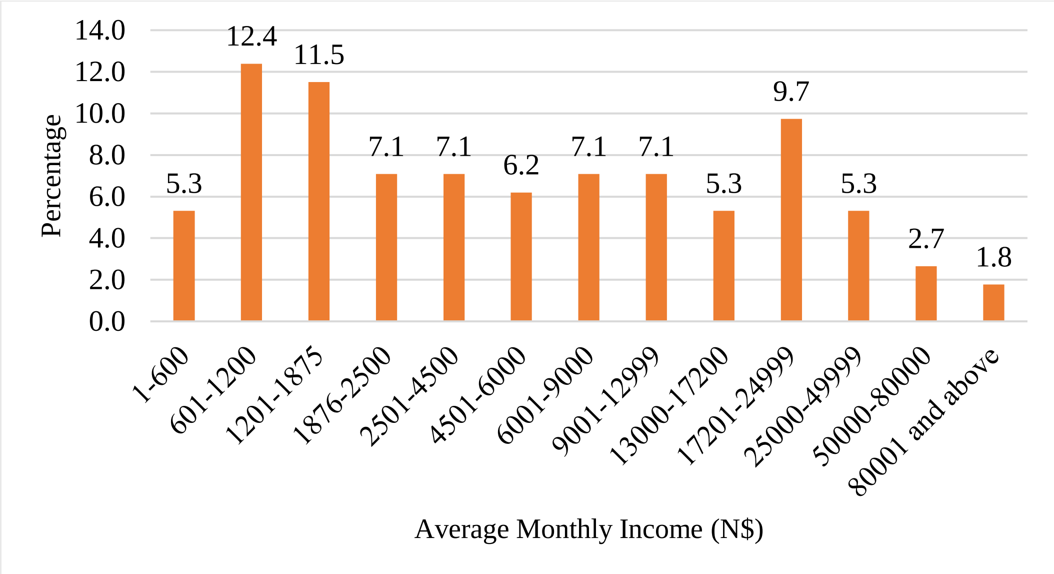

Figure 4.10 Average Income of Respondents

Figure 4.10 shows that the average monthly income of respondents ranged from a minimum of N$600 to a maximum of more than N$80,000. The Figure shows that 23.9 percent of respondents receive a monthly income ranging from N$601 – N$1,875, while 34 percent of respondents receive a monthly income ranging from N$1,876 – N$12,999. The graph also shows that 9.7 percent of respondents receive a monthly income ranging from N$17,201 to N$24,999 while 1.8 percent receive a monthly income of more than N$80,000.

4.5 Educational Qualifications of Respondents

Literature indicates that there is a strong evidence that better educated settlers are individually more successful than those who are less educated, and that better-educated communities outperform those with lower average levels of education (Van Zyl, Kirsten, & Binswanger, 1996). Indira Gandhi once stated that "education is a liberating force and in our age it is also a democratizing force, cutting across the barriers of caste and class, smoothing out inequalities imposed by birth and other circumstances" (Javed, Javed, & Khan, 2016, p. 7). It is generally perceived that no country can achieve sustainable economic development without substantial investment in human capital. Education enriches people's understanding of themselves and the world around them. Education raises people's productivity and creativity and promotes entrepreneurship and technological advances. Education also transforms a person to live a better life and leads to broad social benefits to individuals and society (Javed, Javed, & Khan, 2016).

The data in Figure 4.11presents the educational level of respondents who participated in this study, as indicated below.

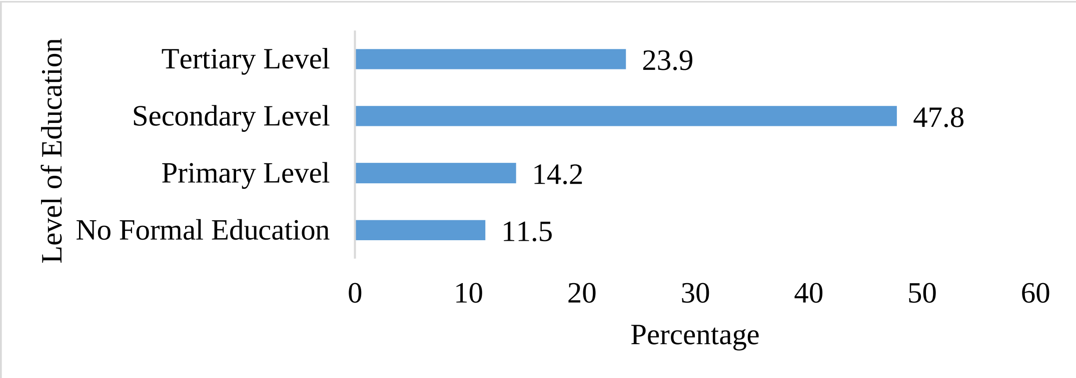

Figure 4.11 Educational qualifications of respondents

Figure 4.11 indicate that 47.8 percent of respondents have secondary level of qualifications, and 23.9 percent have obtained tertiary level qualifications. Those who have gone up to primary level constituted 14.2 percent, while 11.5 percent of respondents had no formal education. Literacy rates in the Omaheke is recorded to be at 72.3 percent by the Namibia Statistics Agency report of 2015/2016. An increase in the rate of literacy (education level) should decrease the risk of poverty because those who invest in education find a job easier and have higher stability in the labour market. Through better training there is an increased quality and productivity, all directly or indirectly influencing the quality of life (Aceleanu, 2012).

4.6 Number of Rooms, Size of Dwellings /Houses and Value

Access to and ownership of a house or a dwelling place and other utilities are important indicators of households' socio-economic conditions. The quality and size of a house or dwelling place play an important role in the living conditions of the population. The right to housing as a human right is recognised in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in Article 25.

One respondent indicated that everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of him/herself and of his [her] family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his/her control.

Access to housing is a crucial part of human wellbeing, health and development. Proper or decent housing is important because it is linked to many other areas of human wellbeing; most areas of human wellbeing can only be achieved fully if one has access to adequate housing. This section shows the number of rooms and the size of houses or dwelling place of respondents. The estimated values of the houses or dwellings of respondents are also shown in this section. The size of a house or dwelling place is measured and indicated in square meters (m^2), while the value of a house is indicated in monetary terms / Namibian dollars (N$). Respondents were only asked to estimate the size and value of their houses or dwellings without asking for proof or any document. In some cases, the interviewer could see and ascertain the actual number of rooms for some houses.

Figure 4.12 below shows that 23.9 percent of respondents had dwellings or houses that have three (3) rooms; 22.1 percent had houses that have one (1) room, while 17.7 percent have houses with four (4) rooms. Figure 4.12 further shows that 2.7 of the respondents have houses with 5 and 8 rooms respectively, and a mere 0.9 percent reported having a house with more than 10 rooms. This statistic shows that the majority (78.7 percent) of respondents live in houses that have a minimum of one to a maximum of four rooms. Rooms in this case includes bedrooms, sitting room, kitchen, dining room.

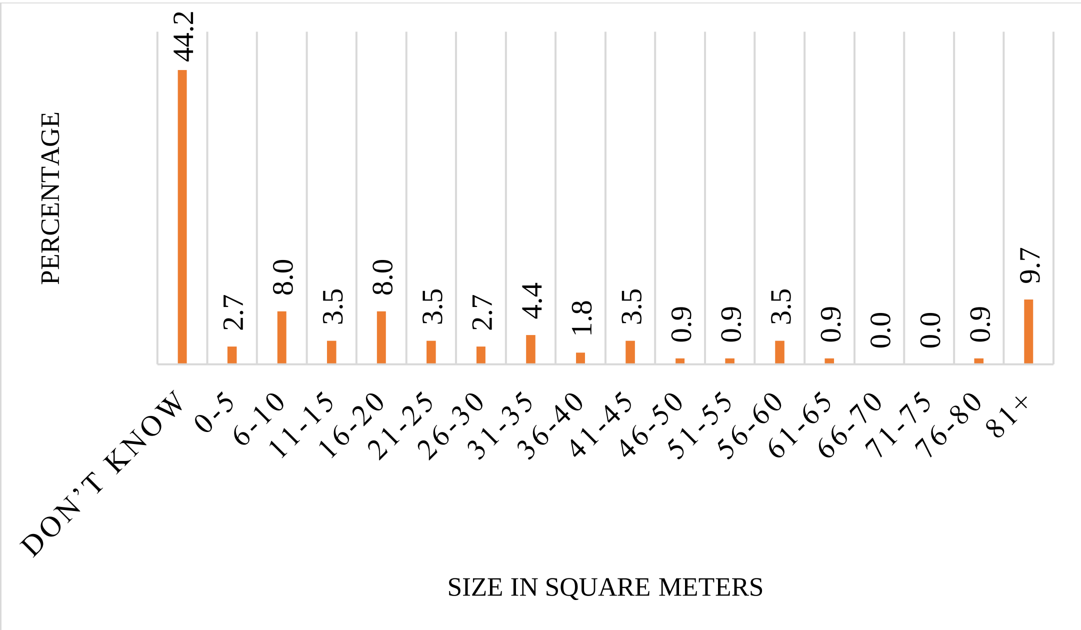

Figure 4.12 Size of House/Dwelling in Square Meters

Figure 4.12 shows that the majority of respondents (44.2 percent) in this study did not know the sizes of their dwellings, while 9.7 percent of the respondents indicated that they live in dwellings of the size of more than 81 square meters. A good number of the respondents (8.0 percent) live in dwellings with the size ranging from 6 to10 square meters and another 8.0 percent live in dwellings with the size ranging from 16 to 20 square meters, respectively. Figure 4.12 further shows that 2.7 percent of respondents live in dwellings with the size ranging from 0 to 5 square meters, while 3.5 percent of the respondents live in dwellings of the size ranging from 11 to 15 square meters.

Respondents were also asked to estimate the value of their houses if they were to sell them in the open market. The information was given orally without any document or written proof of sale or purchase of property. It is assumed that respondents were aware of the prices of building materials and the prevailing price of houses in the market at the time of collecting this data.

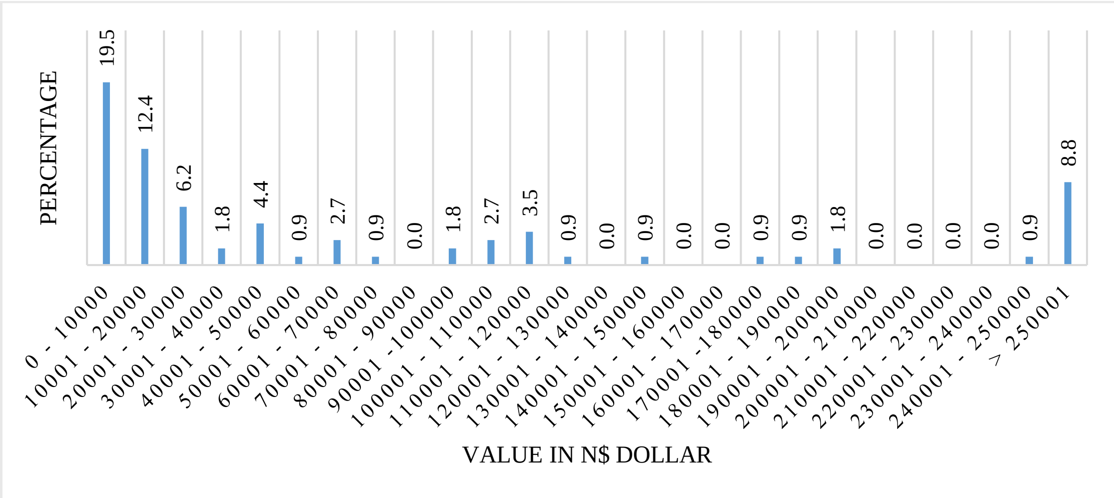

Figure 4.13 Estimated value of houses/dwelling of respondents

Figure 4.13 shows the estimated value of houses or dwellings of respondents. The Figure indicates that 19.5 percent of respondents estimated their houses or dwellings to have a value ranging from N$ 0 - N$10,000 followed by 12.4 percent of respondents who estimated the value of their dwellings/houses at the value ranging from N$10, 001 – N$20,000; if they were to sell them in the open market. These respondents are mostly those who live in semi-permanent structures, traditional dwellings and improvised housing units.

Furthermore, Figure 4.13 shows that 8.8 percent of respondents indicated the value of their houses to be more than N$250,001. These are the respondents who live in detached and semi-detached houses on farms or in urban areas.

The NHIES report of 2016 indicated that the Omaheke Region had the highest figure of improvised house units at 39.8 percent, followed by Erongo at 33.0 percent and Khomas at 32.6 percent (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2016). Improvised housing units are houses made of corrugated materials mostly referred to as shacks or zinc houses. The Table in Appendix D shows that some respondents were not able to estimate the value of their houses or dwelling for various reasons. One of the main reasons is that they were just not able to estimate the value of their house units or dwelling places because they never thought of selling them. Some respondents could not even remember the price of materials that were used to build their dwellings, especially those respondents living in the temporal structure well-known as 'shack' or 'kambashu.'

4.7 Access to Water, Toilet Facilities, Energy and Communication Infrastructure

This section shows the main sources of water for human and animal consumption, access to toilet facilities as well as the source of energy for cooking and lighting. The section also shows the level of access to communication infrastructure, mainly network connectivity for cellular phones.

4.7.1 Sources of Water

In this section, respondents were required to choose from the list and indicate their main sources of water.

Table 4.1: Main Source of Water

	Source	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Tap in the house	24	21.2	21.2	21.2
	Deep well	2	1.8	1.8	23.0
	Reservoir/Dam	1	.9	.9	23.9
	Windmill	3	2.7	2.7	26.5
	Solar Borehole	21	18.6	18.6	45.1
	Communal Tap	20	17.7	17.7	62.8
	Pool	1	.9	.9	63.7
	Engine Borehole	41	36.3	36.3	100.0
	Total	**113**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

Table 4.1 shows that 36.3 percent of the respondents in this study get their water from engine boreholes while 21.2 percent of household sample get their water from taps in the house, and 18.6 percent get water from communal tap and 17.7 percent from a pool. Table 4.1 further shows that 1.8 percent of respondents were still getting water from deep wells. Engine boreholes seem to be the common and most used source of water in the Omaheke Region. This could be attributed to the ecological and harsh environmental factors whereby there are no perennial rivers in the Omaheke Region that could serve as alternative sources of water like in some regions north of the country.

There are no perennial surface water sources and the only notable drainage channels in the entire Region of Omaheke are the Nossobs, both the Black and White, and the shallow, wide Eiseb, Epukiro and Otjozondjou Omiramba, which are practically dormant relic tributaries of the Okavango and ancient Makgadikgadi Basin. The

Nossob Rivers are sometimes active, flowing occasionally on an ephemeral basis during exceptionally good rains.

The Daan Viljoen, Tilda Viljoen and Otjivero Dams are the only notable surface water reservoirs impounding the ephemeral rivers and supplying the town of Gobabis with water. Being a semi-desert and predominantly livestock farming region, most, if not all, farmers have drilled boreholes and installed engines or solar panels to pump water from underground for their livestock and human consumption. Intermittence of dam capacities necessitates a continued reliance on groundwater and boreholes in the Omaheke Region (National Planning Commission, 2006).

4.7.2 Sources of Energy for Cooking and Lighting

Access to sources of energy is one of the indicators of socio-economic status of a household. This section presents the findings on the main sources of energy used by households for cooking and lighting in Omaheke Region.

Table 4.2: Main Source of Energy for Cooking

Source of Energy		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Electric Grid	22	19.5	19.8	19.8
	Wood	84	74.3	75.7	95.5
	Gas stove	5	4.4	4.5	100.0
	Sub-Total	111	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		**113**	**100.0**		

Table 4.2 shows that 74.3 percent of respondents use wood as their main source of energy for cooking, 19.5 percent get their energy from the electric grid, while only 4.4 percent use gas stoves as the main source of energy for cooking. This indicates

that electricity infrastructure is not sufficiently distributed in most rural areas of the Omaheke Region. The other reason is related to cultural practices whereby households prefer firewood for cooking even if they have access to electricity.

This situation is confirmed by the NHIES report of 2016 which states that 66.9 percent of households in the Omaheke use firewood and only 23.1 percent of households use electricity from the main grid for cooking. At a national level, the NHIES report indicates that the most common source of energy for cooking in Namibia is firewood used by 48.6 percent of the households (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2016).

Table 4.3: Main Source of Energy for Lighting

	Source	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Generator	3	2.7	2.7	39.6
	Wood	6	5.3	5.4	45.0
	Paraffin	18	15.9	16.2	61.3
	Solar Panels	20	17.7	18.0	79.3
	Candles	23	20.4	20.7	100.0
	Sub-Total	*111*	*98.2*	*100.0*	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		**113**	**100.0**		

Table 4.3 shows that 36.3 percent of respondents have access to and use electricity for lighting. The second common source of energy for lighting is candles used by 20.4 percent of respondents, followed by solar panels used by 17.7 percent of respondents. Paraffin is used by 15.9 percent of respondents compared to wood and generators with 5.3 and 2.7 percent respectively.

Although candle usage is the second most common source of energy for lighting, Table 4.3 shows that solar panels as source of energy for lighting is becoming popular with households in the Omaheke Region. The Namibia Statistics Agency (2016) reports that regionally, Zambezi (28.6 percent), Kavango East (26.2 percent), Kavango West

(22.2 percent) and Omaheke (24.2 percent) had high proportions of households using candles for lighting compared to all other regions.

4.7.3 Connectivity to Communication Infrastructure

Access to communication infrastructure enables communities to keep in-touch and be informed on what is happening within and outside their areas of residence. Communication through telephone or cellular phone has become a need that contributes to socio-economic status in today's environment of technological change.

Table 4.4: Access to Communication Connectivity Infrastructure

Quality of Connectivity		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Telephone -cell phone-good reception	61	54.0	54.0	54.0
	Irregular cell phone connection-poor reception	44	38.9	38.9	92.9
	No cell phone-telephone connection	8	7.1	7.1	100.0
	Total	**113**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

Table 4.4 indicates that 54.0 percent of respondents have access to reliable telephone or cellular phone reception, while 38.9 percent of respondents reported to having poor, irregular cellular phone reception in their areas. Furthermore, the table shows that 7.1 percent of respondents do not have access to cellular phones or telephone connectivity.

4.7.4 Types of Toilet Facilities

The Namibia Statistics Agency report of 2016, report that the percentage of households in the Omaheke that were using open defecation because they had no access to toilet facilities was 61.4 percent compared to 36.8 percent households that used flush toilets (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2016). The report further states that despite a decline of 4.5 percentage of households in Namibia that have no toilet facilities, there is a steady increase by 9.0 percent of a household that have no toilets facilities especially in urban areas between 2009 and 2016. One of the contributing factors to this trend could be attributed to population dynamics of rural-urban migration.

Table 4.5: Types of Toilet facilities

Toilet Type		**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**	**Cumulative Percent**
Valid	Private latrine	54	47.8	49.5	49.5
	Public latrine	0	0	0	0
	Bush/No toilet	54	47.8	49.5	99.1
	Others	1	.9	.9	100.0
	Total	109	96.5	100.0	
Missing	System	4	3.5		
Total		**113**	**100.0**		

Table 4.5 presents information on respondents by type of toilet facilities that they use. It is interesting to note that the percentage of respondents using private latrines is the same as those using bush or have no toilets at 47.8 percent respectively. It was observed further that a small proportion (0.9 percent) of respondents use other means as toilet facilities apart from latrines. Table 4.5 further indicates that none of the respondents in the study indicated to use public latrines. This could be attributed to the fact that public latrines are not readily available in these rural communities, hence 47.8 percent of respondents indicated to use bush when nature calls.

4.8 Ownership of Productive Movable Assets

This section presents information on ownership of movable assets as reported by respondents. In the context of this study, movable assets refer to all productive movable and semi-fixed assets that are used to produce other products or increase productivity of the land. These assets include trucks, vehicles, tractors, generators, water pumps, animal pens, and livestock. These assets are usually deployed or employed by the owner to maximise production, especially on land.

4.8.1 Ownership of Trucks

Trucks are essential assets that farmers use to transport goods in bulk, such as livestock, crops and vegetables from a farm to market-places. Trucks are also useful assets in transporting animal fodder to other places where it may be needed by other famers, especially during drought periods. In the absence of such an asset as a truck, farmers have to hire from those who have them to transport their products from the farm to the nearest markets.

Table 4.6: Ownership of Trucks by Respondents

Number of Trucks		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	5	4.4	83.3	83.3
	3	1	.9	16.7	100.0
	Sub-Total	*6*	*5.3*	*100.0*	
	Do not have	107	94.7		
Total		**113**	**100.0**		

Table 4.6 shows that only 4.4 percent of respondents indicated to own at least one truck compared to 0.9 percent who indicated to own a maximum of 3 trucks. Table 4.6 also shows that the majority of respondents, 94.7 percent, indicated that they have no access to or ownership of trucks.

4.8.2 Ownership of Vans /Bakkies

A van (bakkie) is mostly used to transport other goods such as tools and supplement feed for animals. The ownership of a van also facilitates movement of a farmer within and outside the area. Vans are used to transport workers from one area to another. A farmer who has a van or bakkie finds it more convenient to manage his or her mobility and transportation. It is an indicator of wellbeing.

Table 4.7: Ownership of Vans/ Bakkies

No. of Vans/ Bakkies		**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**	**Cumulative Percent**
Valid	1	32	28.3	66.7	66.7
	2	12	10.6	25.0	91.7
	3	4	3.5	8.3	100.0
	Sub-Total	48	42.5	100.0	
	Don’t have	65	57.5		
Total		**113**	**100.0**		

Table 4.7 shows that 28.3 percent of respondents indicated to have ownership of at least one van, compared to 10.6 percent of respondents who indicated to have ownership of two vans per respondent, while 3.5 percent of respondents indicated that they have ownership of three vans per respondent. On the other hand, 57.5 percent of respondents indicated that they do not have ownership of vans /bakkies.

4.8.3 Ownership of Tractors

A tractor is the common vehicle mostly used by farmers on farms, for pulling or pushing other agricultural machinery or trailers, for ploughing, tilling, disking, harrowing, planting and similar tasks. Other agricultural implements can be towed behind or mounted on the tractor.

A farmer without a tractor may experience some problems in carrying out other farming activities. A tractor can also serve as a means to transporting bulky materials such as fodder, manure, water and wood or timber. In some cases, workers are also transported in the trailer of a tractor, if the farmer does not have another means of transporting workers.

Table 4.8: Ownership of Tractors

No. of Tractors		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	1	.9	20.0	20.0
	2	2	1.8	40.0	60.0
	3	1	.9	20.0	80.0
	5	1	.9	20.0	100.0
	Sub-Total	5	4.4	100.0	
	Don’t have	108	95.6		
Total		**113**	**100.0**		

Table 4.8 shows a total of only 4.4 percent of respondents have ownership of tractors ranging from one to five tractors per respondent, with only 0.9 percent of them having at least five tractors each.

Furthermore, the table shows 1.8 percent of respondents who indicated ownership of two tractors, each of them. The majority (95.6 percent) of respondents indicated that they do not have tractors. This situation shows that tractors are not necessarily common assets among the farmers in the Omaheke Region.

This could be attributed to the fact that most farmers in the Omaheke Region are livestock owners and they do not need the services of tractors on their farms, compared to crop farmers elsewhere in the country. Livestock farmers do not need to plough or cultivate their land for grazing purposes.

4.8.4 Ownership of Generators

The ownership of a generator is an indicator of improved life status in the community because a generator is used as a source of power for lighting and cooling, especially in rural areas where there is no electricity grid.

Table 4.9: Ownership of Generators

No. of Generators		**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**	**Cumulative Percent**
Valid	1	17	15.0	77.3	77.3
	2	4	3.5	18.2	95.5
	3	1	.9	4.5	100.0
	Sub-Total	22	19.5	100.0	
	Don’t have	91	80.5		
Total		**113**	**100.0**		

Table 4.9 shows that 15 percent (17 respondents) of households had ownership of one generator each and 3.5 percent had ownership of two generators, while 0.9 percent of households had indicated to have ownership of three (3) generators each. On the other hand, Table 4.9 shows that 80.5 percent of households had indicated that they do not have generators.

4.8.5 Ownership of Water Pumps

Water is one of the most important resource that supports all aspects of human life. That is why there is a slogan saying: ‘WATER IS LIFE’. Given the absence of perennial rivers in the Omaheke region, the only source of water is ground water, which has to be pumped out using water pumps. Therefore, it is a requirement that a farmer should have access to a source of water in order to have sufficient, reliable water for both human and livestock consumption.

Table 4.10: Ownership of Water Pumps

No. of Water Pumps		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	16	14.2	76.2	76.2
	2	3	2.7	14.3	90.5
	3	1	.9	4.8	95.2
	4	1	.9	4.8	100.0
	Sub-Total	21	18.6	100.0	
	Don’t have	92	81.4		
Total		**113**	**100.0**		

Table 4.10 shows that 14.2 percent of respondents indicated to have one water pump each, and 2.7 percent of respondents indicated to have two water pumps each, while only 0.9 percent of respondents indicated to have three and four water pumps each, respectively. The majority of respondents (81.4 percent) indicated that they do not have water pumps. The low percentage of ownership of water pumps could be attributed to either absence of surface water sources, or unfavourable climatic conditions leading to a poor drainage system in the arid Sandveld areas of the Omaheke Region.

4.8.6 Ownership of Animal Pens

Ownership of animal pens is an indicator of wealth because pens are associated with livestock. There is a high probability that those who have pens do have livestock as well.

Table 4.11: Ownership of Animal Pens

No. of Animal Pens		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	22	19.5	31.4	31.4
	2	17	15.0	24.3	55.7
	3	8	7.1	11.4	67.1
	4	9	8.0	12.9	80.0
	5	4	3.5	5.7	85.7
	6	4	3.5	5.7	91.4
	7	2	1.8	2.9	94.3
	8	2	1.8	2.9	97.1
	19	1	.9	1.4	98.6
	25	1	.9	1.4	100.0
	Sub-Total	*70*	*61.9*	*100.0*	
	Don't have	43	38.1		
Total		**113**	**100.0**		

Table 4.11 shows that 19.5 percent of households had ownership of an animal pen, while 15.0 percent had ownership of two (2) animal pens per household. Table 4.11 further shows that 3.5 percent of households had five (5) to six (6) animal pens. Altogether, 61.9 percent of respondents have animal pens compared to 38.1 percent of respondents who do not have animal pens.

4.8.7 Ownership of Livestock

Livestock plays an important role in the Namibian economy and the life of its people in terms of economic growth and job creation. The commercial farming sector, mainly based on livestock farming, is considered being the largest source of private employment in the country, providing jobs to 25,000 – 30,000 workers (The World Bank, 2012). While the livestock sector is important for economic growth and job creation, the relevance of the sector to livelihood and food security is revealed by the fact that over 40 percent of households in Namibia own or have access to cattle (The World Bank, 2012). A report by World Bank (2012) further states that Namibia is one of the few African countries where animal stocks exceed population numbers.

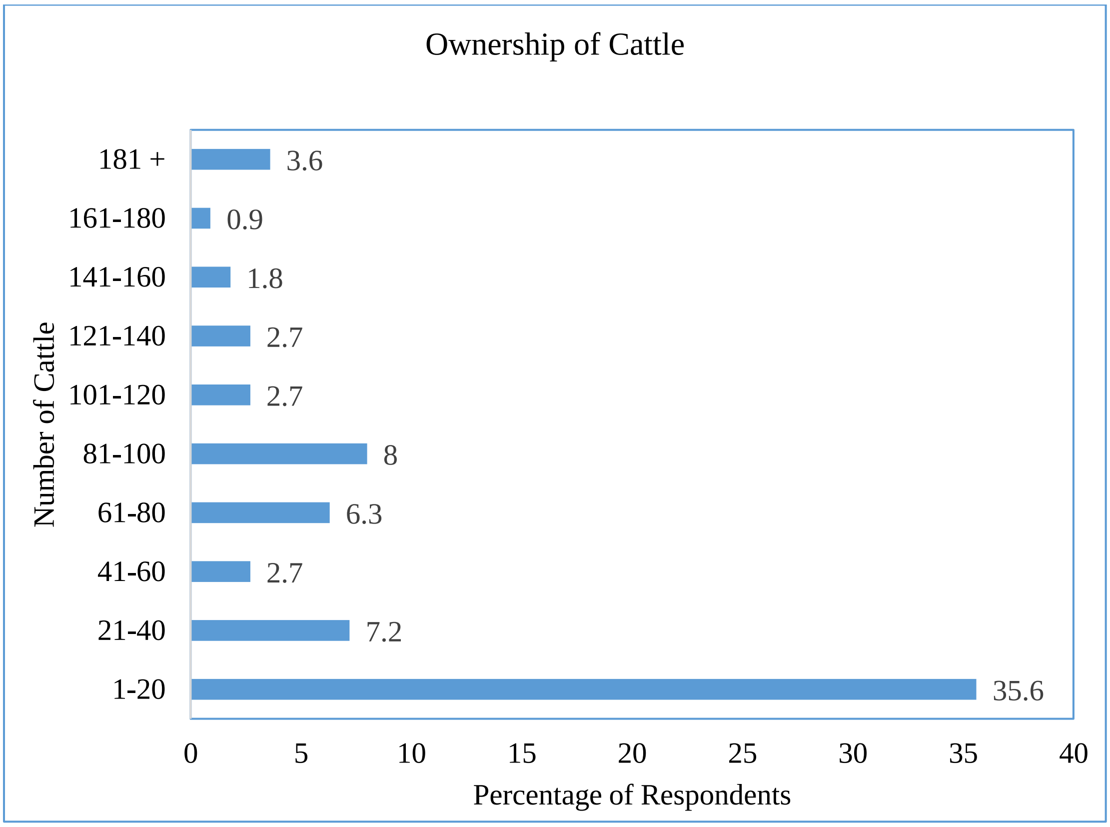

Figure 4.14 Ownership of Cattle by Respondents

Figure 4.14 shows that 35.6 percent of respondents who participated in the study own cattle ranging from 1 to 20, while 8 percent of respondents' own cattle ranging from 81 to 100, and 3.6 percent have own more than 181 cattle. Furthermore, Figure 4.14 shows that 1.8 and 2.7 percent of respondents' own cattle ranging from 141 to 160 and 121 to 140, respectively. The ownership of cattle is prevalent among communities in the Omaheke Region and cattle farming seems to be the main economic activity in this region, hence it is well known as 'The Cattle Country.' With the introduction of land redistribution, some previously landless residents in this region have access to commercial agricultural land and have been able to accumulate livestock which forms the basis for their livelihood. It is commonly known that the Ova Herero, including the Ovambanderu are predominantly dependent on livestock for food because meat and milk are the mainstay of their livelihood. Therefore, it is culturally and traditionally acceptable that everyone (men and women, including their children) should own cattle.

4.8.8 Ownership of Sheep

Respondents were asked to indicate the number of sheep that they own. Statistics below seem to indicate that sheep farming is not for everyone in the Omaheke Region compared to cattle farming. This could be attributed to climatic and vegetation conditions that may not be so conducive to sheep farming in the region.

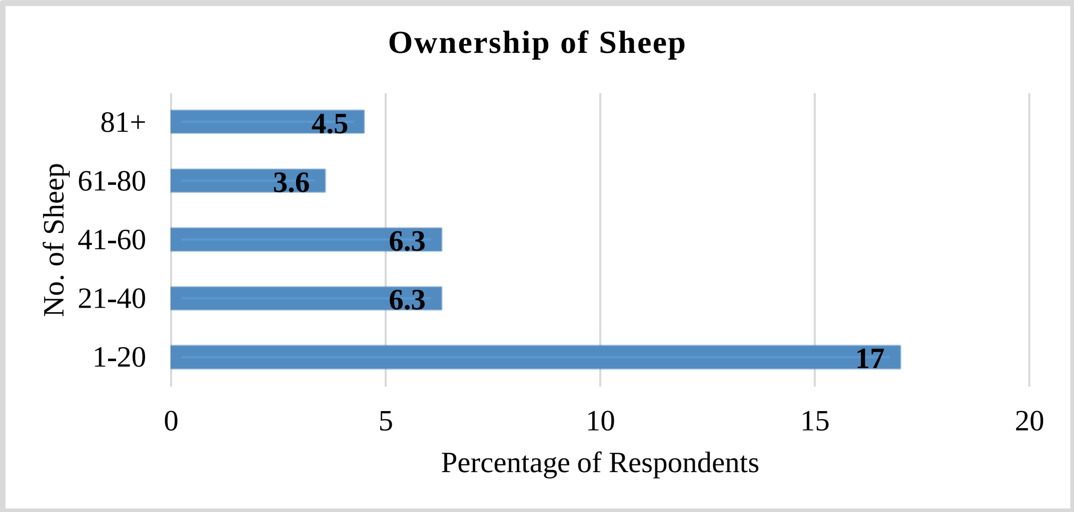

Figure 4.15 Average ownership of Sheep by respondents

Figure 4.15 shows that 17 percent of respondents indicated to have ownership of sheep numbering between 1 and 20, and 12.6 percent indicated to have ownership of sheep ranging between 21 and 60 in total, while 3.6 percent of respondents indicated to own sheep ranging from 61 to 80. A further 4.5 percent of respondents indicated to have ownership of more than 81 sheep. This means that only 37.2 percent of respondents indicated to have ownership of sheep compared to 62.8 percent of respondents who indicated to have no ownership of sheep.

4.8.9 Ownership of Horses

Horses are some of domestic animals reared in Namibia, especially in the southern region, and they are sold as draught animals used in transportation for carrying things or pulling carts, or to help plough the farmer's field in agriculture. Horses have been used by humans in many different ways; for travel, work, food, and pleasure and sport. Cavalry horses were used by the Germans during the colonial wars with the Ova Herero and the Nama communities in Namibia. Farmers also use horses for patrolling in and around their farms while looking after their cattle.

Table 4.12: Ownership of Horses by Respondents

No. of Horses		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	2	1.8	13.3	13.3
	2	1	.9	6.7	20.0
	3	4	3.5	26.7	46.7
	4	3	2.7	20.0	66.7
	5	2	1.8	13.3	80.0
	10	2	1.8	13.3	93.3
	14	1	.9	6.7	100.0
	Sub-Total	*15*	*13.3*	*100.0*	
Don't have		98	86.7		
Total		**113**	**100.0**		

Table 4.12 shows that 13.3 percent of respondents indicated to have ownership of horses ranging from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 14 while the majority of respondents, 86.7 percent, indicated that they do not own horses. The table shows that 3.5 percent of respondents own a maximum of 3 horses each while 2.7 percent own at least 4 horses each. According to statistics on domesticated animals, a total number of horses reared on farms in Namibia was 7,144 of which 173 horses were sold during 2013/2014 (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2015). The other benefits derived from horse ownership are companionship, recreation and relaxation. Many people do not often realise the health benefits that can be gained from owning a horse such as character building, keeps one physically and socially active, reduces stress, improves digestion and many other benefits (Mussatto & Tadimalla, 2019).

The ownership of horses is not so common in the Omaheke Region and this could be attributed to other factors. One of the main reasons could be that raising and maintaining horses can be expensive compared to rearing cattle and sheep, because horses require a lot of attention and care, and require plenty of land for horses to run.

4.8.10 Ownership of Goats

Goats are a type of small stock reared by farmers, mostly in commercial areas for commercial and domestic purposes or consumption. There are three main categories of goats in Namibia, namely; the Boerbok, the Kalahari Red and the Savanna goats (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2015). In addition, there are a handful of Angora and Dairy goats in Namibia. It is further reported that a total of 140,882 goats were reared in Namibia with 32,524 goats marketed during 2013/2014 (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2015).

A goat is a type of small livestock that is useful to humans when it is living and when it is dead. First a goat is a renewable provider of milk, manure, and fiber when it is alive, and then provides meat and hide when it is dead. Some charity organization or even big farmers provide goats to impoverished people in poor communities because goats are easier and cheaper to manage than cattle and have multiple uses. For instance, millions of dry goat skin are used in the United States and around the world. The Angora and other breeds selected for cashmere production have been bred for production of coats, which provide the mohair/cashmere for use in a wide range of products worldwide.

Goat milk also contains medium-chain fatty acids, more than that of cow milk. These fatty acids are known to lower cholesterol levels and help treat coronary ailments (Mussatto & Tadimalla, 2019).

In Namibia, most of the sheep and goat production is sold locally and to South Africa. Small livestock farming like sheep and goats is a viable social and economic enterprise, which can enable those who do not have any large livestock to produce their own meat for consumption as well as for sale to raise income for basic household needs, so as to improve household food security and nutrition, ultimately leading to poverty reduction and accelerating economic growth in those regions. This could be achieved by introducing goat farming projects that have a high return compared to cost (Nampa, 2006).

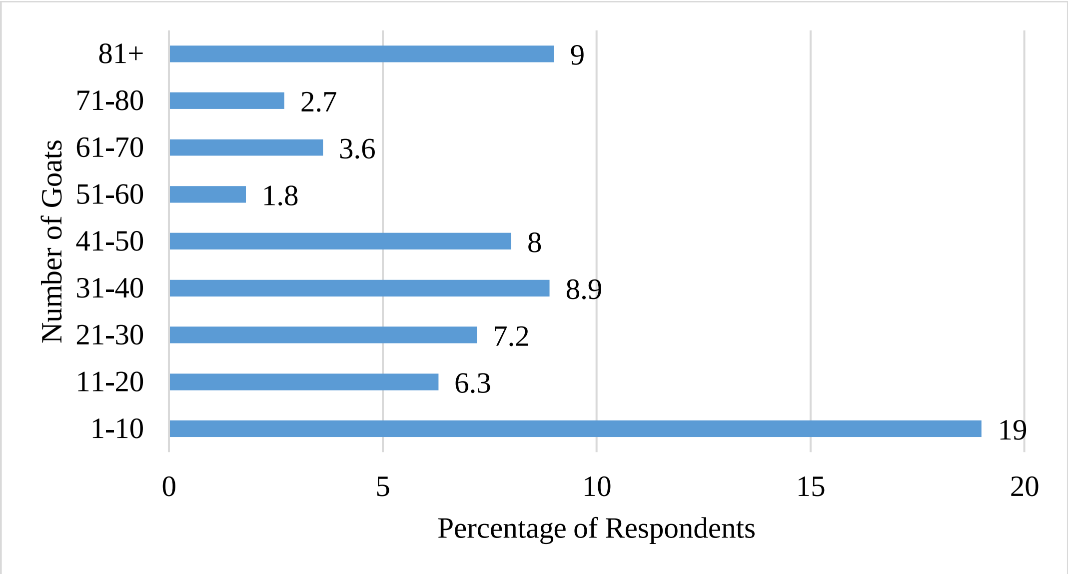

Figure 4.16 Ownership of Goats by respondents

Figure 4.16 shows that 19 percent of respondents indicated to own goats ranging from 1 to 10, and 9 percent had ownership of more than 81 goats, while 8.9 percent had ownership of goats ranging from 31 to 40. The majority, 24 percent, of respondent indicated to have ownership of goats ranging from 21 to 50.

Table 4.13: Average of Goat Ownership by respondents per Constituency

Const.	**Aminius**	**Epukiro**	**Otjinene**	**Gobabis**	**Okorukambe**	**Otjombinde**	**Kalahari**
Goats	438	221	283	1046	399	240	298
Average	32.05	13.81	20.21	61.52	24.93	17.14	17.52

Most of the respondents in the Gobabis Constituency indicated to have an average ownership of 61.5 goats per person while Aminius Constituency indicates that respondents have ownership of goats on an average of 32 goats per person as shown in Table 4.13 above.

4.9 Ownership of, and Access to Land

Throughout human existence, land has been recognised as a primary source of wealth, social status, and power. Land is the basis for shelter, food, and many economic activities. Land also has great cultural, religious, and legal significance. There is a strong correlation in many societies between the decision-making powers that a person enjoys and the quality and quantity of land rights held by that person (Food and Agriculture Organization, 2019).

Access to land refers to the ability to use land and other natural resources, to control the resources and to transfer the rights of the land and take advantage of other opportunities. Access to land is, therefore, a central issue because land is a crucial asset for food production and a key factor for shelter and community development (FAO, 2019). It is often stated that rural poor people depend on agriculture and related activities for their livelihood, but a majority of the rural people have limited access to land. Fixed or immovable assets in this section refers to land for agriculture, such as land used for grazing livestock, for crops or gardening, and a plot (commonly known as Erven / Erf) for residential purposes. The subsequent tables below show the ownership of or access to land as fixed assets by respondents.

4.9.1 Numbers and Average Sizes of Farms in Omaheke Region

Out of the 212 commercial farms in Omaheke, 195 of them are privately owned, while the remaining 17 are government farms under the National Resettlement Programme.

Figure 4.17 below shows the numbers and average sizes of farms in the Omaheke Region:

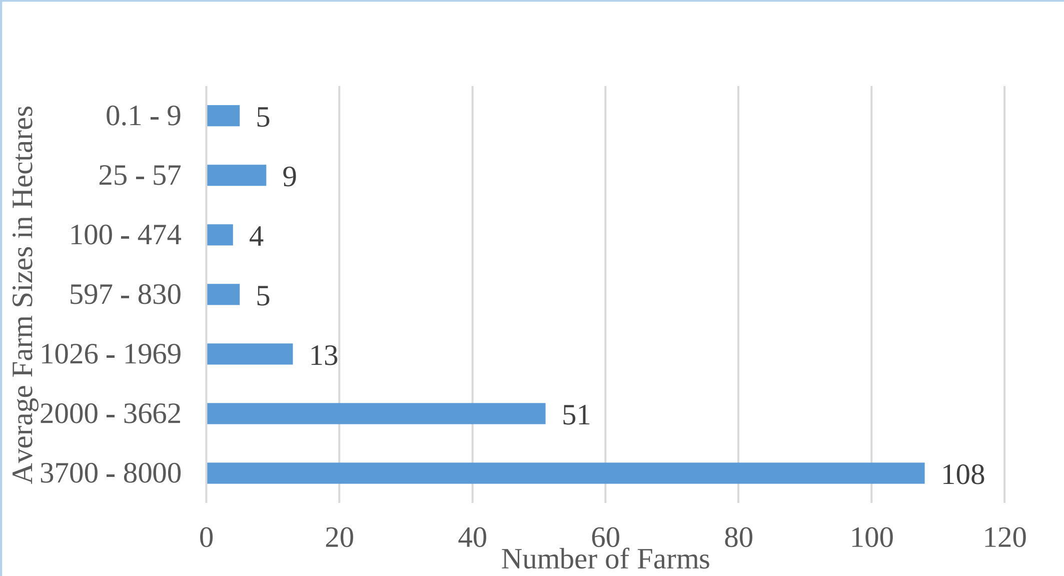

Figure 4.17 Number and Average farm sizes in the Omaheke Region
Source: Ministry of Land Reform Database, 2017

Figure 4.17 shows the 195 farms, divided into seven categories according to sizes. Some of the farms are too big compared to others. This difference in size should be taken into consideration when determining the carrying capacity in line with the agro-ecological factors (climatic conditions, vegetation types, soil type, landform and soil features) in the Region. As it is clearly shown in Figure 4.17 above, the first category comprises 108 farms ranging from 3700 and more hectares, followed by a second category of 51 farms with the size ranging from 2000 to 3662 hectares.

The third category comprises 13 farms with the size ranging from 1,026 to 1969 hectares. The last three categories of farms are very small with average sizes ranging from 9 to 470 ha, compared to the first three categories. Figure 4.17 shows that 88.2 percent (172) of farms have size ranging from 1026 to more than 3700 ha. According to the Ministry, the average farm size for commercial livestock farming in the Omaheke Region ranges between 1500 and 2000 ha (MLR, 2017).

If the size of agricultural land was strictly controlled by law not to allow one farmer owning more land exceeding the allowable ceiling of, for example, 1,500 ha, then anyone who has farmland smaller than 300 ha could be classified as near landless, and those who have land smaller than 150 ha could be classified as land poor, while those without land or have no access to land would be classified as landless (the landless of the landless). This situation is only applicable to agricultural land needed for livestock farming, a common agricultural activity in the Omaheke Region, the Cattle Country. The other agricultural activities like piggery, chicken farming, crop farming and horticulture may only require small portions of land ranging from 1 to 50 ha.

4.9.2 Access to Land for Gardening

Gardening is a socio-economic activity in which a piece of land is gardened by a group of people or an individual, providing access to fresh produce, herbs, flowers and plants. Gardening is also a way of access to satisfying labour, neighborhood improvement, sense of community and connection to the environment.

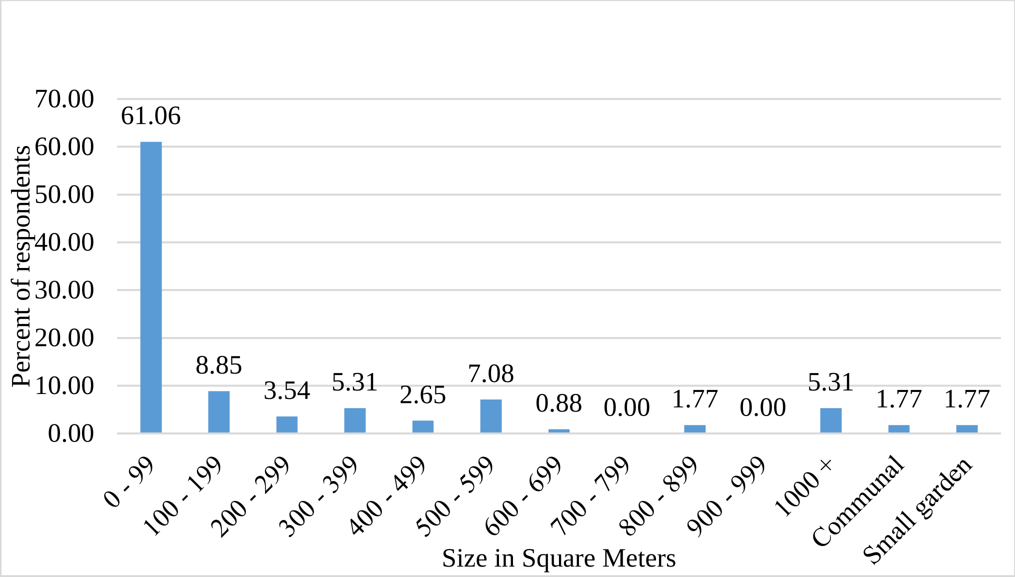

Figure 4.18 Ownership/Access to Land for Gardening

Figure 4.18 above shows that the majority, 61 percent, of respondents indicated that they have land for gardening ranging from 0 – 99 square meters, while 27.3 percent of respondents have access to gardening land ranging between 100 to 599 square meters in size. On the contrary, about 8 percent of respondents have access to gardening land with the size ranging from 600 to 1000 square meters.

Furthermore, Figure 4.18 shows that 3.5 percent of respondents do not know the size of gardening land which they have access to, but indicated that they do their gardening in communal areas on small pieces of land which they call ‘small garden’. Figure 4.18

shows the inequality in terms of access to land, even for gardening, where others have big pieces while others have very small or even nothing at all.

4.9.3 Access to /Ownership of Land for Grazing

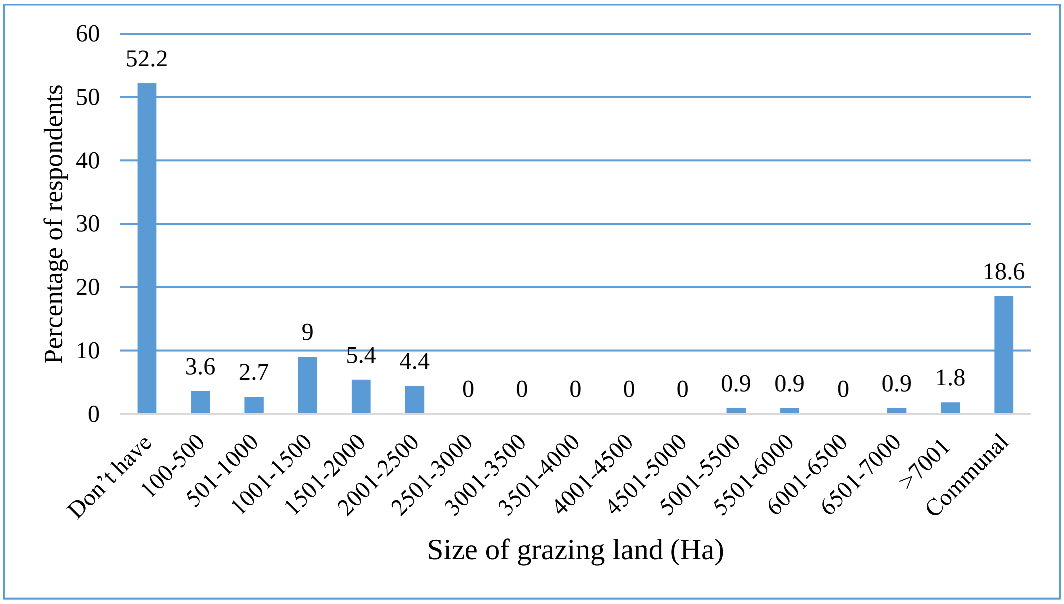

Figure 4.19 Average size of grazing land accessible/owned by respondents

In Figure 4.19, the sizes of grazing land are grouped into categories and shows that respondents had access to or ownership of grazing land with sizes varying between 100 and 2500, while 1.8 percent of respondents had access to grazing land of larger than 7001. The majority of respondents, making up 52.2 percent, indicated that they 'Don't have', meaning they do not own land but still have access to land for grazing their cattle. It make sense to state that all respondents who indicated that they have livestock (cattle, goats, sheep, donkeys, horses, etc.) have access to land for grazing their animals, even though they do not have the ownership of such land.

Figure 4.19 also shows that 18.6 percent of respondents indicated that they had access only to communal land for grazing purposes. This indicates that those who graze their livestock in communal areas might not have access to or ownership of privately-owned grazing land or farms in commercial areas.

Figure 4.19 further shows that 3.6 and 2.7 percent of respondents had access to land with sizes varying between 100 to 500 and 501 to 1000 hectares, respectively. While 9 percent and 5.4 percent of respondents had access or ownership of grazing land varying from 1001 to 1500 and 1501 to 2000 hectares, respectively. It is interesting to note that there are respondents who had access or ownership of grazing land within the size ranging from 2501 to 5000 hectares, but 0.9 and 1.8 percent of respondents indicated to have access or ownership of grazing land ranging from 6501 to 7000 and more.

It is evident from Figure 4.19 that access to or ownership of grazing land is highly inequitable and creates landlessness among communities in the Omaheke Region. This is demonstrated by the high percentage (52.2) of respondents who indicated that they do not have access/ownership of grazing land and a further 18.6 percent who are still grazing in communal areas, despite the increasing number of livestock in those areas. This leads to overgrazing in communal areas and poor quality of livestock produced.

4.9.4 Ownership/Access to Residential Plot /Erven

Respondents were asked to indicate the exact or estimate sizes of their residential plots or Erven in square meters (m^2). This information was not supported by any documentary proof, but the researcher relied on what was stated by the respondents.

Table 4.14: Ownership/Access to Residential Plot by Respondents

	Size of Residential Site in M^2	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	9.00	12	10.6	10.6	10.6
	10.00	1	.9	.9	11.5
	11.00	1	.9	.9	12.4
	12.00	1	.9	.9	13.3
	20.00	2	1.8	1.8	15.1
	30.00	1	.9	.9	16.0
	40.00	1	.9	.9	16.9
	54.00	1	.9	.9	17.8
	56.00	1	.9	.9	18.7
	60.00	1	.9	.9	19.6
	64.00	1	.9	.9	20.5
	70.00	2	1.8	1.8	22.3
	80.00	1	.9	.9	23.2
	90.00	1	.9	.9	24.1
	96.00	1	.9	.9	25.0
	200.00	2	1.8	1.8	26.8
	300.00	2	1.8	1.8	28.6
	400.00	3	2.7	2.7	31.3
	560.00	1	.9	.9	32.2
	600.00	2	1.8	1.8	34.0
	700.00	1	.9	.9	34.9
	1000.00	1	.9	.9	35.8
	1050.00	1	.9	.9	36.7
	1200.00	1	.9	.9	37.6
	1500.00	1	.9	.9	38.5
	5000.00	1	.9	.9	39.4
	Sub-Total	44	38.9	38.9	
Missing	Don’t know	69	61.1	61.1	100.0
Total		**113**	**100.0**	**100**	

Table 4.14 shows that 61.1 percent of respondents did not know the sizes of their residential plots compared to 38.9 percent of respondents who gave the sizes or estimates of their plots. The information shows that 10.6 percent of respondents had plots that were only 9.00 square meters or less, while a total of 6.3 percent of respondents reported to having plots with sizes ranging from 200 to 400 square meters.

Furthermore, a total of 5.4 percent of respondents indicated to have plots with sizes ranging from 700 to 5000 while another 5.4 percent of respondents indicated to having plots with sizes ranging from 30 to 64 square meters. Here again it is evident that even residential plots are not equally distributed nor accessible by most people, there are those who own bigger plots while others own very small or nothing at all. This situation leads to creating communities who are landless, and landlessness may negatively impact on the economic and social standing (livelihood) of the landless.

4.10: Impact of Landlessness on Economic Development

This section presents the second part of the quantitative data that was collected from the field by using a questionnaire. All responses were recorded on a five-point Likert scale anchored by Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5). The results and findings are presented in tables (matrix) to show correlations and variances between variables that were identified as a means to assess the impact of landlessness on social and economic development of communities in the Omaheke Region. As indicated earlier, this study used the Pearson's Correlation Coefficient to analyze the significance and strength of the relationship between sets of variables in order to describe and predict the result. Correlation coefficient is the degree to which the change in a set of variables is related; trying to find out if two variables have a correlation at all, how strong the correlation is and if the correlation is positive or negative.

As stated, the correlation coefficient equation gives a number between -1 and 1. The closer the number is to a positive one (1), the stronger the positive correlation. A correlation coefficient of 1 means that for every positive increase in one variable, there is a positive increase of a fixed proportion in the other variable. The closer the number is to negative one (-1), the stronger the negative correlation. This means that for every positive increase in one variable, there is a negative decrease of a fixed proportion in the other variable. The closer the number is to zero, the weaker the correlation, while zero (0) means there is no correlation between the variables at all. Zero (0) means that for every increase in one variable, there is no positive or negative increase in the other variable. This means the two variables are not related at all. The quantitative data was coded from the questionnaire in preparation for determining the extent of correlation between and among variables that were identified for the purposes of this study. The variables were assigned codes and presented in tabular format. SPSS permitted the calculation of correlations at a time and presents the results in a ‘correlation matrix’ as shown in the subsequent tables and matrixes that follows. The matrixes are symmetrical on either side of the diagonal, meaning all correlations (variables) are given twice.

4.10.1 Correlation between Landlessness and land redistribution programme

This section shows the correlation matrix between landlessness variables and the program of land redistribution variables as expressed by respondents in the seven Constituencies of the Omaheke Region. The variables and codes used in this section are outlined and explained in detail in APPENDIX I.

Table 4.15: Correlation between landlessness and land redistribution variables

	DDI_D1	PDT	WWB	CAR	ALR	ALE	LSB	LCR	LCG	GFT	EVO	LGL_D1
DDI_D1	1											
PDT	-0.080	1										
WWB	0.135	-0.022	1									
CAR	-0.020	0.100	-0.087	1								
ALR	0.165	-.191*	.392**	-.300**	1							
ALE	.253**	-0.008	0.180	0.012	0.153	1						
LSB	0.154	0.021	0.008	.204*	.201*	0.138	1					
LCR	-.252**	0.045	0.137	0.008	-0.126	0.093	-.334**	1				
LCG	0.172	0.014	.193*	.200*	0.171	0.143	.438**	-0.172	1			
GFT	-.221*	0.017	-.389**	.313**	-.373**	-0.165	0.024	.239*	-0.129	1		
EVO	0.117	0.047	.443**	-.234*	.408**	0.128	0.133	-0.146	.195*	-.476**	1	
LGL_D1	.331**	-0.029	0.166	-0.138	.314**	.422**	0.140	0.012	0.155	-0.096	.229*	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.15 shows that there is a significant, strong positive correlation between LGL_DI and ALE (r = .422**), this means, when agricultural land is equitably distributed by the land redistribution programme, the gap between the landed and the landless becomes narrow (reduced).

Another positive correlation is between EVO and WWB (r = .443**), there is a relationship between willing seller, willing buyer principle as a viable policy option for achieving land redistribution even in the absence of expropriation. There is another positive correlation between EVO and ALR (r = .408**), and between LCG and LSB (r = .438**), productivity of land increases when land is allocated to those who have cattle or goat and need of grazing.

Table 4.15 also shows that there is a moderate positive relationship between LGL_D1 and DDI_D1 (r = .331**); between ALR and WWB (r = .392**); between GFT and CAR (r = .313**); and between LGL_D1 and ALR (r = .314**). There is also a weak positive relationship between ALE and DDI_D1 (r = .253**); between LSB and CAR (r = .204*); between LCG and CAR (r = .200*); between LSB and ALR (r = .201*); and between GFT and LCR (r = .239*). There is another negligible positive relationship between EVO and LCG (r = .195*), and between LCG and WWB (r = .193*).

Furthermore, Table 4.15 shows a strong negative correlation that emerged between EVO and GFT (r = -.476**), this correlation means land expropriation may fast-track land-reform but the viability of the programme may be negatively affected. While a moderate negative relationship is shown between GFT and WWB (r = -.389**); between ALR and CAR (r = -.300**); between GFT and ALR (r = -.373**); and between LCR and LSB (r = -.334**). The table also shows that there is a weak negative relationship between LCR and DDI_D1 (r = -.252**); between GFT and DDI_D1 (r = -.221*); between EVO and CAR (r = -.234*); and between ALR and PDT (r = -.191*).

4.10.2 Access to Land and Landlessness

This section shows the correlation matrix on variables pertaining to access to land and landlessness as expressed by respondents in the Omaheke Region. The variables and codes used in this section are outlined in APPENDIX J.

Table 4.16: Correlation between variables on access to land and landlessness

	PD_D2	PAC	PCC	PDN	LCS	LON	LID	LFF_D2
PD_D2	1							
PAC	.404**	1						
PCC	0.107	-0.020	1					
PDN	0.129	-0.060	0.174	1				
LCS	0.158	.210*	.215*	0.065	1			
LON	0.102	-0.087	.202*	.452**	.308**	1		
LID	0.092	-.208*	.289**	.338**	0.177	.453**	1	
LFF_D2	0.038	-0.015	.247**	0.157	0.186	0.077	0.154	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 4.16 shows that there is a strong positive correlation between PAC and PD_D2 (r = .404**); between LID and LON (r = .453**); between LON and PDN (r = .452);

between LID and PDN (r = .338**); between LON and LCS (r = .308**); between LID and PCC (r = .289**); and between LFF and PCC (r = .247**). The table also shows some weak positive relationships between LCS and PAC (r = .210*); between LCS and PCC (r = .215*) and; between LON and PCC (r = .202*). Table 4.16 further shows that a weak negative relationship emerged between LID and PAC (r = -.208*).

4.10.4 Extent or Degree of Agreement on Statements

Respondents were asked to indicate the degree or extent of agreement on the following statement: *Most indigenous people or previously disadvantaged communities (PDC) are landless in your Constituency.*

Table 4.17: Extent of Agreement by Respondents on Landless in their Constituencies

Constituency	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Aminius	0	3	3	8	5	19
Otjinene	3	0	2	5	4	14
Kalahari	0	1	4	6	6	17
Epukiro	6	2	0	2	6	16
Gobabis	1	2	1	5	8	17
Okorukambe	0	0	2	5	9	16
Otjombinde	0	2	3	6	3	14
Total	**10**	**10**	**15**	**37**	**41**	**113**

Table 4.17 shows that 78 respondents out of 113 (69 percent) agreed and strongly agreed that most indigenous people or the previously disadvantaged communities in the Omaheke Region are landless, while 20 out of 113 (18 percent) disagreed with the statement. Furthermore, the table shows that 15 out 113 (13.3 percent) indicated that they were not sure. Okorukambe Constituency has the highest respondents (14) who agreed and strongly agreed, followed by Gobabis and Aminius Constituencies with 13 (11.5 percent) respondents each.

Respondents were asked to indicate the degree or extent of agreement on the following statement: *The **Previously** disadvantaged **Communities** in your **Constituency** have **little** access to agricultural land*.

Table 4.18: Extent of Agreement on Access to Land by Previously Disadvantaged Communities

Constituency	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Aminius	1	1	2	11	4	19
Otjinene	1	1	1	8	3	14
Kalahari	1	0	1	10	5	17
Epukiro	0	0	0	3	13	16
Gobabis	1	2	2	8	4	17
Okorukambe	0	1	0	5	11	16
Otjombinde	0	2	1	7	4	14
Total	**4**	**7**	**7**	**52**	**44**	**113**

Table 4.18 shows that 52 out of 113 (46 percent) respondents indicated that they agreed while 44 out 113 (39 percent) indicated that they strongly agreed that the previously disadvantaged communities in their respective Constituencies have ***little*** access to agricultural land. This means a total of 96 out of 113 (85 percent) of respondents agreed that the previously disadvantaged communities have little access to land in the Omaheke Region. On the contrary, 11 out 113 (10 percent) of respondents indicated that they do not agree with the statement, and only 7 (6.2 percent) indicated that they were not sure.

4.10.5 Landlessness and Socio-Economic Development

This section shows the extent of correlation between landlessness and socio-economic development as expressed by respondents in the seven constituencies of the Omaheke Region. The variables and Codes used in this section are outlined in APPENDIX K.

Table 4.19: Correlation between Landlessness and Socio-Economic Development

	FPO_D3	APS	CER	PII	PLB	OCG_D3
FPO_D3	**1**					
APS	**0.070**	**1**				
CER	**.210***	**.412****	**1**			
PII	**.436****	**.191***	**.430****	**1**		
PLB	**-.267****	**0.149**	**0.108**	**-.262****	**1**	
OCG_D3	**-0.050**	**0.040**	**0.140**	**0.160**	**.230***	**1**

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.19 shows that there is a strong positive correlation between PII and FPO_D3 (r = .436**); between CER and APS (r = .412**) and; between PII and CER (r = .430**). While a weak positive relationship emerged between CER and FPO_D3 (r = .210*); between OCG_D3 and PLB (r= .230*) and between PII and APS (r = .191*). Furthermore, the table shows that there is a negative (inverse) correlation that emerged between PLB and FPO_D3 (r = -.267**) and between PLB and PII (r = -.262**).

Respondents were asked to indicate the degree or extent of agreement on the following statement: *Landlessness has proved to be both the cause and the manifestation of poverty, insecurity, indebtedness and powerlessness of the majority of rural households in the Omaheke Region.*

Table 4.20: Extent of Agreement on Landlessness as the Cause of Poverty in the Omaheke Region

Constituency	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Aminius	0	1	3	9	6	19
Otjinene	0	1	2	4	7	14
Kalahari	1	0	1	11	4	17
Epukiro	0	0	0	2	14	16
Gobabis	0	1	2	8	6	17
Okorukambe	0	2	1	5	8	16
Otjombinde	0	2	0	6	6	14
Total	**1**	**7**	**9**	**45**	**51**	**113**

Table 4.20 shows that 51 out of 113 respondents (45 percent) agreed strongly that landlessness is the cause and the manifestation of poverty, insecurity, indebtedness and powerlessness among the majority of rural households in the Omaheke Region. Another 45 out 113 respondents (about 40 percent) indicated that they just agreed with the same statement while 8 out of 113 respondents (7 percent) indicated that they disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement. Only 9 respondents (about 8 percent) indicated that they were not sure. The table further shows that the highest number (14) of respondents that strongly agreed with the statement is in the Epukiro Constituency followed by Okorukambe (8), while the highest number (11) of respondents who just agreed is in the Kalahari Constituency followed by Aminius Constituency (9).

Table 4.21: Types of Land-Use Needs by Respondents per Constituency

Constituency	Crop	Cattle	Horticulture	Residential	Other
Aminius	5	12	1	3	0
Epukiro	2	15	0	2	0
Gobabis	0	11	0	3	0
Kalahari	0	13	2	1	0
Otjinene	1	10	0	0	0
Otjombinde	2	11	0	2	0
Okorukambe	1	14	0	2	0
Total	**11**	**86**	**3**	**13**	**0**

Table 4.21 shows that the majority, 86 out of 113 (76.1 percent) respondents in the seven constituencies indicated that they need land for grazing purposes, while the need for crop and residential land stand at about 9.7 and 11.5 percent respectively. The need for horticulture is the least indicated by only 3 respondents (2.7 percent). These numbers are a clear indication that cattle or animal husbandry is the most agricultural activity undertaken in the Omaheke Region. It is interesting to see that Aminius has the most respondents of 5 who indicated the need for cropland compared to all the

other Constituencies. The overall situation shows that there is landlessness in the Omaheke Region, hence people have indicated the need for such land.

4.10.6 Policy Strategies to address Landlessness

This section shows the extent of correlation of variables between policy strategies for addressing landlessness as expressed by respondents in the seven constituencies of the Omaheke Region. The variables and codes used in this section are outlined in APPENDIX G

Table 4.22: Correlation between Policy Strategies and Landlessness

	ALC_D4	GSP	ALW	ALV	AFL	BAA	FAM	BTR_D4
ALC_D4	**1**							
GSP	**0.173**	**1**						
ALW	**.203***	**.193***	**1**					
ALV	**0.154**	**0.050**	**-0.122**	**1**				
AFL	**-0.014**	**-0.109**	**.298****	**0.154**	**1**			
BAA	**.235***	**0.016**	**-.278****	**.447****	**-.231***	**1**		
FAM	**0.056**	**0.002**	**-0.092**	**0.026**	**-0.035**	**0.052**	**1**	
BTR_D4	**0.107**	**0.075**	**-0.156**	**-0.062**	**0.110**	**0.091**	**0.070**	**1**

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.22 shows that there is a strong positive correlation between BAA and ALV (r = .447**), and between AFL and ALW (r = .298**). This positive correlation indicates that agricultural land should be allocated to people who have no land, but have income or livestock and need land for grazing their livestock. Such beneficiaries should also have a background or interest in agricultural activities. The Matrix also shows that there is a weak but positive correlation between BAA and ALC_D4 (r = .235*) and between ALW and ALC_D4 (r = .203*). This indicates that the land policy should consider ancestral land claims and restitution, as well as people who have no land, no income and no livestock but have background or interest in doing agricultural activities. While, a strong negative correlation emerged between BAA and ALW (r =

-.278**). Furthermore, a weak negative correlation is shown between BAA and AFL (r = -.231*).

The subsequent tables show responses that were recorded on a five-point Likert Scale of 1 to 5, anchored by *Strongly Disagree; Disagree; Not Sure; Agree; and Strongly Agree*. Respondents were required to indicate their extent of agreement or disagreement with each of the statements.

The results and findings are presented in the subsequent tables as indicated below. Statement: *Landlessness is caused by lack of effective government policies and strategies to address inequality /disparities in land ownership/distribution.*

Table 4.23: Landlessness is caused by lack of effective policies

Constituency	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Aminius	0	1	3	9	6	19
Otjinene	1	2	1	5	5	14
Kalahari	2	4	2	6	3	17
Epukiro	0	0	2	7	7	16
Gobabis	1	7	4	2	3	17
Okorukambe	0	1	4	10	1	16
Otjombinde	0	1	2	4	7	14
Total	**4**	**16**	**18**	**43**	**32**	**113**
Percentage	**3.53**	**14.15**	**15.92**	**38.05**	**28.31**	**100**

Table 4.23 shows that 38.05 percent of respondents agreed while 28.31 percent strongly agreed that landlessness is caused by lack of effective government policies and strategies to address inequality /disparities in land ownership/distribution. On the other hand, 14.15 percent of respondents disagreed, and 3.53 percent strongly disagreed on the same statement. While 15.92 percent of respondents indicated that they were not sure.

Respondents were asked to indicate their extent of agreement or disagreement on the following statement: *In order to overcome landlessness and achieve equitable access /ownership of land, the* ***Government should put*** *a* ***ceiling /limit*** *on the size of agricultural land that an individual is allowed to own/use.*

Table 4.24: Government should put a Ceiling on Land Size

Constituency	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Aminius	0	1	4	8	6	19
Otjinene	0	0	0	8	6	14
Kalahari	1	1	1	6	8	17
Epukiro	0	0	0	3	13	16
Gobabis	1	3	1	2	8	17
Okorukambe	0	0	0	4	12	16
Otjombinde	0	0	0	6	8	14
Total	**2**	**5**	**6**	**36**	**61**	**113**
Percentage	**1.76**	**4.42**	**5.30**	**31.85**	**53.98**	**100**

Table 4.24 shows that 61 out of 113 respondents (53.98 percent) indicated that they strongly agree while 36 out of 113 respondents (31.85 percent) indicated that they agree that Government should put a ceiling / limit on the size of agricultural land that an individual is allowed to own or use privately as a policy intervention to curb landlessness and achieve equity in land ownership. The total number of the respondents who AGREED and STRONGLY AGREED makes 85.28 percent. The table also shows some variations of responses between constituencies, with the majority (13 out 16) or 81 percent of respondents in the Epukiro Constituency indicated that they strongly agree followed by Okorukambe Constituency with 12 out 16 (75 percent) respondents.

On the contrary, only 7 respondents (6.2 percent) indicated that they disagree and strongly disagree with the statement, and the highest number (4) of disagreement is in the Gobabis Constituency; while 6 out of 113 respondents (5.3 percent) indicated that they were not sure, and the majority (4 out of 6) are in the Aminius Constituency.

Respondents were asked to indicate the extent of agreement or disagreement on the following statement: *Making provision for* ***Ancestral Land Claims*** *and restitution may contribute to a reduction in landlessness among the previously dispossessed communities in the Omaheke Region.*

Table 4.25: Make Provision for Ancestral Land Claims and Restitution

Constituency	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Aminius	3	1	4	8	3	19
Otjinene	2	3	2	3	4	14
Kalahari	4	3	1	2	7	17
Epukiro	2	0	1	3	10	16
Gobabis	6	3	3	3	2	17
Okorukambe	5	5	2	4	0	16
Otjombinde	2	2	2	4	4	14
Total	**24**	**17**	**15**	**27**	**30**	**113**
Percentage	**21.23**	**15.04**	**13.27**	**23.89**	**26.54**	**100**

Table 4.25 shows that 30 out of 113 respondents (26.54 percent) indicated that they strongly agree while 27 out of 113 respondents (23.89 percent) indicated that they agree that making provision for **ancestral land claims** and restitution may contribute to a reduction in landlessness among the previously dispossessed communities in the Omaheke Region.

The total of 57 respondents (50.44 percent) ‘AGREED’ and ‘STRONGLY AGREED’ that government should consider making provision for ancestral land claims to address landlessness in the Omaheke region. The highest number (10 out of 16) of respondents who strongly agreed with the statement is in the Epukiro Constituency. The table also shows that 24 out of 113 indicated that they strongly disagree and 17 indicated disagreement with the same statement, and the highest number of disagreements is in the Okorukambe Constituency, with 5 strongly disagree and 5 disagree.

4.10.7 Renting Grazing Land and Evictions from Land

This section presents statistics on issues pertaining to renting of grazing land and evictions from land as expressed by the respondents in the seven constituencies of the Omaheke Region. Respondents were asked to answer with a *YES* or *NO* to the questions as indicated in Table 4.26 and Table 4.27 below. Usually, the terms ‘renting’ and ‘leasing’ are commonly used interchangeably, but technically, leasing implies use of land for particular purposes for a longer-term period of time (a year or longer), while rent means the money paid by a tenant or involves a short-term agreement (e.g. a month-to-month). Renting or leasing land, sometimes called a ground lease, is a lease agreement that permits the tenant to use a piece of land owned by the landlord in exchange for rent. Land leases work very similar to the way traditional property leases operate, and tenants can enter into both residential and commercial agreements. Through renting or leasing arrangements, some landless farmers may have access to land, if they are able to afford the rent/lease amount.

QUESTION: Did you rent other people's land for grazing between 2010 and 2016?

Table 4.26: Rented Land for Grazing

Constituency	Aminius		Epukiro		Gobabis		Kalahari		Otjinene		Otjombinde		Okorukambe	
Response	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Total	1	15	0	17	2	12	5	11	2	10	4	10	1	15

Table 4.26 shows that 15 (14.28 percent) out of the 105 respondents indicated [YES] that they rented land for grazing between 2010 and 2016. The most renting of grazing land is indicated in the Kalahari Constituency with 5 respondents who said YES, followed by Otjombinde Constituency (4), while Gobabis and Otjinene indicates 2 in each Constituency, with Aminius and Okorukambe 1 each. Renting or leasing grazing land is an indicator of landlessness.

Renting shows that there are some people who have more than enough land which they can rent /lease out to those who have little or no land (the landlessness) but have money to afford to pay rent, while not enough to buy land. These types of arrangements usually benefits the landlord more than the tenant and ultimately weakens the economic strength and growth of the small farmers who are landless. However, renting is another way of widening access to land for those who cannot afford to buy such land for agricultural purposes. Exchanging land through formal or informal rental arrangements is important for a number of reasons, suggesting that in many circumstances rentals can have advantages over sales markets. For example, rental markets (a) allow flexibility in adjusting the land area used with low transaction cost; (b) require only a limited capital outlay, thereby leaving some liquidity available for productive investments rather than locking it all up in land; (c) facilitate easy reallocation of land toward more efficient users than the current owners, especially if the current owners are old, are non-cultivating heirs, are urban beneficiaries of restitutions; (d) provide a stepping stone towards land ownership by the landless; and (e) help overcome market failures in labour, insurance, credit, management, and supervision.

Table 4.26 shows that the majority (about 85.71 percent) of respondents indicated that they did not rent or lease land for grazing within the same period.

Eviction is the action usually taken by a landlord to expel or remove someone from a property against his/her will; to force someone to move out of a property, to go and live somewhere else.

Table 4.27: Evicted from Land

Aminius		Epukiro		Gobabis		Kalahari		Otjinene		Otjombinde		Okorukambe	
Yes	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**
3	**13**	**1**	**16**	**1**	**13**	**2**	**14**	**2**	**10**	**3**	**10**	**0**	**16**

Table 4.27 shows that among the respondents who participated in this study, 12 (11 percent) of them indicated that they were evicted from land by landlords. Evictions are indicated in Aminius (3), Otjombinde (3), Kalahari (2), Otjinene (2), Epukiro (1) and Gobabis (1). When a person is evicted from land, that person becomes landless and displaced, and increases the number of landless people in the region. Eviction creates inconveniences to the evictees by disrupting the normal flow of livelihood and economic activities, especially for livestock farmers because they have to move with their animals in a search for grazing and space to settle on.

4.11 SECTION B: QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

This section presents the qualitative data from the questionnaire that contained open-ended questions that were asked to respondents including the seven (7) Constituency Councillors, as political heads of each constituency, to indicate and express their opinions and understanding of various issues related to landlessness and economic development in the Omaheke Region. The qualitative data analysis was done by employing the ATLAS.ti software. The ATLAS.ti software is an analytical tool used in qualitative research for coding, reducing, and inferring qualitative data. After all the quotations were recorded in a word document, the document (*Primary Documents*) was assigned or loaded into ATLAS.ti. The quotations were then coded where *Open or in vivo coding* was used. Lines of data in the quotations that were considered important or relevant were coded. This process according to Silva & Lewins (2014) attempts at systematically grouping aspects that are of interest to the research.

After coding, prominent codes emerge and these are the ones that are now focused on answering the research questions (Silva & Lewins, 2014). Codes that have similarity are merged and those that do not appear much are eliminated during the second stage of coding. Krippendorff (2013, p.356), contends that ATLAS-ti software provides the ability to link quotations to create networks where patterns are identified which are helpful in report writing (Krippendorff, 2004). The themes were grouped into families of networks to make connections and relationships between quotations, codes and themes, as presented in the Figures in this section below.

4.11.1 Expressed Views on Size of Land Needed

Respondents were asked the following question: *How much (size) land does one need to do farming in your region/area?* This was an open-ended question and respondents came up with varying sizes as summarised below:

The final analysis indicated that 45 percent of respondents suggested that a farm size should be at least 1500 hectares, 20 percent came up with 2000 to 2500 hectares taking into consideration the climatic conditions of the region and the number of livestock one has, while 15 percent of respondents proposed that a farm in Omaheke should be more or less than 4000 hectares. Then the other 20 percent of respondents were of the view that even 100 to 500 hectares will do, especially for small stock farming.

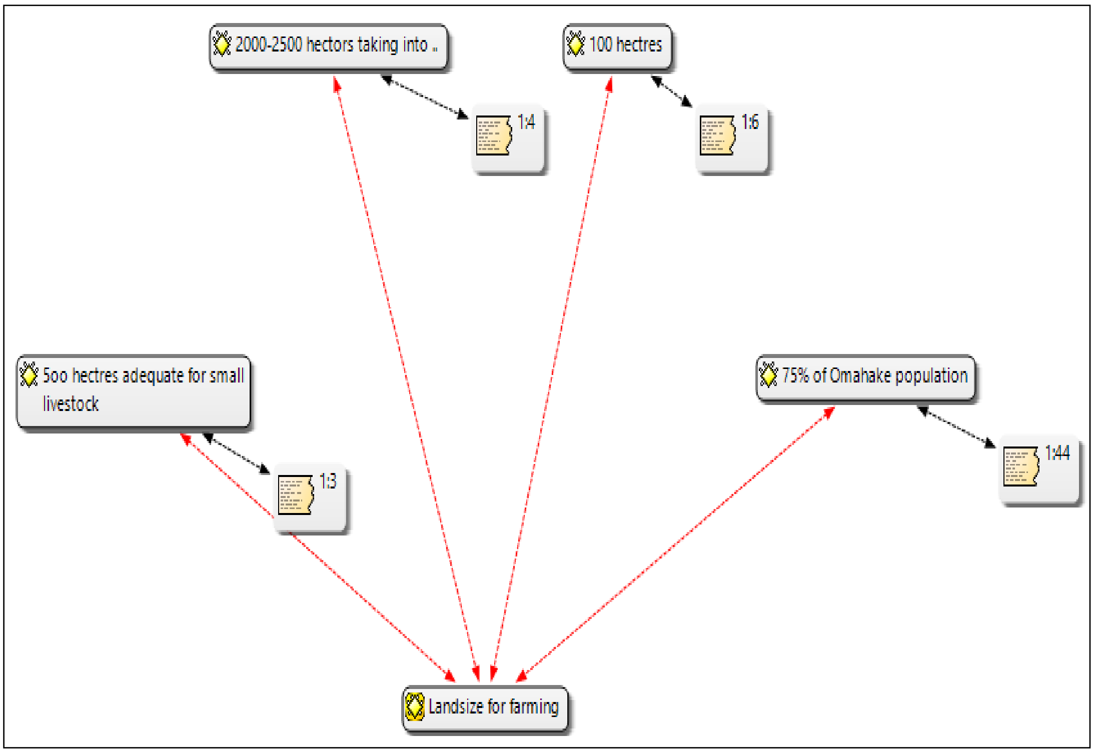

Figure 4.20 Size of land needed for farming in the Omaheke Region
Source: Responses from the Reseach Questionnaire

From the summary of responses and figures given above in Figure 4.20, it could be deduced from the participants' views that one may need, on average, about 1,766.6 hectares of land to carry out a relatively good livestock farming in the Omaheke Region. This average estimate is based on the opinions of participants and not on economic analysis. Given the fact that Omaheke Region is semi-arid, going into the Kalahari Desert, with very low and erratic annual rainfall patterns, it is advisable to have a sizeable piece of land for farming, mostly with livestock. Viability of the land reform should be linked to significant improvement of household well-being of land reform beneficiaries; reduced overall inequalities in land holding or access; improved households' ability to accumulate assets; improved and sustainable productivity of the agricultural land and allowing the farmers to contribute to the national economy through active participation in the marketing of farm produce. In order to make land redistribution programme viable, beneficiaries should have access to other means of production such as water infrastructure, access roads, start-up capital and information.

4.11.2 Views on Government's approach to land redistribution

Respondents were asked to give their views on the following question: *In your opinion, how should government redistribute land to those who were dispossessed of their land? Or those who need land?* The following are views expressed by respondents on Government's approach to land redistribution as presented below:

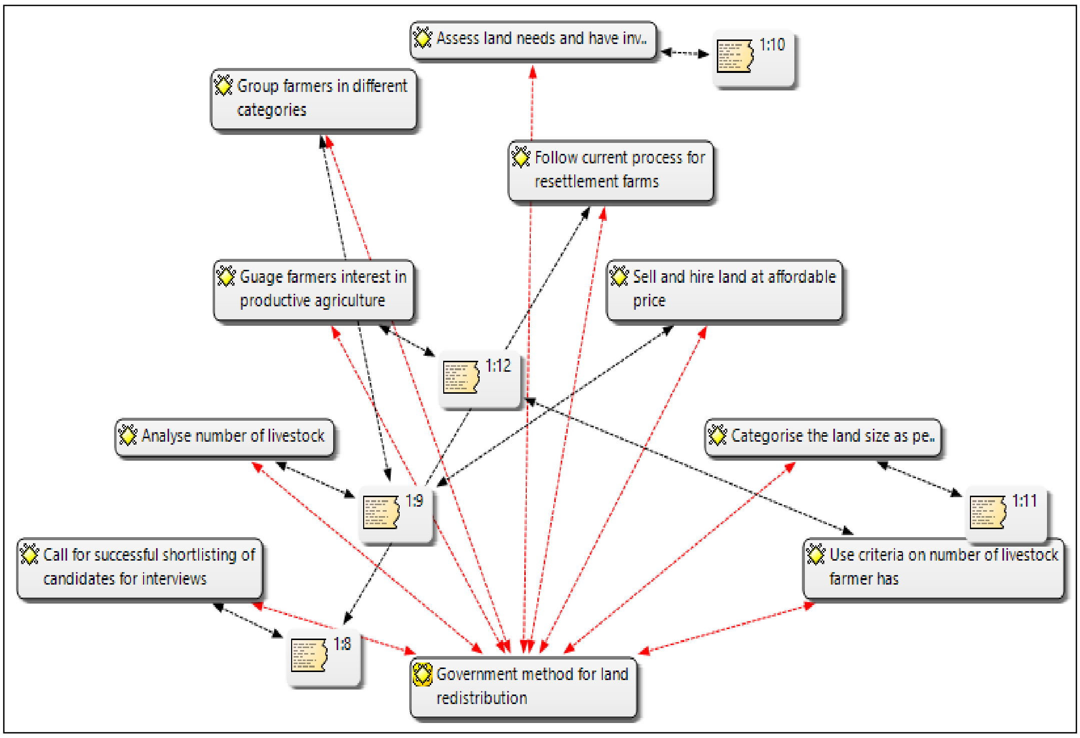

Figure 4.21 Proposals on Government's approach to land redistribution
Source: Responses from the Research Questionnaire

Some respondents were of the view that government should continue with the current process of applying for resettlement farms but [the Ministry of Land Reform] must call in the successful candidates on the short list for an [oral] interview to assess the readiness and ability of an applicant to take up commercial farming.

Others suggested that the Ministry of Land Reform should ascertain the number of livestock (small and large) the applicant has, and interview people on skills and knowledge they have in terms of agricultural background. Others suggested that farmland should be sold to beneficiaries or rented for an affordable price to those who can afford it. The other suggestion is that farmers should be grouped into different categories depending on their needs for land and land usage. Assess land needs and have an inventory of those who are in need of land and develop the land per each category according to land use. The Ministry of Land Reform should use the criteria by considering the number of animals the applicant currently has and his/her interest in doing productive farming.

4.11.3 Views on the level/extent of landlessness in Omaheke

Respondents were asked the following open-ended question: *What is the level or extent of landlessness in your constituency?*

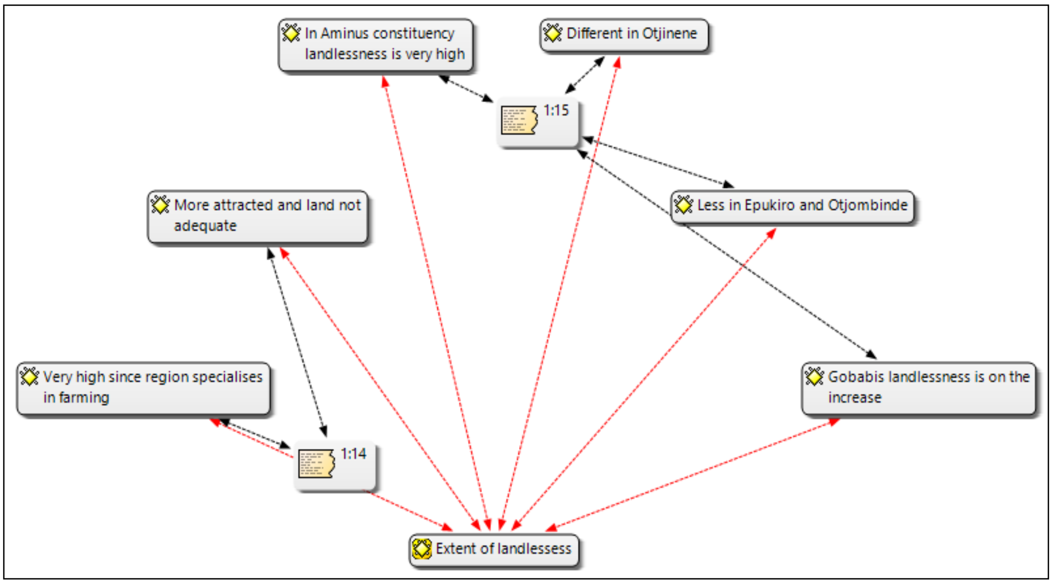

Figure 4.22 Extent/level of landlessness in the Omaheke Region
Source: Responses from the Research Questionnaire

Figure 4.22 depicts a summary of responses from the perspective of those who need land. Views expressed indicate that landlessness is very high given the fact that the most economic activity in the region is farming and people are making their living on farming, but land for farming has become too small to farm on since the population is growing and the land is not available [the diminishing utility and availability of land].

Some respondents were not sure of the extent of landlessness in their constituencies and proposed that a thorough survey or land audit be conducted to verify the situation properly. In the Aminius Constituency the extent of landlessness is very high, unlike in Otjinene, Epukiro and Otjombinde constituencies. Gobabis landlessness is increasing as well due to population increases. The other view was that there is a very huge demand for land in all the seven constituencies.

4.11.4 The Causes of Landlessness

Respondents were asked to give their views and understanding on the following open-ended question: *What are the main causes of landlessness in your constituency/region, if any?* Figure 4.23 below gives a summary of responses.

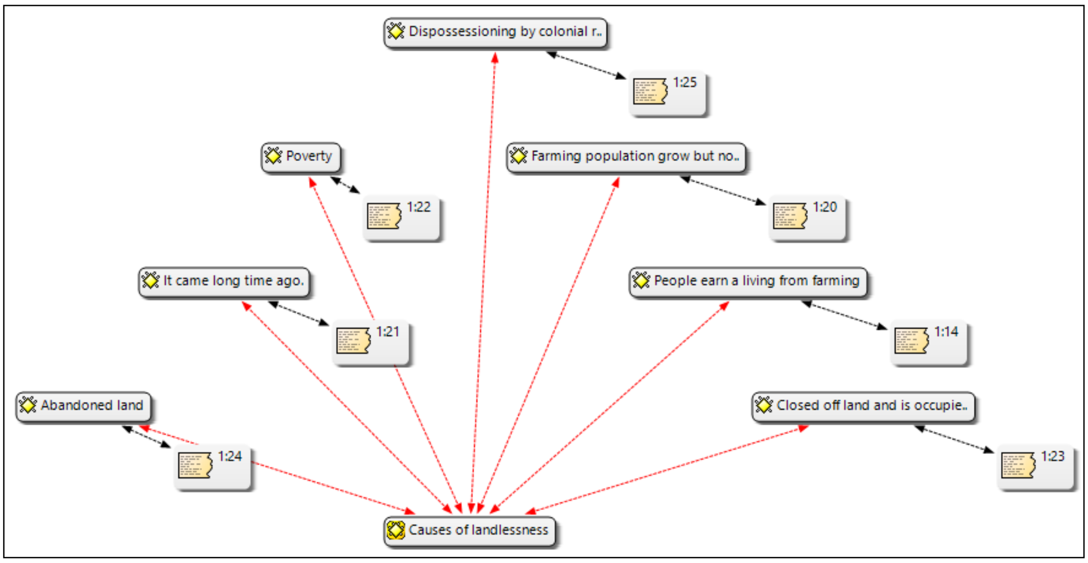

Figure 4.23 Causes of landlessness in the Omaheke Region
Source: Responses from the Research Questionnaire

Figure 4.23 gives a summary of the responses on the causes of landlessness in the Omaheke Region. Dispossession of land by former colonial masters, the Germans and then the South African apartheid administration, was singled out as the main cause of landlessness. Others said the principle of willing-buyer willing-seller is not working. There is a perception that the government's approach for acquiring commercial agricultural land from the predominantly white landowners through a willing-seller and willing-buyer mechanism does not speed up the process of land redistribution. Critics of this approach are of the view that it gives little room for the Government (buyer) to acquire appropriate and suitable land redistribution to the landless. Others are of the view that this policy (willing seller, willing buyer) perpetuates the skewed land ownership pattern in the country, therefore it must be replaced with an alternative mode of land acquisition, preferably, expropriation with minimum compensation for infrastructure and other investments and not the land itself.

The farming population in the region is growing while farming land is shrinking. While the population of the Omaheke Region was projected to be more than 75,700 by 2018 (NSA, 2015), the land surface remains the same at 84,981 km^2. Population growth may create competition for space, especially farming land, among inhabitants of the region. If land is not properly allocated and administered in a fair manner to satisfy the needs of landless communities, it may lead to disruption of other economic activities and creating pockets of poverty and a declining standard of living in the region.

Poverty was also mentioned as the reason why landlessness is increasing; some people have no means [have no money and no ownership of other properties] and cannot afford to acquire land for agricultural purposes. Most of such people end up selling their labour to those who own land in exchange for meager payments in cash or in-kind. Others indicated that most land is closed off land and is occupied fully while some grazing areas are affected by poor rainfall due to global climate change. Abandoned land; in some areas in Epukiro Constituency land is not fully utilised due to the presence of poisonous plants in some areas.

Livestock producers in Omaheke, especially in the Epukiro Constituency, and even in some parts of Otjozondjupa Region, are usually threatened by the presence of a poisonous plant, scientifically known as Dichapetalum Cymosum plant which is locally known as poison leaf or 'gifblaar' in Afrikaans. The poison leaf plant is known as 'Otjikuryoma' by the Otjombinde community (Daby, 2015).

The land in areas affected by the presence of poisonous plants is abandoned by communities in those areas, and this situation contributes to landlessness among the affected communities because they cannot use that land for grazing their livestock. The poisonous leaf plant kills cattle, goats, sheep and most wild game breeds in those affected areas. There are other poisonous plants in some parts of the Omaheke that negatively affect livestock farming. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent of agreement or disagreement on the following statement: *Landlessness is caused by the colonial and apartheid policies of dispossession and segregation.*

Table 4.28: Landlessness is caused by Colonial and Apartheid Policies

Constituency	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Aminius	1	2	3	9	4	19
Otjinene	1	1	4	3	5	14
Kalahari	1	1	1	8	6	17
Epukiro	0	1	0	5	10	16
Gobabis	1	1	1	7	7	17
Okorukambe	0	0	0	6	10	16
Otjombinde	0	1	1	4	8	14
Total	**4**	**7**	**10**	**42**	**49**	**113**
Percentage	**3.53**	**6.19**	**8.84**	**37.16**	**43.36**	**100**

Table 4.28 shows that 49 out of 113 respondents (43.36 percent) *agreed strongly* while 42 out 113 (37.16 percent) just *agreed* that landlessness is caused by the colonial and apartheid policies of dispossession and segregation. This means a total of 91 out of 113 respondents (80.53 percent) AGREED and STRONGLY AGREED that landlessness in the Omaheke Region is caused by past colonial and apartheid policies of land dispossession and segregation. Most of the *strongly agree* responses are in the

Epukiro (10 out of 16) and Okorukambe (10 out of 16) Constituencies. The table also shows that 4 out of 113 respondents (3.5 percent) strongly disagreed, while 7 out of 113 or 6.1 percent just *disagreed* with the same statement. A total of 10 out of 113 respondents (8.8 percent) indicated that they were not sure

4.11.5 Main Economic Activities in the Omaheke Region

Respondents were asked to give their opinions and what they know about the economic situation in the region: *What are the main economic activities that support development in the Omaheke Region?* Responses given by respondents indicate that the main economic activities are farming, predominantly animal husbandry, in communal and commercial areas, tourism operations and big and small retail businesses.

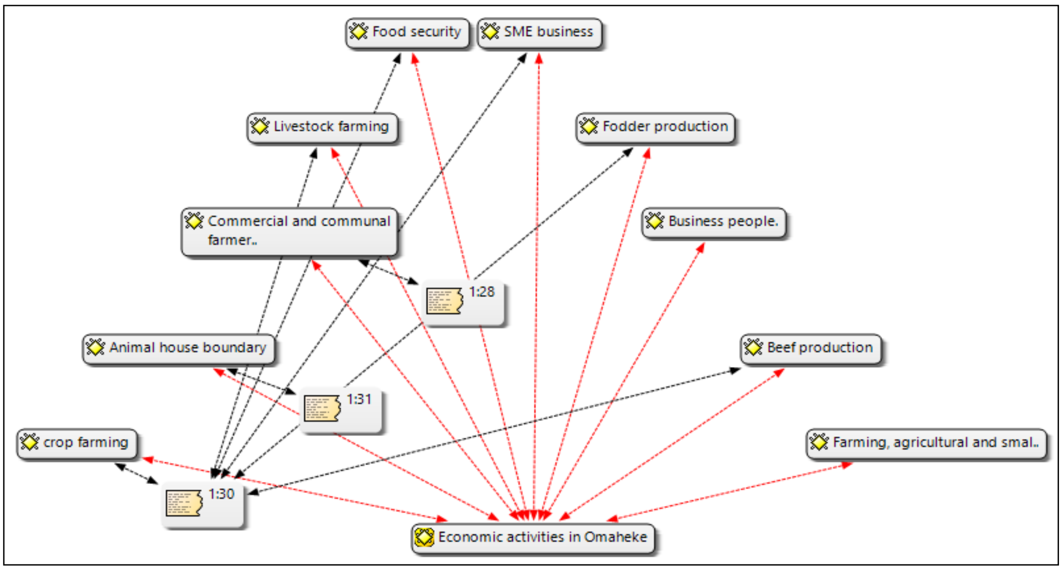

Figure 4.24 Major Economic activities in the Omaheke Region
Source: Responses from the Research Questionnaire

Livestock farming, food security business, small and medium enterprises (SME) business, beef production, a few crop farming and fodder production.

It is clear from the network in Figure 4.24 of responses that the main economic activity in Omaheke region is animal husbandry (livestock farming) while some farmers are engaged in diversifying their farming activities with fodder production and some crops. Livestock farming in this region is mostly done for commercial purposes, even farmers in communal areas are commercially oriented. That is why the region is well-known as '*The Cattle Country.'* There are also retail businesses (shops) mostly in urban areas and some villages or settlements in the region. Retail businesses provide goods, mostly consumables, to local communities and support the growth of local economies.

4.11.6 Determining landlessness and land needs

Respondents were asked an open-ended question to provide their views and understanding on the following: *How is landlessness determined and who is classified as landless in the Namibian context?* Their responses are as follows:

"Every Namibian who does not own land is landless. Some people are landlessness because they do not have land for farming purposes, while others are landless because they do not have land for residential purposes. They are all landless. Very easy to determine landlessness, one can just go to the location and see how many people are staying together at one household, accommodated in iron/zinc sheet houses and plastic tents. These are the landless Namibians. People who do not have land of their own, to stay or sleep or farm on. There is a diverse classification of landlessness in Namibia. As per individual, if one does not have access to agricultural land they are classified as landless. Leaders would classify landless as someone who needs land to reside on as a home, to do farming or conduct some business. Landlessness should be determined by the degree of over-crowdedness of villages, settlements or grazing farms.”

Respondents were further asked to give their opinions and what they know on the following question: *How many people are regarded as landless and need to be resettled in your region?* Responses from respondents are summarized below as follows:

Most of the respondents stated that the exact number of landless people is not known but they are many landless people. Some landless have residential plots only in urban areas while others continue renting farms at different places in the region such as Aminius and Otjinene.

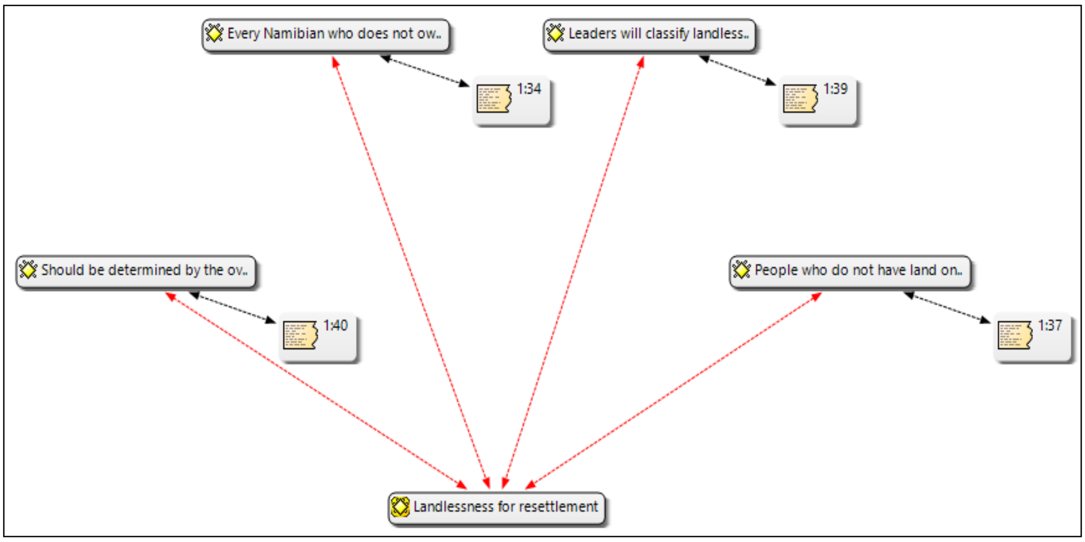

Figure 4.25 Determining landlessness and land needs
Source: Responses from the Research Questionnaire

Some respondents who were not sure about the figures estimated the number of landless to be approximately 20,000 people, while others estimated that 75% of the Omaheke population are in need of land for resettlement

Some respondents could not provide exact figures of landless people in their constituencies but suggested that a survey should be carried out to determine the extent of landlessness.

4.11.7 Qualification for Resettlement

This section presents responses from the field on issues pertaining to resettlement criteria and qualification requirements. Respondents were asked open-ended questions to express their opinion on the following issues regarding a resettlement programme: *In your opinion, who should qualify for resettlement and why?* Their responses are listed below.

- Only people who need land for farming purposes.
- Farms bought by government are very expensive and resettled farmers should be productive so that they can contribute to the national economy.
- Only those candidates who demonstrate to be productive should be qualified for resettlement.
- People who need land for residential purposes should just get a piece of land in urban areas instead of a farm.

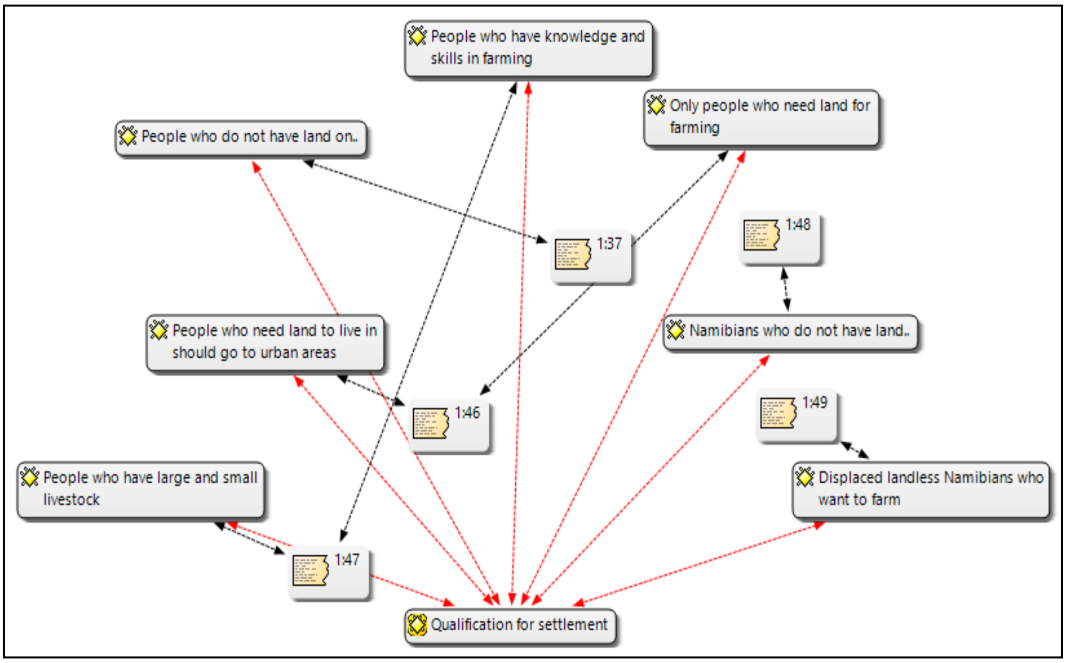

Figure 4.26 Qualifying Criteria for Resettlement
Source: Responses from the Research Questionnaire

- People who have small and large livestock and they do not have money to buy land of their own, they should also possess knowledge and skills on farming.
- All Namibians who do not have land for agricultural purposes should qualify for resettlement.
- Resettlement should be for the previously dispossessed, displaced landless Namibians who need land for agricultural purposes.
- Land should be allocated to serious farmers that will contribute to the GDP of the country.

4.11.8 Impact of land reform on socio-economic development

This section presents the perspectives, opinions and understanding of the seven (7) Constituency Councillors on the overall impact of land reform on socio-economic development in the Omaheke Region. The Constituency Councillors were asked open-ended questions to express their views, opinions and understanding on various socio-economic issues that are related to land reform and community development in the Omaheke Region. Their responses are summarised and presented in a network in Figure 4.27 hereunder.

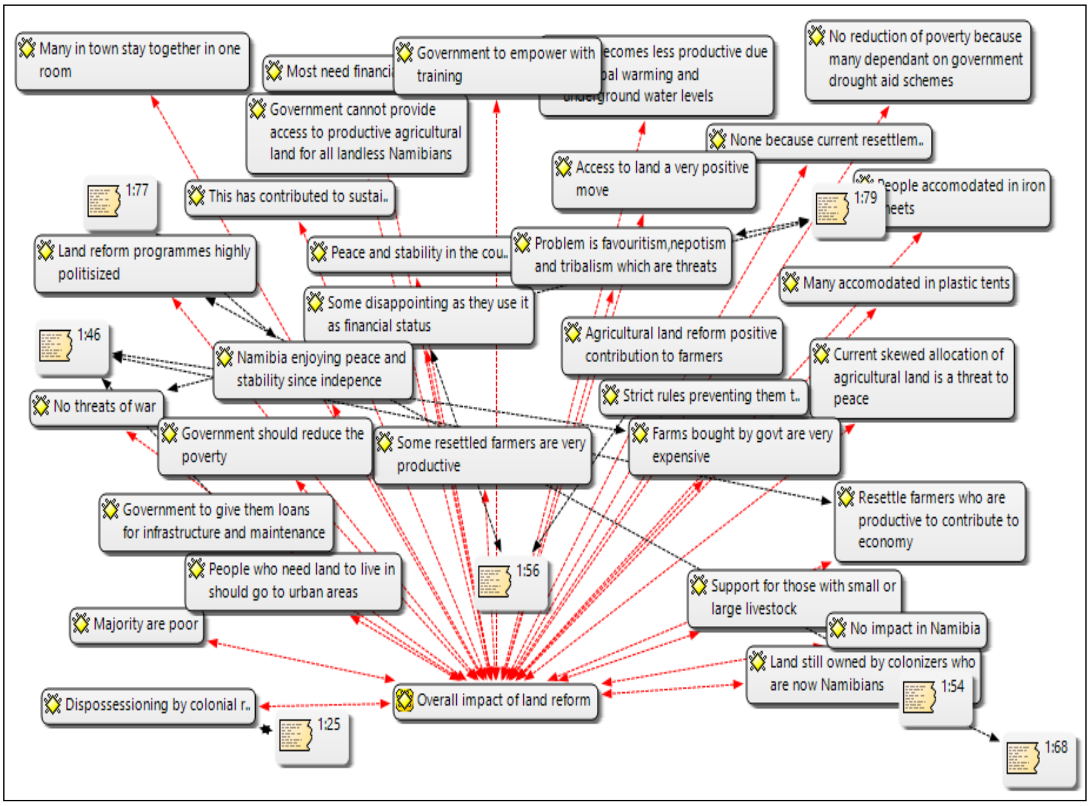

Figure 4.27 Overall Impact of Landlessness on Socio-Economic Development

The open-ended questions that were asked to the respondents and the responses from the respondents are outlined below as follows:

4.11.8.1How would you describe the overall impact of land reform in Namibia on the transformation from communal farming to commercial farming? The change/transformation of communal farming to commercial agrarian structure in Namibia?

About 5 percent of respondents indicated that they were not sure if the land reform programme had an impact on the transformation of communal farming to commercial farming because they did not conduct any research on the subject. However, 45 percent of the respondents indicated that land reform has contributed to sustainability and improved gross domestic product (GDP) as well as decreased land degradation.

The views of 50 percent of the respondents is that land reform in Namibia has not positively changed the agrarian structure because the current land redistribution programme is politically motivated and does not speak to the real issue of agrarian transformation in Namibia.

4.11.8.2 How would you describe the overall impact of land reform on poverty reduction among resettled beneficiaries (previously landless poor) in Namibia?

The views of 40 percent of respondents on these issues are that the agricultural land reform policy has immensely and positively contributed to the well-being of resettled farmers. The respondents stated that some generational farm workers who were previously landless and poor have been given access to agricultural land. For example, the livelihood of many previously marginalised communities like the San people has improved after being given agricultural land for free to start their own agricultural activities.

However, 20 percent of respondents indicated that there are some resettled farmers that are really disappointing because of their financial status. These respondents were of the view that one will never be a successful farmer if one does not have access to financial assistance.

The other 20 percent of respondents were of the view that Government, through the Ministry of Land Reform, should empower those [resettled beneficiaries] with in-service training; give them loans as start-up capital for maintenance of farm infrastructure such as fences and water points as well as for buying small or large livestock.

About 15 percent of respondents expressed concern about alcoholism and suggested that the Ministry of Land Reform should put strict rules preventing resettled communities to sell alcohol through establishing committees, because the selling and consumption of alcohol in resettlement projects contribute to poverty, especially among the previously landless communities like the San people.

On the other hand, 5 percent of respondents are of the view that there has been no reduction of poverty among resettled farmers because the majority of them are still living below the poverty line and continue to depend on government drought relief schemes. According to these respondents, most of the resettled beneficiaries are poor; the government should continue to provide support to make them [resettled beneficiaries] self-sufficient in food production.

4.11.8.3 How would you describe the overall impact of land reform on access to productive agricultural land by landless Namibians?

According to the view expressed by 45 percent of respondents, it is not possible that government can provide access to productive agricultural land to all landless Namibians, but the Government of the Republic of Namibia has done its best in purchasing farms, but it [Government] cannot always buy productive land because some farms bought for redistribution are unproductive due to other factors such as poor water infrastructure and mountainous terrains.

The 30.5 percent of respondents were of the view that productivity can improve if training of resettled beneficiaries on gardening and crop farming is given to enable them to supply food for themselves and be able to sell the surplus. Respondents suggested that Agricultural Extension Officers from the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry should visit and educate or guide [resettled] farmers and assist them to make their land more productive. Furthermore, 24.5 percent of respondents indicated that having access to agricultural land is a form of economic empowerment, however, the land became less productive due to global warming, low levels of underground water and other unfavourable climatic conditions.

4.11.8.4 How would you describe the impact of land reform on equity in land distribution/ ownership between previously disadvantaged Namibians (PDN) and the previously advantaged Namibians (PAN)?

About 25 percent of respondents indicated that they were not aware if there was equity in land distribution between the previously disadvantaged and the previously advantaged Namibians. On the other hand, 75 percent of the respondents indicated that even though the resettlement programme has been implemented to curb the skewed land distribution pattern, most of the land is still owned by previously advantaged Namibians, mostly the White commercial farmers. This means equity in access and ownership of land has not been achieved because land is still owned by white decedents of the colonial and apartheid regimes.

4.11.8.5 How would you describe the impact of land reform on productivity, of agricultural land under resettlement programme in Namibia?

The majority (65 percent) of respondents were of the view that there are some resettled farmers that are very productive and there are those that are not productive that need financial assistance. Productivity of agricultural land is very low; however, productivity is very high among some resettled Namibians who have access to financial resources and a passion for farming.

While 25 percent of respondents advocated for the Ministry of Land Reform to provide in-service training on farm management as well as financial management to enable resettled farmers to make redistributed land more productive. Respondents expressed strong feelings that resettled farmers should be given start-up loans for them to buy productive equipment and machinery for their farms according to the type of land one has been resettled on.

The least 10 percent of respondents expressed concern that because of poor productivity the current resettlement beneficiaries are not contributing to the growth of the agricultural sector.

4.11.8.6 How would you describe the impact of land redistribution on peace and stability in Namibia?

More than the majority (85.5 percent) of respondents were of the opinion that the Namibian nation continues to enjoy peace and political stability since independence. There have been no war threats experienced in the country but the issues of favouritism, nepotism, tribalism in land redistribution may become possible areas of concern that may threaten peace and stability in the country if not properly addressed. The current skewed ownership and allocation of agricultural land may threaten peace and stability in the near future if left unresolved. Some 13.5 percent of respondents were of the view that in order to have genuine peace and stability in the country, farm owners should take children of farmworkers and put them in schools in order for them to be educated.

One respondent appreciated the work of the men and women in uniform and the Namibian nation at large for being law-abiding citizens. People enjoy equal rights and peace in Namibia because the policies and laws governing land administration contribute to good governance.

4.12 Conclusion

In conclusion, the quantitative data has indicated that there are both negative and positive correlations between the landlessness variables and the programme of land redistribution variables as expressed by respondents in the seven Constituencies of the Omaheke Region. The qualitative data also confirms the findings of the quantitative data, that landlessness has an impact on the social, economic and political wellbeing of communities. Qualitative data also confirmed that a land reform programme that does not take into consideration the historical past of those who were dispossessed of their land may lead to insecurity and disruption of peace and other economic activities in the country.

Data has indicated that despite the land reform being implemented since 1991, commercial agricultural land in Namibia is, to a greater degree, still unequally owned or accessed, and the majority of the previously landless Namibians, most Blacks, are still landless while some have no access to land. The degree of landlessness in the Omaheke Region varies from one constituency to the other, and the causes of landlessness are similar, ranging from historical dispossession and climatic conditions to policies governing land redistribution.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1 Introduction

Assessing the impact of landlessness on the social and economic development in Namibia is a complex task in the absence of national standards and policy that regulate the size of land one is allowed to own or use. Namibia operates in a capitalist economy where the rich are free to amass wealth including thousands of hectares of land while the poor continue to be employed as cheap labourers on farms owned by the rich. The issue of landlessness is further compounded by political, historical, cultural and traditional perceptions of land ownership in many countries, including Namibia. Studies elsewhere hypothesized that when the level or degree of landlessness increases, the level or degree of socio-economic wellbeing decreases which ultimately leads to poverty (a decrease in standard of living).

Specific objectives of the study were: to conduct an assessment of the extent of landlessness and its impact on the social and economic development in Namibia; to develop alternative approaches of measuring and defining landlessness in Namibia and; to recommend policy measures to ameliorate land ownership patterns of the rural economy. In order to achieve the objectives as outlined above, this study was guided by the following questions:

- What is landlessness and how does it affect the social and economic development, and standard of living in Namibia, specifically in the Omaheke Region?
- What is the level /extent of landlessness in the Omaheke Region?

- What are the main causes of landlessness in the Omaheke Region and elsewhere?
- What are the main economic activities that support development in Omaheke?
- How is landlessness measured and who is classified as landless in the Namibian standards compared to other countries?
- What are the underlying objectives of land reform in Namibia and to what extent are the objectives being achieved?
- What are the policy implications for not having standards in determining landlessness?

The study reviewed literature in Chapter 4 on the concepts of landlessness and how it is measured by comparing it to poverty, and the relevance of land reform in relation to economic development in some countries. This section of Chapter 5 presents a discussion on the empirical findings of the study to answer the research questions and some statements related to landlessness and how it impacts the socio-economic development of the Omaheke Region, in particular, and Namibia in general.

5.2 Discussion of Findings from Quantitative Data

This section is an in-depth discussion on the findings from quantitative data in order to make cross reference to the questions of the study and the theories that directed the literature review and methodology to collect and analyze data.

5.2.1 Variation in Constituency Response Rate

Quantitative data was collected from the seven Constituencies of the Omaheke Region, namely; Aminius, Epukiro, Gobabis, Kalahari, Otjinene, Otjombinde and Okorukambe. Out of the total of 113 respondents, the highest response rate was recorded in the Aminius Constituency with 16.8 percent. The lowest response rate was in Otjinene and Otjombinde Constituencies with 14 respondents (12.4%) respectively. The reason for this disparity in participation is attributed to the fact that the Councilor for Aminius Constituency assisted to inform the people about the study and encouraged them to participate. Respondents for the Aminius Constituency were well organized as a group and were found waiting for the researcher at the Headquarters of the Tswana Tribal Authority at Aminius.

With regard to all other Constituencies, the respondents were not organized in advance because they were not properly informed about the study and the arrival of the researcher. Therefore, it took some time in Constituencies like Otjinene, Okorukambe and Gobabis to organise respondents who participated in the study.

The study found that although some resettlement farms were allocated to women; it was the men (husband) who were responsible for managing the activities and looking after animals on the farm. The researcher found mostly men at the farms while women, in some cases, were full-time employees in government or the private sector in towns. At one of the resettlement farms that was visited during data collection, a woman who was the allocated beneficiary was not on the farm, instead the husband was the one managing everything while the wife was at her full-time employment in Windhoek. Culturally and traditionally, it is known that farming is more of men's business than women in most African communities although women in the OvaHerero tradition and culture are the ones doing the actual work such as milking cows and even herding cattle in the field. The other plausible reason is that in the OvaHerero tradition and culture, women are not allowed or not comfortable to speak in public at gatherings where men are also involved, hence more men participated as respondents.

Furthermore, land matters are more political in the OvaHerero Community, and men, especially traditional leaders and politicians, tend to be more interested to talk about land whenever there is such an opportunity. This assertion is supported by Maamberwa (2016) who said that "the resettlement programme is a political tool creating havoc in the country; that the land reform programme should first be done in consultation with traditional leaders for the sake of transparency" (The Namibian Newspaper, 2016, p. 13).

Historically and politically, the OvaHerero are among the Namibians who were dispossessed of their land during the colonial and apartheid land administrations. Hence, any land matters should be discussed within the context of historical and political economy framework in order to address landlessness in the Omaheke region.

Geographically, Aminius, Kalahari and Otjombinde Constituencies are at the border with Botswana in the eastern part of Namibia. These areas are very dry because of the proximity to the Kalahari Desert with very poor soils, low annual rainfall and scattered vegetation. The political history of Namibia records that the arrival of white settlers who engaged in unfair trade and wars with indigenous traditional leaders led to the loss of good fertile grazing land by the Herero and Nama tribes.

Colonial settlers encroached on the grazing land of the Herero (Ellis, 1984) who were ultimately pushed towards the Sandveld of the Kalahari Desert at the border with Botswana. The Herero and Nama war of resistance from 1904 -1907 against the German colonial occupation, the Germans responded with fanatical nationalism, culminating in an attempt to exterminate the Herero, whose numbers were drastically reduced from 70 000 to 15 000 as stated by Ellis (1984). This act of genocide overshadowed the dispossession of all Herero and Nama lands and cattle.

Today, the Herero and the Tswana of Namibia are struggling to make a living through farming in those areas under difficult ecological and environmental conditions. Due to the political economic history of genocide and repression which the Herero communities went through, the population is relatively small (70,800) compared to the geographical size (84,981 km^2) of the Omaheke region; which translates to a population density of 0.8 persons per square kilometer as reported by the National Planning Commission (2012).

5.2.2 Economic Activities and Sources of Income

There are about 924 localities or settlement areas in the whole of the Omaheke, and the majority of them being traditional and rural villages, are highly dependent on cattle farming. Despite the unemployment rate, which seems to be high in the Omaheke Region, people are not idling but they have developed some coping strategies to sustain their livelihood by engaging in running small businesses. Respondents in this study indicated various sources of income, but 43.4 percent obtain their income from salaries as full-time employees in government, private sector and parastatals, while 18.6 percent obtain their income from livestock farming. This is an indication that those who have access to agricultural land are able to generate income from farming, and cattle farming is the common economic activity in the Omaheke Region, especially among the Ova Herero/Ovambanderu and Tswana communities.

Data also show that 9.7% of respondents in this study obtain their income from social grants, mainly pension. These are those who have reached the age of 60 years and above. This is an indication that landless households earn a reasonable income from non-agricultural sources within the framework of socio-economic wellbeing programmes of government. Furthermore, 8.8 percent of respondents obtain their income from their own small businesses such as knitting, grocery shops, selling wood and repairing tyres. Landless people are also engaged in informal activities that absorb a large majority of unskilled, uneducated or less educated and poor individuals. These economic activities are important and contribute to economic development in the region.

The Namibia Household Income and Expenditure Survey (NHIES) Report of 2015/2016 indicated that 58.7 percent of income among households in Omaheke region comes from salaries and wages, 12.8 percent of income is from pension, while 6.7 percent and 7.7 percent from subsistence farming and small business, respectively; and only 1.0 percent of income was derived from commercial farming (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2016). In the rural economy, employment is mainly seasonal and determined at low wages, leaving a large proportion of the landless households in poverty. In this context, employment programmes for rural public works can have significant role in reducing rural poverty.

Though access to land for agricultural growth is considered essential for poverty reduction in rural areas, it may not alone be sufficient to reduce poverty because there are other factors that contribute in driving the growth in agriculture sector. These include the higher use of conventional inputs such as land, water, fertilizers and seeds; adequate rural infrastructure; agricultural research and extension services that benefit rural communities; targeted transformations in the institutional setup including access to finance and input and output markets; investment in economic and social infrastructure such as health, education and farmer support programmes. This is the holistic approach to socio-economic development in rural communities, usually referred to as integrated rural development (Binswanger, 1996).

Socio-economic development should be understood in the context of political economic theory as outlined by Todaro and Smith (2012) whereby the social and institutional processes through which certain groups of economic and political elites influence the allocation of scarce productive resources now and in the future, either for their own benefit exclusively or for that of the larger population as well.

The vast differences in income as shown in Section A of Chapter 4, Figure 4.10, on monthly income, ranging from a minimum of N$600 to a maximum of N$80,000, is one indicator of gross inequalities that exist within disparate population groups in Namibia. There are some groups or individuals who earn more than others, and this may also influence the consumption pattern as reported by the Namibia Household Income and Expenditure Survey (NHIES) Report of 2015/2016; that household consumption varies greatly across language groups, with consumption per capita in households where Khoisan as the main language spoken being N$7,088 compared to N$199,330 in households which speak German, while that of the Omaheke Region is N$79,140 with a consumption per capita of N$20,992 (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2016).

The above scenario implies that the few individuals who have access to economic resources are also privileged position to diversify the utilisation of such resources the way they want and maximise their income outlets. In the context of Sen’s capability and functionality approach to development theory (Todaro & Smith, 2012), those who have access to land and credit facility are able to make choices on how to use such resources that are in their control to make sense of the concept of human well-being.

The findings of the study have also revealed that the households of the rural poor cannot, in reality, be neatly demarcated as distinct and independent entities.

Households who participated in the study are dependent for livelihood on a multiple of sources. Often, a multiplicity of occupations is their single most shared characteristics, reflecting an important survival mechanism. Household labour is their basic source of income, part of which they use on their small land parcels and the other part they must sell increasingly to others within and outside the agriculture sector.

5.2.3 Socio-cultural and Historical Issues

The large sizes of households (6 to10 members) in the Omaheke Region is a sign that these communities still live together as extended families in one house or on a piece of land where they share the amenities and resources for the benefit of all family members. This way of living together as a big family is typically African. It is a communal way of living whereby members of the household have the common right to use the resources and facilities together. For example, if one member has cattle while other do not have, the one who has, feels obliged to help those family members who do not have, either by sharing milk or meat and even giving them some cattle to keep.

The San people are classified as one of the previously marginalised and disadvantaged communities in Namibia. It was, therefore, necessary to have San people in this study as one group that is classified as landless by the National Resettlement Policy of Namibia. Historically and culturally, the San community has been deprived in many ways. They have no permanent rights and access to land due to social, political, educational and economic marginalisation during the colonial and apartheid regimes.

The apartheid South Africa regime used the San men as infantry soldiers mainly for trekking SWAPO combatants along the Angola-Namibia and Zambia-Namibia borders. The San communities were not given land to settle on and carry out their social and cultural activities. These communities lived under the care and protection of the South African military. Their children did not have opportunity to access education. After independence, some communities of the San people were resettled by the Government on commercial farms with the aim of making them self-sufficient in food production and also to limit them from wandering around in the bush in search for food.

The San community have been resettled as groups on farms under the Group Resettlement model of the Ministry of Land Reform (1999). Some of the Group Resettlement farms in the Omaheke region are found at Drimiopsis Farm, Skoohheid Farm, and Omitara Farm. Physical observation and group discussion during fieldwork with some beneficiaries of Group Resettlement Model pointed out that the design of Group Farming and the resources provided did not fully enable the beneficiaries to secure sustainable livelihoods.

This observation and conclusion is also supported by the PIA Survey of 2010 (MLR, 2010) which suggested that being settled on a Group Resettlement Farm did not provide an opportunity to progress economically or to escape from the poverty trap. Livestock numbers kept by beneficiaries were insignificant; even the larger herds were far from a size considered to be an economic unit. Simply put, they were still too small to provide for a sustainable livelihood.

A group of respondents who indicated Ovambanderu speak the Otjiherero language just like the Ova Herero group. Upon enquiry the researcher could not distinguish the difference between Otjiherero and Otjimbanderu, apart from the fact that the two groups have different chieftainships and use unique colours during their annual cultural ceremonies. The Ova Herero group would normally depict a red flag while the Ovambanderu would depict a Green Flag (Otjingirine) and attire at their respective annual cultural and heroic celebrations in Namibia and Botswana at the graves of their prominent political and cultural leaders.

History has it that the Chief of the Ovambanderu, Chief Kahimemua, was executed by the German colonial government at Okahandja in 1896 for having staged the first armed resistance against the Imperial Germany. The war of resistance against German Imperialist is the main factor that led to many Ovambanderu and Ova Herero people fleeing Namibia into neighboring Botswana (Weidlich, 2008). Today, the Ovambanderu population is inhibiting eastern parts of the Omaheke Region, mostly in the Otjombinde Constituency, and western part of the Republic of Botswana.

It is interesting to find that other ethnic groups such as the Basters (0.9%), Kavango (1.8%), and Lozi (0.9%) are also found in the Omaheke Region, and some are beneficiaries of the National Resettlement Programme (NRP). This diverse representation and participation of ethnic groups in this study is an indication that there is freedom of internal migration in the country and people are at liberty to settle anywhere in an independent Namibia. Internal migration helps to expose migrants to new social and economic opportunities that may not be available in their sending environments.

The National Census of 2001 reports that 5.9 percent of Namibia’s population had migrated from one region to another, with Khomas (25.22 percent) and Erongo (12.07 percent) regions being the most preferred destinations due to their well-developed labour markets (National Planning Commission, 2015). This freedom was not allowed during the colonial and apartheid regimes. People from the northern regions such as Kavango, Zambezi (formerly Caprivi) and the four far-northern regions, formerly Ovamboland, were restricted to cross the veterinary cordoned fence, well-known as the ‘Red Line,’ to enter the southern parts of Namibia. The Red Line refers to a veterinary cordoned fence which was erected during colonial and apartheid era to prevent frequent pest outbreaks in the northern communal regions from infecting livestock in the southern commercial agricultural regions (National Planning Commission, 2015).

Meat produced north of the Cordoned Fence (Red Line) was not sold to international markets; a situation that further entrenched patterns of inequality between farmers in the northern regions and those in the southern regions of Namibia. Those who did cross the Red Line, mostly males, were only permitted to stay as contract workers on white commercial farms, the railway line or as mineworkers in Tsumeb or further south at Lüderitz and Oranjemund. While the restrictions on rural mobility served the interest of commercial white farmers well, these colonial and apartheid-style laws which prevented rural families from settling in towns outside of the homelands effectively prevented rural women in large part from participating in the urban labour market. (National Planning Commission, 2015).

5.2.4 Demand for Farmland

Data collected from the seven constituencies indicated that animal husbandry is the mainstay of the economy in the Omaheke Region, and for one to be a productive and successful cattle farmer, according to the views and opinions of respondents, one needs at least not less than 1500 hectares of farmland. However, this conclusion is subject to the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Land Reform to carry out an agro-ecological analysis to determine the appropriate and viable commercial farm size in the Omaheke region. Currently the Department of Land Reform is using an estimate of not less than 1500 hectares as a guideline to demarcate commercial agricultural land for redistribution (resettlement) purpose in the Omaheke region.

There are 212 commercial farms in the Omaheke, and 195 of them are privately owned, making a total of 735,613.1370 hectares, the remaining 17 farms belong to Government under its resettlement programme. If government had put up a ceiling of 2000 ha of farmland per person in the Omaheke Region, the number of beneficiaries could be 368, when 735,613.1370 ha is divided by 2000 ha. If the ceiling was to be put at 1500 ha per beneficiary farmer, the number of beneficiaries could be 490 instead of the current 195 where others have more than 3000 ha compared to others who have 300 ha or even nothing at all.

The Neo-Malthusian demographic determinism theory (Hewitt & Smyth, 2000) which asserts that the weight (increase) of the population itself is the cause of problems, as outlined in Chapter 2 is not applicable in the context of the Omaheke region when it comes to availability of land resource in relation to population size. This view implies that more people are competing for scarce resources in rural areas, especially agricultural land. For the Omaheke region, it is a matter of skewed land ownership where few individuals have amassed big farmland while others remain landless. Instead, the landlessness phenomena and land ownership pattern in the Omaheke region can only be understood within the framework of the politics of development (PoD) approach which attempts to fill the gap by analysing the dynamics of a political and economic system in depth (DFID, 2009).

5.3 Discussion of Findings from Qualitative Data

The analysis of the qualitative data has confirmed that landlessness is, to some extent, caused by historical, social, economic and political factors, coupled with prevailing policies and legal instruments that govern the administration of land reform in Namibia. The colonial and apartheid regimes that expropriated indigenous people's land by force without compensation has been cited as one of the major factors that contributed to the current landlessness in the Omaheke and some regions of Namibia.

The absence of a policy or legal instrument that regulates the size of agricultural land to be owned by an individual makes it difficult to achieve equitable land distribution in the country, especially in the Omaheke Region. The policy of land redistribution should be revised to address the situation and make land more equitably distributed in the region.

Inefficiencies that are embedded in the regulatory and policy frameworks contribute to landlessness and land inequalities that exist in the country. The land reform legal framework and policies that are derived from the Constitution, specifically Article 16, have, to a certain degree, contributed to landlessness and perpetual economic inequalities in the country and, more specifically in the Omaheke Region. Article 16 (1) by implication, it means the State cannot regulate the quantity of land or houses (immovable properties) that one person is allowed to own, as long as one has the economic, social, political and other means to acquire such properties. Second, Article 16 (1) is limited in terms of empowering the Parliament to legislate laws that prohibit or regulate the acquisition and ownership of multiple or excessive immovable property by Namibian citizens. As a deliberate but targeted policy intervention towards inclusivity and equity, Article 16 should make provision to limit the number or size of land that one is allowed to own or use.

Conversely, Article 16 (2) has not been put to effective use as a complimentary approach to land acquisition by the State, despite the public outcry for its implementation. Among other reasons for the non-implementation is administrative inefficiencies and absence of appropriate procedures to efficiently administer land expropriation. Furthermore, there has been no consensus on the meaning of ‘public interest’ and how this concept relates to land acquisition and redistribution in the Namibian context.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This study examined landlessness and its impact on social and economic development in Namibia, focusing on the Omaheke Region. The results indicate that the prevalence of landlessness correlates with economic and social development of communities. The objective of this study was to assess the extent of landlessness and how it (landlessness) impacts on the social and economic development in Namibia in general and the Omaheke Region in particular.

The theoretical statement underpinning this study is that the degree of landlessness has an effect on the standard of living which, ultimately, affects economic development in a given region or country. A question to pose is, does it mean that when the degree of landlessness increase, the standard of living falls? The following questions guided this study:

- What are the main causes of landlessness?
- How is landlessness determined?
- Who is classified as landless in the Namibian context?
- What are the policy implications in addressing landlessness?

This study ascertained that land reform has two major objectives, namely; the economic and the political objectives. To achieve economic objectives of land reform it is imperative that land be allocated to beneficiaries who are able to utilise it productively and contribute to the gross domestic product (GDP) of the country. The economic objective of land reform presupposes that agricultural land should not be allocated to those who do not have the will and means to make it more productive because doing so would be self-defeating. For those who are interested in economic objective, land redistribution is a means to achieve economic growth with limited consideration of equitable distribution and access. As long as land utilisation contributes to an increased agricultural production which may lead to economic growth, and more landless people are employed as labourers on farms and off-farm industries.

Alternatively, the political objective of land reform is more inclined to achieve equity with limited consideration of the economic outcomes. The political objective of land reform, therefore, presupposes that land should be allocated to citizens who were disadvantaged and excluded by previous or even the current system of land ownership and distribution programme. The political objectives of land reform aim at ensuring that land is acquired and equitably distributed for the attainment of racial equity in terms of access and ownership. It supports the political rhetoric that Namibia's liberation struggle was all about land, therefore, all black Namibian citizens are, in one way or the other, entitled to a piece of land in an independent Namibia, either for farming, residence or conduct some kind of business and other social activities. This is feasible only if there was some deliberate and targeted mechanism in place to decide, control and administer land ownership in the country.

Looking at the two objectives described above, the question arises as to which one of the two is the key to a successful land reform programme that would address landlessness and social transformation? To what extent should government pursue the fulfillment of one of the objectives over the other? Can both (economic and political objectives) be achieved and if so, how? What efforts should government put in place in order to ensure the attainment of an equilibrium with regards to the fulfillment of both of these objectives? These are some questions that may require further research in the area of land reform in Namibia.

6.2 Policy Implications in Addressing Landlessness

This study, hence, concludes that government's ability to balance the economic and political objectives of land reform is critical to a successful and equitable redistributive land reform programme. Despite political demands to speed up land redistribution in post-independent countries in southern Africa and Namibia in particular, the process has been protracted.

One feature of the land policy debate since independence has been the recognition by the World Bank of the relative inefficiency of large commercial land holdings, which tend to be substantially under-utilised in many cases, as compared to aggregation of smaller units. The World Bank (2017) study on 'farm size-productivity relationship' proposed a new interpretation of the farm size–productivity relationship. Using two rounds of the Ethiopian Rural Household Survey, and drawing on earlier work on five countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, the study showed that the relationship between farm size and productivity is neither monotonic nor univocal.

Most previous studies that tested the inverse farm size–productivity relationship used ordinary least squares estimation, therefore reporting parameter estimates at the conditional mean of productivity. By expanding these important findings to consider the entire distribution of agricultural productivity, the analysis finds sign switches across the distribution, pointing to a "direct-inverse-direct" relationship. Less productive farmers exhibit an inverted U-shape relationship between land productivity and farm size, while more productive farmers show a U-shape relationship that reverses the relationship. In both cases, the relationship points toward a threshold value of farm size; however, the threshold is a minimum for the less productive farmers and a maximum for the more productive ones. To the left of the threshold, for very small farmers, the relationship between productivity and farm size is positive; for the range of middle farm size, the relationship is negative; and to the right of the threshold, the relationship is direct (positive) again. From a policy perspective, these findings imply that efficiency-enhancing and redistributive land reform should consider farm size in the proper context of the present and potential levels of agricultural productivity.

From the economic perspective, IR implies that diseconomies of scale characterize agriculture systems for several possible reasons, including the failure of land and labour markets to equalize production efficiency across farm size distribution. This provides an economic argument against the maintenance of large commercial farms as a dominant form of agricultural production in the sub-region. From the policy perspective, reforms to redistribute land from large towards small farms appear justified not only on equity but also on efficiency grounds.

According to Van Zyl (1996), “the proper measures of farm efficiency are the difference in total factor productivity between small and large farms, and the difference in profits, net of the cost of family labour, per unit of capital invested” (Van Zyl, in Binswanger et al, 1996, p. 265). The inverse farm size-efficiency relationship which is present in Namibia’s commercial agriculture, despite a history of policies favouring relatively large mechanised farms, implies that significant efficiency gains can be made if farm sizes in commercial sector become smaller. An important element in such a process would be the removal of all policies and distortions favouring large farms relative to smaller farms. The basic principle could be to make markets work by removing distortions and privileges that favour large farmers, and by creating markets to service small farmers in areas where such service is missing, without entrenching new privileges. The other aspect is to make training and extension services an integral part of the land redistribution programme to equip small farmers with farming skills and land management abilities (Van Zyl, 1996).

Although the white commercial farmers remain legitimate stakeholders, some measures of redistribution are essential to address gross inequalities in land allocation, and to meet the political demands of the black majority, especially in Namibia and South Africa. This approach has the potential to promote small-holder food security and greater efficiency in land usage.

Literature review in Chapter 2 indicated that the majority of the rural population in developing countries is dependent on land as their primary source of livelihood. In Latin America, as in Asia and Africa, agrarian structures are not only part of the production system but also a basic feature of the entire economic, social, and political organization of rural life. Torado & Smith (2012) supports this statement by stating that despite real progress, nearly 2 billion people in the developing world grind out a meager and often inadequate existence in agricultural pursuits.

Over two-thirds of the world's poorest people are also located in rural areas and engaged primarily in subsistence agriculture. This situation is similar to the Omaheke region where the majority of the population reside in rural areas surviving on poor, marginal land of the Kalahari Sandveld. Therefore, most development economists share the consensus that far from playing a passive, supporting role in the progress of economic development, land for agriculture in particular and the rural economy in general must play an indispensable part in any overall strategy of economic progress, especially for the low-income developing countries, and Namibia is not an exception.

Land is a key asset for the rural and urban poor; it provides a foundation for economic activity and the functioning of markets (credit) and non-market (local governments and social networks) in many developing and developed countries (World Bank, 2003). Access to land for agriculture, residential or for any economic activity remains critical factor for sustainable development. In the context of this study, land should be seen as having multi-dimensional effects (social, political, economic, religious, tribal/ethnic, cultural, historical, etc.) that affect the whole spectrum of achieving Namibia's Vision 2030.

A nation that cannot produce its own food and feed its own population cannot be regarded as independent and will not be able to attain prosperity, because people need food before they look for clothing or go to urban areas for work. Peace, harmony and political stability cannot be enjoyed if there are some communities like the !Khomanin, the San, and the Herero who are still landless and have put demands for accessing and owning their ancestral land. A landless community cannot enjoy, practice, profess, maintain and promote its culture, language, tradition or religion effectively.

One of the reasons why 80% of GDP will be generated by manufacturing and 75% of the population will be urbanized by 2030 is that the value added to the water used for irrigation agriculture in Namibia is very low, about N\$ 7.20/m^3, compared to that used for manufacturing (N\$272.00/m^3), and tourism and other services (N\$574.00/m^3) (NPC, 2004). This scenario needs to change by establishing and more irrigation schemes to produce grain such as maize, millet, mahangu and horticultural products.

An agriculture-and employment-based policy strategy of economic development requires three basic contemporary elements as outlined by Todaro & Smith (2012): accelerated output growth through technological, institutional, and price incentive changes designed to raise the productivity of small farmers; rising domestic demand for agricultural output derived from an employment-oriented urban development strategy; and diversified, non-agricultural, labour-intensive rural development initiatives that directly and indirectly support and are supported by the farming community.

To a large extent, therefore, appropriate policies for land reform; access to land for agricultural and rural development has come to be regarded by many economists as the sine qua non of national development. Without such integrated rural development strategy, in most cases, industrial growth either would be stultified or, if it succeeds, would create severe internal imbalances in the economy (Torado & Smith, 2012). The eradication of hunger and poverty, and the sustainable use of the environment depend in large measure on how people, communities and others gain access to land and other natural resources such as fisheries and forests (FAO, 2012).

The livelihoods of many, particularly the rural communities, are based on secure and fair access to and control over these resources. They are the source of food and shelter; the basis for social, political, cultural and religious practices; and a central factor in economic growth. The World Bank (2003) has indicated the importance of land as a key asset for the rural and urban poor, because it [land] provides a foundation for economic activity and the functioning of markets (credit) and non-market institutions (social networks) in many developing countries. If land reform and redistribution policies do not address the phenomenon of landlessness among communities that suffered genocide and land dispossession during colonialism, tension and instability may continue to rise in the country.

The voices of landless people such as the OvaHerero and the Nama who suffered extermination and land dispossession could be addressed through social justice policies. These communities continue to call for restorative justice, saying it does not justify to commemorate independence while the descendants of those who died at the hands of the colonial masters (Hamutenya, 2017) through the extermination order of Von Trotha remain oppressed, and without land and other resources that were forcefully taken away from them. These communities claim that since Namibia became independent the land and other resources that could be used to build themselves is still in the hands of those colonisers who caused the genocide and landlessness (Hamutenya, 2017).

It is, therefore, important to note that policies and legislations that promote responsible and good governance of tenure of land are put in place which is inextricably linked with equitable access to and management of other natural resources such as water, fisheries, minerals and forests. The World Bank (2003) also asserted that policy advice that is oblivious of either the complexity of these issues or the historical and political repercussions of policy interventions in the area of land redistribution can lead to unintended negative consequences.

How people, communities and others gain access to land and other natural resources is defined and regulated by societies through systems and policies of tenure. These tenure systems determine who can use which resources, for how long, and under what conditions (Chirwa, 2008). The systems may be based on written policies and laws, as well as on unwritten customs and practices. However, land tenure systems increasingly face stress as the world’s growing population requires food security, and as environmental degradation and climate change reduce the availability of land and related natural resources. Therefore, inadequate and insecure land tenure rights increase vulnerability, hunger and poverty, and can also lead to conflict and environmental degradation when competing users fight for control of these resources.

Policies governing land tenure remain a crucial element in determining if and how people, communities and others are able to acquire rights, and associated duties, to access, use and control land. Many land tenure problems arise because of weak irresponsive governance and attempts to address land tenure problems are affected by the quality of policies and governance structures. In Namibia, like in many other African countries, the legacy of the oppressive and racially based policies of colonial governments is still reflected in dualistic land tenure systems and inequitable land distribution patterns (ECA, 2004).

Weak, irresponsive governance adversely affect socio-political stability, sustainable use of land, investment and, ultimately, economic growth. According to FAO (2017). communities can be condemned to a life of hunger, misery and poverty if they lose their tenure rights to land, homes, forests, fisheries and their livelihoods because of corrupt and irresponsive policies that govern tenure practices, or if implementing agencies fail to protect and promote their tenure rights. Failure to develop property right institutions will lead to conflict and resource dissipation, and some people may even lose their lives when weak land tenure governance policies lead to violent conflict (World Bank, 2003, p.10). Hence, responsible governance of land tenure conversely promotes sustainable social, political and economic development that can help eradicate poverty and food insecurity and encourage responsible and effective investment.

6.3 Recommendations

This study explored many issues regarding landlessness and access to land in the context of socio-economic development in Namibia, with special focus on the Omaheke Region. Taking into consideration the complexity and sensitivity of land matters in Namibia, this study makes recommendations that could assist policymakers and implementers of land reform programmes to develop and implement policies and legislations to reduce landlessness and improve peoples' livelihoods.

6.3.1 Redistributive Land Reform

Redistributive land reform has the potential to facilitate broad and equitable access to land and promote inclusive rural development (FAO, 2012), if the design, objectives and implementation plan and strategy are properly sought. Therefore, where appropriate and within the national context, the government may consider continuing allocating land using the market-based mechanism, well known as willing-seller, willing-buyer. This approach should be complimented by expropriation of private land (in the public interest) for redistribution purposes in areas where landowners are reluctant to offer suitable agricultural land for redistribution.

The laws and policies governing land reform should make provision for a definition of 'expropriation in the public interest' in relation to land redistribution programme, to avoid ambiguity and misunderstandings in its implementation. In the context of national land policies and legislations, redistributive land reform should be considered for social, economic and environmental objectives, especially where a high degree of land ownership concentration is combined with a significant level of rural poverty attributed to landlessness and lack of access to other natural resources.

6.3.2 Land Ceilings

One of the most important lines of policy to eradicate poverty and inequality is to focus directly on reducing the high concentration and control of assets, the unequal distribution of economic power (FAO, 2012), and the unequal access to income-earning opportunities that characterize the Namibian society. To overcome this situation, government may consider introducing land ceilings as a policy option in the context of implementing a redistributive land reform programme.

This study found that 85.84 percent of respondents agreed that land ceilings should be introduced in Omaheke region. Land ceilings could be introduced by taking into consideration the regional agro-ecological differences of the country. As indicated by FAO (2012), introducing land ceilings is in line with the principle of good governance, sharing, equity, inclusivity and eradicating landlessness, which may lead to peace and stability, and socio-economic development of the country. Some countries have often imposed land ownership ceilings to facilitate the breakup of large farms and the associated sales of land to small producers to prevent socially destabilizing accumulation of land (The World Bank, 2003). Furthermore, an in-depth study could be conducted to investigate the possibility of developing and introducing policies on land ceilings for agricultural purposes in all regions that have commercial farms.

6.3.3 Land Markets

In order to achieve equity and eradicate landlessness, the government may introduce policies that facilitate the operations of efficient and transparent land markets to promote effective participation under equal conditions and opportunities for mutual beneficial transfer of land tenure rights, which could lessen conflict and instability.

Such a fair and transparent land market would promote sustainable land use; promote the fair and equitable use of other genetic resources associated with land and expand economic opportunities to the landless and poor communities. Government may also put in place measures to prevent undesirable impacts on local communities, indigenous peoples and vulnerable groups, which may arise from land market speculations, land concentration and abuse of land tenure forms. Policies and laws aimed at addressing landlessness should ensure transparent and efficient market operations to avoid discriminatory access to land.

There seems to be a direct link between time and the cost of land reform. The longer it takes to conclude the land reform programme, the more costly it would be because according to Van Schalkwyk & Van Zyl, (1996) if landowners expect land to appreciate at a rate similar to the rate of inflation, buyers will be expected to pay more for the same land at some time in the future. Literature has also shown that the market-driven approach is by no means a solution to land reform programme (Aliber & Mokoena, 2002; Rohde, Benjamin & Hoffman, 2001; Wisborg & Rohde, 2004; Lambais, 2008), because the market favours the more privileged while those with very little or no means find it hard to compete in the open land market. Empirical record of market-based land reforms has shown that it will only redistribute little land and benefit few landless families, and such reforms are likely to be unaffordable to the would-be beneficiaries because the inflated market value of the land exceeds the agronomic value of the land (Aliber & Mokoena, 2002).

The price of land for farming and residential purposes will continue to rise unless the government interferes in the land market by imposing some price restrictions for the purpose of land reform. For example, consideration should be given to setting maximum price limits based on geographic locations or agro-ecological zones. This ideal will however require more efforts and resources being put in working out agro-ecological zone maps and carrying capacity maps (MLR, 2016) as baseline instruments for the setting of any price limits in any location.

Besides the above, the government should also impose suitable methodologies for valuing land acquired for redistribution purpose. When land is purchased or valued for bona fide farming purposes, the price the farmer pays for or the valuation of that land should be based on its income potential. The net farm income from the land should be sufficient to compensate for the risk of investing in that land, while ensuring the purchaser and his/her family of a decent standard of living. The price would then depend entirely on the following three factors:

(a) The income potential of the land, i.e. the expected net farm income from the land [the farm's ability to generate profit];

(b) Expectations in respect of expected return on all capital investments in land (the capitalisation rate); and

(c) The living expenses which must be met to ensure a decent standard of living to the landowner and his/her dependents.

6.3.4 Land Restitution

Landlessness and inequitable access to land requires to be addressed in the context of restorative justice. According to the NSA (2012), Namibia is one country with a high Gini-coefficient (0.597) in terms of inequality, thus it is argued that the highly skewed land ownership pattern in Namibia is one of the contributing factors to a high Gini-coefficient pattern in the country. This phenomenon is a result of colonial and apartheid policies of land dispossession. Therefore, where necessary, the Namibian government should consider providing restitution for the loss of legitimate tenure rights to land to those communities that were dispossessed during colonial and apartheid regimes. At the time of collecting data for this research in 2017, the MLR was still conducting regional consultation in preparations for the Second National Land Conference which was held in 2018. At the end of the Conference among the resolution adopted was ‘to establish a Commission of Inquiry into Ancestral Land Claims’, which was subsequently appointed by the President of Namibia in 2019, and named as ‘Commission of Inquiry into Ancestral Land Rights and Restitution’ (CIALRR). The final report of the Commission was not readily available for public consumption by the time of finalizing this report.

Government should ensure that restitution is carried out in tandem with the existing obligations under national and international laws and instruments.

The National Land Policy or the Land Reform Act should make provision, where possible, to enable the return of land to those who suffered the loss, through colonial and apartheid land dispossession. Communities in the Omaheke region, the Ova Herero, the Ovambanderu, the San and the Batswana, suffered from the colonial administration of the Germans and the apartheid policy of South Africa.

In situations where the original piece of land is not possible to be returned, the Government should provide compensation in the form of money or giving an alternative piece of land elsewhere to those communities in Omaheke whose land was dispossessed through colonialism and apartheid. Restitution is one of the strategies to deal with ancestral land claims emanating from indigenous people, and such concerns should be attended to within the national context and in line with appropriate laws and policies governing land reform. Restitution in the Namibian context may require developing ethnic-sensitive policies and legislations that provide for transparent processes for implementing it. Public education campaigns through vigorous information dissemination on restitution processes in major indigenous languages should form part of the implementation strategy. In addition, ancestral land claimants should be assisted with legal and paralegal support during the process of making their claims. Where resources allow, successful claimants should also be given post-settlement support services to enable them to make a meaningful livelihood on the new land.

6.3.5 Diversification of Resettlement Models

This study further found that the current resettlement models being implemented in Omaheke Region focuses exclusively on livestock farming, thus rendering the bulk of land being offered through the willing seller, willing buyer principle unsuitable for resettlement. "The revision of current resettlement models with a view of implementing broader, diversified, inclusive resettlement models is critical to an effective agrarian reform process that is tailored to the varying land needs of the eligible beneficiaries" (Ministry of Land Reform, 2017, p. 15). This, arguably, will enable the acquisition and redistribution of the bulk of land being offered to the State thorough the willing-seller, willing-buyer principle to the landless communities.

> Revision of current models and introduction of new ones requires a clear understanding by all implementers of the land reform programme in terms of who are the beneficiaries [the landless] of the land reform programme and how should they be selected. Within the clearly defined objectives and purpose of land reform programme, it is critical that beneficiaries are also profiled and grouped accordingly in order to ease the selection burden. This requires the

employment of resettlement models that will enable the ministry to rank potential beneficiaries based on their different land needs and within the framework of the objectives of land reform programme (Ministry of Land Reform, 2017, p. 15).

In order to fulfil the latter, and understanding that resettlement is intended to "cover all kinds of landless, displaced and destitute people in the country" (Ministry of Land Reform, 2017, p. 9) (MLRR, 2001), the speedy adoption and implementation of the following three resettlement models is critical to address the three main categories of landlessness in the seven constituencies of the Omaheke Region namely; "the Commercial Resettlement Model (CRM); the Semi-Commercial Model (SCRM) and; the Subsistence Resettlement Model (SRM)" (Ministry of Land Reform, 2017, p. 15). At the time of finalizing this study, a draft proposal of resettlement models was still under discussion for consideration as part of the Revised National Resettlement Policy 2018-2027 of the Ministry of Land Reform.

As indicated in the research methodology, qualitative research is based upon observation and interpretations of people's perceptions of different events. This methodological approach of qualitative research is an enquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions on inquiry that explore a social or human problem (Creswell, 2014) (Creswell, 1998). The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyses words, reports, details of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting; this approach is known as grounded theory approach.

Glaser and Strauss (1967), asserts that in grounded theory approach, the researcher does not commence the process of research with a predetermined theory in mind, but the formulation of theory/theories stem from the data that allows one to explain how people experience and respond to events (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) such as land reform, resettlement, and economic development. Grounded Theory approach is a systematic development of theory in social settings and it depends upon inductive approach to construct theory or model (Khan, 2014). The grounded theory approach is an appropriate way to study human behaviour on a sensitive topic of land ownership even in a different cultural context (Wolcott, 1990).

Therefore, this study employed the grounded theory approach to conceptualise thinking and theory building on the phenomenon of landlessness and socio-economic development, rather than hypothesis testing. Hence the emphasis to support the development and adoption of the three models of resettlement to address the phenomenon of landlessness and socio-economic development in an integrated approach.

Similar models have been proposed in the Draft National Resettlement Policy of 2017 by the Ministry of Land Reform but they have not been adopted nor implemented because the current Resettlement Policy of 2001 requires revision and approval to enable full implementation of the proposed models. This study confirms, through the data collected that was analysed, through observations and interpretations of people's perception about the issue of landlessness and social well-being, that landlessness is 'not a one-size-fits-all' phenomenon, but one that requires a differentiated approach. These resettlement models are more inclusive and responsive to the diverse land needs of the various communities and individuals in the Omaheke region. The sections that follow give a detailed description of the models.

6.3.5.1 Commercial Resettlement Model (CRM)

The Commercial Resettlement Model (CRM) should target the attainment of the high economic objectives of agricultural (commercial) land reform of enabling resettled farmers “to become economically self-reliant, to participate in the wider economy and create jobs”. This would “systematically address the existing skewed land ownership and introduce the formerly disadvantaged Namibians into the mainstream of the national economy as stated in the resettlement and land policies” (Ministry of Land Reform, 2017, p. 16). The CRM therefore requires that, “the farms acquired should not be partitioned into small portions” (MLR, 2017), because such action “has proven to be uneconomical and unsustainable” from a highly commercial agricultural perspective, and also “given Namibia’s erratic rainfall patterns and harsh climatic conditions” (MLR, 2017), especially in the central and southern regions.

To ensure continuity and sustainability of the productive value of farms being acquired under the National Resettlement Programme (NRP), full farms should be acquired and allocated to carefully selected and tried beneficiaries under this category without subdivision. While the cost of implementing this model may be deemed excessive in the short-term, its long-term economic benefits are undoubtedly indispensable. The Commercial Resettlement Models as shown in Figure 6.1 below could be implemented within the following framework:

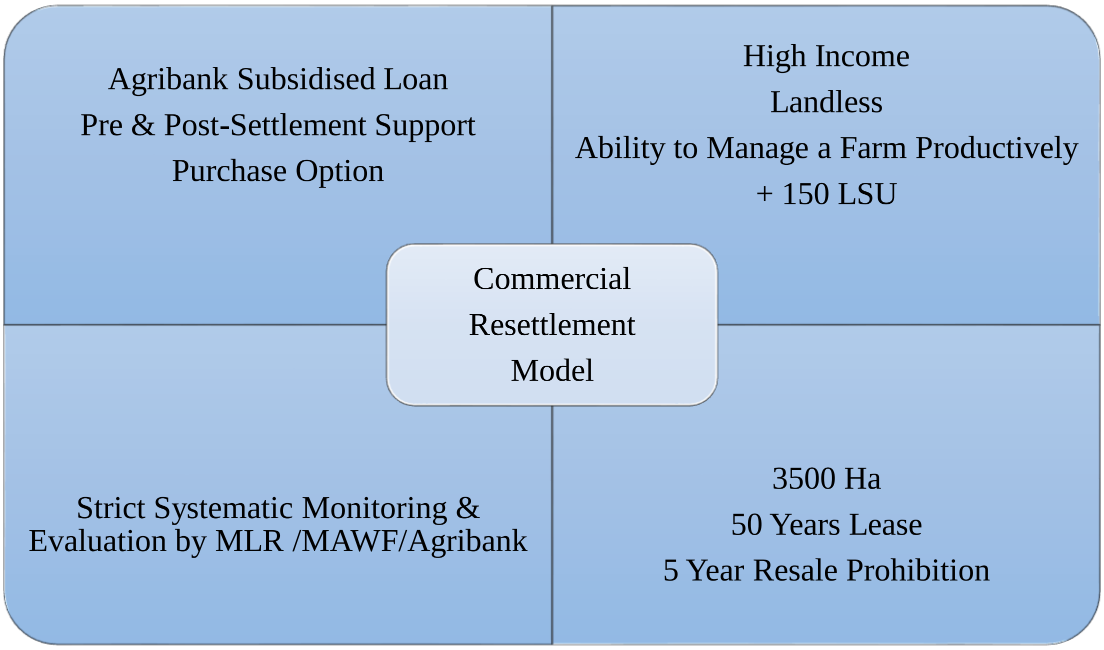

Figure 6.1 A Commercial Resettlement Model
Source: Own Design using information from study and MLR (2001; 2017) documents

The target group for the CRM should be people who have no land but are higher income earners or are owners of significant numbers of livestock (+ 150 LSU or the equivalent) but need land for resettlement. The main purposes for allocating land to eligible beneficiaries within this model is to ensure commercially viable agricultural practices.

Beneficiaries of this model could be allocated land of any size up to a maximum of 3500 hectares, "depending on agro-ecological zone" (MLR, 2017) and nature of farming venture or agribusiness suitable for the type of land acquired. Allocation to eligible beneficiaries should be done on a 50-year "leasehold basis depending on the proposed agricultural venture" (MLR, 2017) (i.e. land use). The determination to extend the probation or terminate the occupation agreement will depend on the observed potential of the beneficiary at the end of the probation period.

Option to purchase the farming unit on a cost recovery basis before the end of the lease period should be applicable to beneficiaries who successfully complete their probation. Beneficiaries opting to acquire their allotments/farms may be assisted to obtain financing from Agribank in order to buy their farmland; contributing directly to AgriBank client base.

“Measured / tailored pre- and post-settlement support service should be offered to the CRM beneficiaries depending on the farming venture. The lessee should be able to prove his/her ability to productively use the land with minimum support from government during the probation period” (MLR, 2017, p.31).

A resale prohibition clause should be imposed on all successful beneficiaries who at the end of the prohibition period would be able to buy their resettlement land from the State. At the end of the prohibition clause the preference right to purchase the land acquired by successful beneficiaries under this model will be given to the State (i.e. just as provided for under Section 17 of the ACLRA of 1995. Strict and systematic monitoring and valuation mechanism should be put in place in order to enable the successful implementation of this model.

6.3.5.2 Semi-Commercial Resettlement Model (SCRM)

“The objectives of the SCRM are to enhance the welfare of the people through improvement of productivity and to enable them to be self-reliant in terms of food security, to correct the past colonial wrongs and to enable the people [of Omaheke region, and Namibian citizens in general], to achieve social and economic equity (MLR, 2017, p.17). The SCRM “serves as the bridging phase” between subsistence and commercial models. This model targets to provide access to land to people who have no land but have little livestock or are medium income earners.

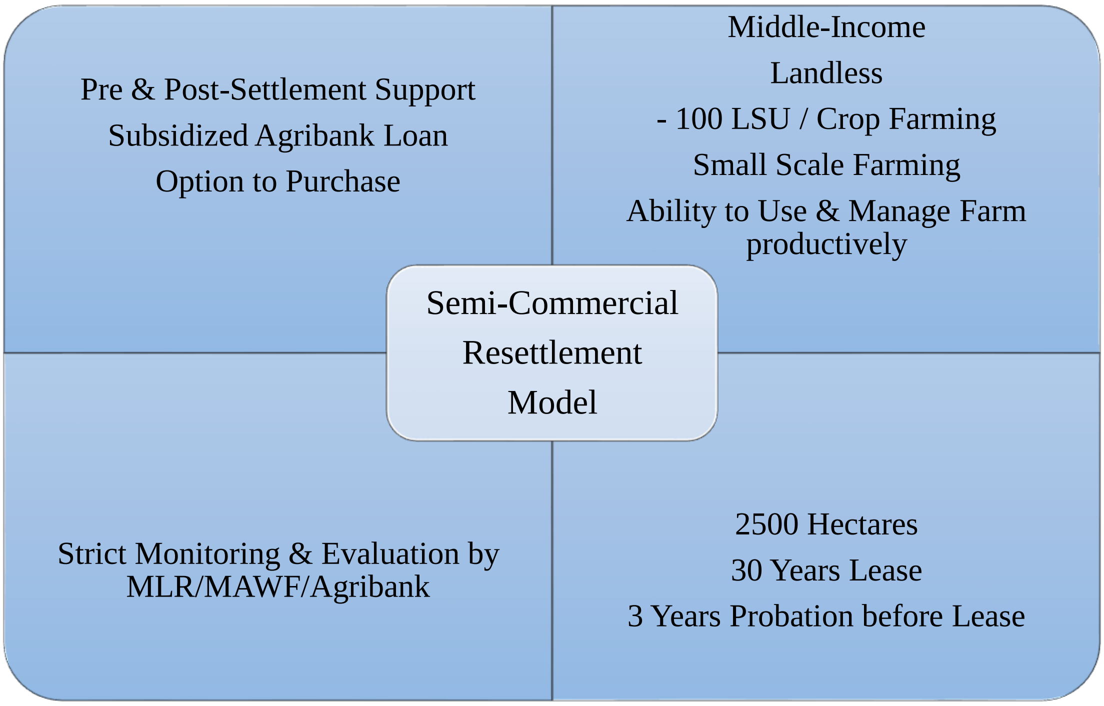

Figure 6.2: Semi-Commercial Resettlement Model
Source: Own design using information from study and MLR (2001; 2017) documents

The SCRM may respond to both the political and socio-economic objective of land reform by ensuring that the land acquired is subdivided into semi-commercial farming units for allotment to eligible beneficiaries. "The beneficiaries under this model are then expected to ensure that the land allocated to them is productively utilised by engaging in meaningful agricultural activities at semi-commercial capacity levels" (MLR, 2017, p.17). The principles outlined here serve as guidelines for the implementation of the SCRM.

Provision of land to middle-income earners for small-scale commercial farming is the aim. Depending on agro-ecological zone, allotment units of any size but not exceeding

2500 hectares may be allocated. A probation period of 3 years could be observed with no formal lease granted during the probation.

The intention here is that, should the Ministry satisfy itself about the inability of the beneficiary to use the land productively, such allocation may be revoked (during or at the end of the probation period) in favour of another eligible and more capable beneficiaries. A maximum of 30-year renewable lease may be granted to beneficiaries who successfully complete their probation.

An option to purchase the farming units after the probation period should be allowed to the beneficiaries on a cost recovery basis. Depending on the venture, measured pre- and post-settlement support should be provided to the beneficiaries during the probation period, where-after beneficiaries are expected to be self-reliant and self-supportive.

This model conforms to the current approach of land allocation and could be implemented with ease while ensuring that "those resettled prior to the implementation of this model could be afforded an opportunity to buy their allotments without subjecting them to a probation period but rather, stringent selection criteria should be observed in order to ensure the empowerment of proven farmers" (MLR, 2017, p.33). Successful beneficiaries who qualify to buy their farming units may be assisted to obtain funding (loans) from Agribank.

"Allowing beneficiaries an option to acquire their farming units" (MLR, 2017, p.33) would help to identify those with the willingness and ability to farm productively. Hence, the model could be employed as a mechanism for self-selection among productive and none productive resettlement beneficiaries. Strict monitoring and valuation mechanism ought to be in place in order to enable successful implementation of this model.

6.3.5.3 Subsistence Resettlement Model (SRM)

The Subsistence Resettlement Model leans heavily on the socio-political economy aspect of land reform. Subsistence resettlement is a model in which crop production, stock rearing, and other activities are conducted mainly for personal consumption; it is the way of life for the majority of African people living in agriculture-based economies. It also aims to contribute to the objective of "enhancing the welfare of the people through provision of destination areas where potential beneficiaries are supposed to earn a decent living" (MLR, 2017, p.17).

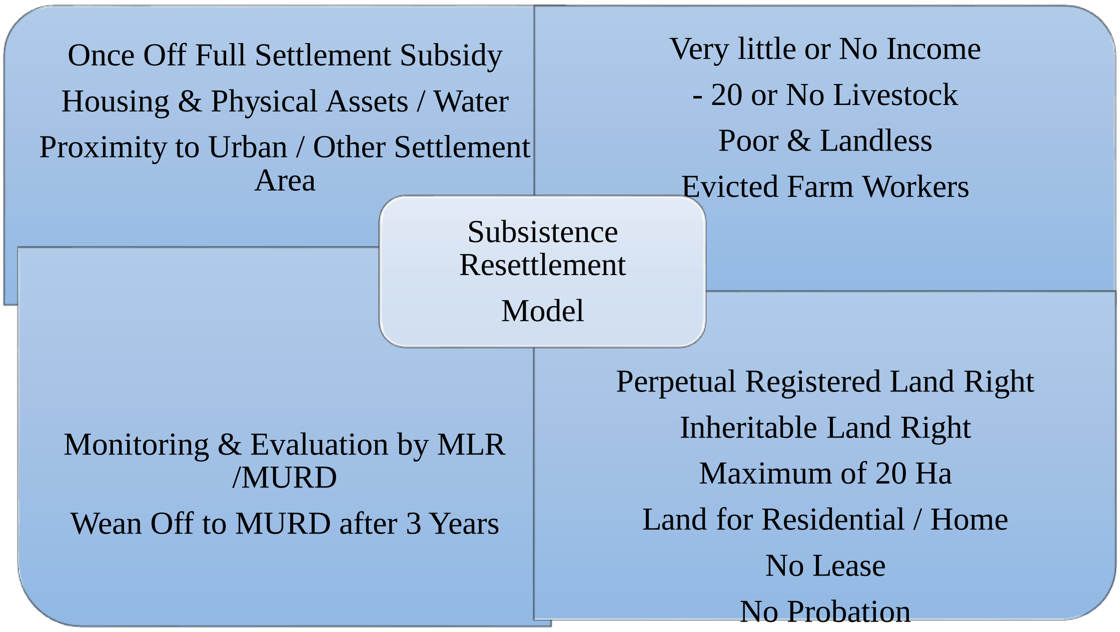

Figure 6.3: Subsistence Resettlement Model (SRM)

This model is recommended with the understanding that resettlement should meet both the social and economic needs of the beneficiaries. Therefore, this model is recommended to be implemented within the following framework:

The target beneficiaries are “people with no income or very little income, who have little or no livestock and are landless” (MLR, 2001; MLR, 2017, p.17). Unlike the CRM and SCRM models, there are no viable commercial activities expected from beneficiaries under the Subsistence Resettlement Model thus, no probation period is required. The main aim here is the provision of land mainly for refuge, which people could call home and they could be allocated perpetual rights of occupation valid for their lifetime with no lease fees applicable. Upon the death of the primary beneficiary, the right should also be transferable or inheritable among close family members only and in the absence of close family members to succeed, the right would revert to the State for reallocation to other eligible beneficiaries.

The size of land rights allocated under this model may range from any size but not exceeding a maximum of 20 hectares. Land on the periphery of urban areas could be targeted for acquisition to benefit primarily this model and given the proximity of such land to towns, beneficiaries may be afforded an opportunity to seek for jobs in nearby towns in order to support themselves and their families.

Since small parcels which are close to town are the target, high cost of acquisition should be expected. As the category of beneficiaries are the poorest landless of the two categories discussed above, they require targeted support if they are to succeed in terms of improving their livelihoods. Therefore, a once off full Government settlement subsidy in the form of housing or other physical assets may be offered to the beneficiaries.

The Subsistence Resettlement Model recognises the fact that a significant number of previously disadvantaged (black) Namibians, for example, former farm workers, marginalised communities (the San and Ovahimba) and even retired professionals, are landless and have no secure place to live on. These people are not farmers, they simply want a small piece of land for their dwelling and perhaps a small garden or enough land to keep a few livestock for subsistence purposes.

Currently, the only option available to them is to apply for a compact farming unit being advertised by the Ministry for resettlement. This model therefore presents an option for such landless Namibians who do not want to become farmers but should have access to basic services such as secure housing, water and sanitation and other social services. It further responds to the need to recognize the fact that there are low- or no-income earners with various land needs and that the resettlement strategies should be tailored to respond to such land needs which may include any land-based subsistence activity.

By allowing people to engage in the above economic activities although on a subsistence level would mean providing them with land, housing, infrastructure, knowledge and skills to maintain and develop their new environment and entitlements. To assist such beneficiaries to establish an innovative attitude to ensure self-reliance.

Having outlined the above, it is strongly proposed that the suggested models may be developed further by detailing how each could be practically applied in terms of their financial implications, desirability, feasibility, sustainability and economic impact. These three models of resettlement, if implemented properly are also in tandem with the spirit of Harambee (inclusivity; where no one is left out). Social justice and inclusivity are critical policy strategies to address landlessness and socio-economic disparities that are prevailing in Namibia, especially in the Omaheke region.

6.3.6 Criteria for Selection of Beneficiaries

According to Van Rooyen & Njobe-Mbuli (1996), it is internationally known that land reform and resettlement programmes have been predicated on two overlapping objectives, namely; to achieve greater social justice through redistribution to previously underprivileged groups, and to realise increased productivity of land through the reorganisation of agricultural institutions to achieve greater efficiency (Van Zyl, Kirsten, & Binswanger, 1996).

Literature has shown that where land reform and resettlement programmes have been implemented, selection criteria were derived from broad statements in national policy documents about who the prime beneficiaries should be. The characteristics of the target beneficiaries typically come straight from the objectives of the land redistribution programme, and they directly influence the main features of the scheme (Binswanger-Mkhize, Bourguigon, & Van der Brink, 2009). In most cases, the weight given to these broad objectives is often conditioned by ideological and policy goals of the regime in power (World Bank, 1993).

When contemplating to develop selection criteria for resettlement, the following questions become relevant: Why have selection criteria? How will the selection criteria be contextualised, applied and implemented in a given situation? The Ministry of Land Reform in Namibia is complemented for having developed a base for selecting among beneficiaries eligible for resettlement, notwithstanding its challenges.

It is a fact that the current selection criteria in a market-driven land reform has some shortcomings in that; the market does the selection, discriminating against particularly those beneficiaries who are poor and landless while at the same time favouring those who are more affluent and already empowered. This fact warrants that further work needs to be done in developing other selection modalities that are tailored to the varying models of resettlement as proposed above. Doing so would allow an inclusive approach being followed in terms of land allocation that addresses the varying land needs. This would entail buying any land on offer and then purposefully apportioning such land to a designated category of beneficiaries as outlined in the three resettlement models above.

6.3.7 Pre and Post-Settlement Support

The prevailing landlessness and socio-economic inequalities in the Omaheke Region, and other regions of Namibia, have been the intended and unintended results of past policies of colonialism and apartheid. During colonial and apartheid regimes, a range of instruments were employed to support a model of full-time owner-occupied family farming for large-scale, white commercial farmers, to the exclusion of the majority black rural population in the Omaheke Region. White commercial Farmers' support service was done deliberately to ensure access to land; to financial services; to other support services in farm and non-farm rural enterprises, and to social and physical infrastructure (Golino, Hobson, & Vink, 1996).

Therefore, it is a fact that what happens before and after physical resettlement of beneficiaries sets beneficiaries for failure or success. Hence, the underlining assumption of rural reconstruction is that equitable access to land, opportunities and support is one of the necessary conditions to address the apparent race, gender and geographic dislocations, including the income and wealth disparities in rural areas of the Omaheke Region.

Reference was thus made to the Permanent Technical Team report (PTT, 2005) which suggests various resettlement support packages. Therefore, pre- and post-settlement support packages tailored to each of the proposed resettlement models be developed, using the PTT (2005) proposals as a basis. These packages should thus be reviewed in order to make them relevant to the suggested models, and their financial values also be scaled up in order to reflect current financial needs of each model.

The other important element in land redistribution programme is the type of land tenure system under which the land redistribution takes place. Land tenure is a derivative of the concept of natural resource tenure, while tenure is a social construct, defining the relationship between individuals and groups of individuals by which rights and obligations (with respect to control and use of resources) are defined (ECA, 2004).

One may ask: When the land is acquired and transferred to beneficiaries in the Omaheke Region, what property rights do they receive? It is argued that economic efficiency is served best if the property right is of infinite duration and fully tradable (Binswanger-Mkhize, Bourguigon, & Van der Brink, 2009). In that way, the productivity of the resource can be exploited to the fullest extent, and if a particular owner is unable to extract the maximum profits from the resource, the property could be sold to someone who would do so. In the case of Namibia's land redistribution programme, beneficiaries of land reform enter into a 99-years leasehold agreement with the State to occupy and use the commercial agricultural land.

This policy practice has been criticised by some as a limiting factor for beneficiaries to attract funding from financial institutions. This is due to the fact that resettlement leaseholds are not tradable and not acceptable by financial institutions to be used as collateral, because ownership of the land is not transferred from the State to the beneficiary. This tenure arrangement also discourages beneficiaries from investing their own resources into the farming venture, a situation which may lead to poor land management and reduced agricultural productivity of the distributed land.

For agricultural production to improve on resettlement farms, the land redistribution programme should be accompanied by a comprehensive support package. As the East Asian land reforms have demonstrated (Binswanger-Mkhize et al., 2009), resettlement beneficiaries should have access to other services, agricultural inputs, and improved output markets in order to make land reform more successful.

6.4 Conclusion

This study made an analysis on landlessness and its impact on the social and economic development in the Omaheke Region with general implications to Namibia. Based on a quantitative and qualitative analysis, the results of the study indicate that land is the principal asset in rural economy of the Omaheke Region and landlessness is strongly correlated with poverty coupled with a lack of access to other socio-economic amenities in the rural areas of Omaheke and Namibia in general. This confirms the general perception that highly skewed distribution of land in Namibia is one of the important causes of widespread poverty, particularly in rural areas and as a consequence, hampers economic development.

The country’s negotiated transition to independence ensured that economic structures, [especially land ownership by white farmers], remained largely intact after independence. Despite various attempts by the Namibian Government to [reform the economic structure and] provide basic services for all (such as education and health) and despite several policy interventions aimed at redressing the apartheid legacies and extending social protection, Namibia still ranks amongst the most unequal societies in the world (Jauch, 2012, p. 12).

Landlessness to agricultural land is one of the most important contributor to rural poverty, especially among the San communities. Though access to land is considered essential for poverty reduction in rural areas, it may not alone be sufficient to reduce poverty and fuel economic development because of other factors that drive the growth of the agriculture sector. These include the higher use of conventional inputs such as water; fertilizers and seed; adequate rural infrastructure; increase in total factor productivity that depends on agricultural research and extension services; and targeted transformation in the institutional setup including financial institution inputs and output markets. These are some areas where future research could be focused to design and implement a pro-poor land acquisition and redistribution policy and institutional transformation to reduce landlessness and eradicate poverty.

The study found that there is an ambiguity in defining landlessness because there is no threshold or land ceiling which could be a basis for determining landlessness in the Omaheke region, and Namibia in general. However, the working definition for this study is that landlessness is a socio-economic phenomenon which refers to access to plots of land too small or of poor quality to provide a minimum livelihood under existing land use patterns and technical capabilities, relative to the prevailing land tenure policy and legislation in a given environment, region or country.

Policies and legislations dealing with land acquisition and redistribution are focusing on fragmentation of big, productive farms into some units exclusively for livestock farming without taking into consideration other land needs and uses. The study shows that there are three main types of landless people in the Omaheke, namely: people who need land for subsistence agriculture and establishment of homes. Most of the San communities fall within this category of landlessness. These are people who have no land, no income, and no livestock but need small piece of land to establish a home.

The second category of landless are people who need land to graze their livestock and conduct other supplementary agricultural activities and build better houses. These are the majority of OvaHerero who live in communal areas of the Omaheke Region. Some of these people have no land, no income, but have little livestock which they intend to grow into and become small or medium commercial farmers.

The third category of landless people are those who have income, livestock and have access to some land, but they need more land to expand their agricultural enterprises as commercial farmers. These are mostly the middle-class and working group who are able to buy livestock but cannot afford to buy big farms to expand their farming activities. Although the National Resettlement Policy mentions these three categories of landlessness, the land allocation process has little regard for those landless who need land for residential or small agricultural activities such as crop, poultry, piggery, or horticulture production. Instead, the NRP focused too much on allocating land for 'big' commercial farming activities, mostly livestock (cattle, goats and sheep). This study proposes that small portions of agricultural land be allocated to those who are in need for such small economic activities. These sentiments were expressed by respondents in the Omaheke region.

The results of this study showed that there are various causes of landlessness in different countries of the world, but they are somehow similar and related in most parts of Asia and Africa, and Namibia is no exception. The three major interrelated forces that moulded traditional patterns of land ownership into its current fragmented and unequal conditions are: (a) the intervention of European rule through colonization in Africa and elsewhere; (b) the progressive introduction of monetized transactions through the market (capitalism) coupled with the rise in power of the money-lender; and (c), the rapid growth of populations.

Moreover, the study showed that land dispossession by the German colonial and South Africa's apartheid administrations have contributed to the prevailing landlessness among rural communities in the Omaheke Region. This situation is also applicable to the rest of Namibia, especially in the central and southern regions of the country where indigenous communities were forcefully dispossessed of their land. Furthermore, results have shown that most landless people depend on fulltime employment and subsistence farming as the main source of income to sustain their livelihoods. Other landless people depend on social grants (pension) and remittances as a main source of income.

While economic growth alone is not sufficient for poverty eradication, there is a need to pay attention to or put in place, policies and schemes that promote social justice and equitable distribution of resources, especially land. There is also a need to develop and implement, on a regular basis, a monitoring and evaluation system to assess the impact of land redistribution and other related schemes on the poor landless beneficiaries. It appears that both agricultural / economic growth and poverty alleviation could be achieved, if land inequality is reduced. Therefore, this study concludes that landlessness has an effect on the standard of living which, ultimately, affects socio-economic development in the region or country. This assertion is supported by Manprasert and Rahman (2006, p.56) who asserted that when the degree of landlessness increases, the standard of living decreases.

6.4.1 Aligning Land Reform to Rural Development

This study has analyzed data and compared some land reform research studies that were carried out in other countries and, finally, draws some major conclusions on the following three issues: (a) objectives for carrying out a land reform programme; (b) the necessary conditions for a successful land redistribution that addresses landlessness and inequality and, (c) the necessary conditions for the realisation of a people-centered rural development strategy.

6.4.1.1 Setting Objectives for Land Reform Programme

Literature (World Bank, 2003; Zarin, 1994; Doner, 1972; King, 1977; Van Zyl, 1996; Todaro & Smith, 2012) has indicated an agreement on the definition and meaning of land reform. There is also a consensus that there are four broad objectives that drive the design, formulation and implementation of a land reform programme, namely; political, social, economic and environmental objectives.

(a) **Political objectives:** Advocates of political land reform appreciate, for instance, the dissolution of feudal relationships of production and excessively concentrated and exploitative elite power structures. Specific objectives of political land reform include the creation of political stability and peace.

In post-conflict situations, this would suggest a focus on the provision of land to war veterans and other ex-combatants, and to people displaced by war (such as in Namibia and Zimbabwe). In post-colonial situations, the political objective also could include correcting the racial imbalance in land ownership and empowering members of the new elite. The Namibian and Zimbabwean land reform situations, including Algeria, are good examples.

It is the balance of political power in a country which ultimately determines the extent of a land reform, and the political factors help to explain the frequency vide discrepancy between the provisions of a reform law and their eventual practical effects. History has shown that many governments, including Namibia, use land reform, or the promise of it, to gain or retain power. On the other hand, the landless people use the same political power by withholding votes to deny political power to a political party which does not have an agenda for land redistribution that favours them (the landless).

(b) **Social objectives:** Advocates of social land reform expect little overall economic gain from the reform, but see it as a way to provide some security and subsistence to a large unemployed rural labour force. The thrust of social land reform objectives is to target rapid and direct impact on poverty and achieve social justice. They put more emphasis on decongestion of overpopulated communal areas, resettlement of squatters, destitute people, and the landless; and the associated reduction of hunger and extreme poverty. Good examples of social land reforms were (or are still) implemented in Namibia, South Africa, and Brazil.

Unlike Namibia and Zimbabwe, the South African social land reform has a component of restitution. Klug (1996), states that "restitution, as recognised in both civil and common law, is the act of restoring anything to its rightful owner, of making good or giving equivalent for any loss; it requires a person who has been unjustly enriched at the expense of another to make restitution to the other" (Klug, 1996, p.394). This kind of land redistribution allows indigenous communities or individuals to claim their ancestral land that was taken away in the past without consent.

Restitution is possible here due to the fact that many of the anti-apartheid civil society groups and freedom fighters in South Africa had been deeply involved in litigation against forced resettlements and cared deeply about the people who had been removed from their land by the apartheid regime (Binswanger-Mkhize, Bourguigon, & Van der Brink, 2009). Social relations in the rural areas of South Africa are the product of a history of dispossession in which the law and legal practitioners have played a significant role (Klug, 1996)

There is widespread agreement among social scientists and economists and other development specialists on the need for land reform, especially in Africa where inequality is increasing (Kooper, 2018; Todaro & Smith, 2012; Van Zyl, 1996), and more so in Namibia where land inequality is entrenched and the land-gap between the landless and the landed continue to widen (Werner, 1993; Katjiua, 2018). Land reform has been identified as a necessary precondition for poverty reduction (Pichel, 2017). From this perspective, communities that were disposed and forcefully removed from their land in the Omaheke Region deserve special consideration in the current land redistribution process by allowing them to claim restitution.

(c) **Economic objectives**: The economic motive of land reform stresses efficiency, productivity superiority of family farms, and expect the land reform to make a significant contribution, not only to agricultural production, but also to creating rural employment, self-employment, and poverty reduction. The neoclassical theory looks at land reform as an integral part of the strategy and policy of economic development (Donor, 1972; Warriner, 1969; Ahmad, 1975).

From a strict view of economic efficiency and growth, there is ample empirical evidence (Todaro & Smith, 2012; Zarin & Bujang, 1994; World Bank, 2003; FAO, 2017) that land redistribution not only increases rural employment and raises rural incomes but also leads to greater agricultural production and more efficient resource utilisation.

Economic land reform includes the specific objectives of promoting a more equitable distribution of land, thereby increasing the productivity of agriculture, as a consequence, creating jobs and self-employment and reducing rural poverty substantially. Examples of such economic land reform objectives are found in Brazil, China, India, the Philippines, South Africa, and Zimbabwe. Within the economic land reform perspective, one can also find advocates for allocating more land to 'competent or strong farmers' who could become small-scale, capitalist, commercial farmers.

Such examples are found in Namibia (including the Omaheke Region), Brazil, Kenya, South Africa, and Zimbabwe.

Therefore, if programmes of land reform can be legislated and effectively implemented by the government, the basis for improved output levels and higher standards of living for rural peasants in the Omaheke Region will be fully established. Farm structures and land tenure patterns must be adapted to the dual objectives of increasing food production and promoting a wider distribution of the benefits of agrarian progress, allowing further economic activities that may lead to poverty reduction, if not eradication.

(d) **Environmental objectives:** The main thrust of the environmental objective of land reform is the environmentally sustainable management of land, forests, and wildlife resources. This objectives put emphasis on turning or giving ownership and management of land and other natural resources to a defined community. For example, the establishment and proclamation of conservancies and community forests in some communal areas of Namibia, including the Omaheke Region, are geared towards achieving environmental objective of land reform.

Environmental security is inextricably linked with human security, with some writers stressing environmental security as the capacity of humans to live harmoniously with nature or to maintain a sustainable environment, while others stress the human security element of individuals and groups being able to meet their basic needs from sustainable environment. However, it is worth to mention here that environmental objectives of land reform have some negative consequences, such as inducing conflicts at the inter-state and intra-state levels, the class and racial levels, at the local level and, what is commonly known as human-wildlife conflicts.

6.4.1.2 Supportive Land Policies

Land policy formulation in Namibia and other African countries has escalated over the over the past years in response to the persistence of complex land related problems, struggles for access to land for agriculture and livelihoods, and to meet varied political, economic, social and environmental objectives. The main aim of formulating land policies and legislations is to protect the land rights of individuals through laws, to define the rights and responsibilities of institutions, ensure that the 'rule of law' is applied when land rights are extinguished by the State, and to adjudicate in cases of conflict.

The full benefits of small-scale agricultural development in Omaheke Region cannot be realised unless land policies and legal systems are created that provide the necessary incentives, economic opportunities, and access to needed credit and inputs to enable small farmers to expand their output and raise their productivity. Although land redistribution is essential in Namibia, it is likely to be ineffective and perhaps even counterproductive unless there are corresponding changes in rural institutions that control production such as banks, moneylenders, and seed and fertilizers distributors, in supporting government aid services and pricing policies with regard to both inputs and outputs.

Even where land reform is less necessary but where productivity and incomes are low, this broad network of external support services, along with appropriate government policies related to both farm input and outputs, is an essential condition for sustained agricultural progress and rural development in the Omaheke Region. For redistributed land to be more productive, inputs such as water infrastructure remains critical in the semi-arid and arid areas of the Omaheke Region.

6.4.1.3 Integrated Rural Development Objectives

Rural and socio-economic development in the Omaheke Region, though dependent primarily on small-farmers agricultural progress, implies much more. Integrated rural development encompasses the following:

(a) Efforts to raise both farm and nonfarm rural real incomes through job creation, rural industrialisation, and other nonfarm opportunities and the increased provision of education, health and nutrition, affordable housing, and a variety of related social and welfare services;

(b) A decreasing inequality in the distribution of rural incomes and a lessening of urban-rural imbalances in incomes and economic opportunities;

(c) Successful attention to the need for environmental sustainability – limiting the extension of farmland into remaining forests and other fragile areas, promoting conservation, and preventing the harmful misuse of agro-chemicals and other inputs and;

(d) Capacity of the rural sector to sustain and accelerate the pace of these improvements over time. The achievement of these four integrated objectives is vital for the socio-economic development of the Omaheke Region.

Given the fact that more people are still located in rural areas, by restoring a proper balance between urban and rural economic opportunities and creating the conditions for broader popular participation in national/rural development efforts and rewards, the Omaheke Region would have taken a giant step towards the realisation of the true meaning of socio-economic development.

A land redistribution programme and rural development efforts that benefit the poor and the landless can succeed through a joint effort by other government institutions, private sector and all farmers. The first step in this direction should be the provision of secured tenure rights to the individual landless farmer. It is for reasons of higher agricultural output and the simultaneous achievement of both greater efficiency that land reform is often proposed and implemented as a necessary first condition for agricultural development in many developing countries, including Namibia. However, it is unfortunate that land reform efforts are seen by many landless people as failures and inefficient because government bowed to political and economic pressures from powerful landowning groups and failed to implement the intended objectives of reforms.

6.5 Recommendations for Further Study

This study was conducted in one region of the country that experienced colonial and apartheid land dispossessions before independence, besides, it is one of the eight regions where the programme of commercial land redistribution has been implemented since independence. Therefore, in order to have a comprehensive and inclusive information on the effects of landlessness on socio-economic conditions in Namibia, and building upon the findings of this research, it is recommended that a similar study be conducted at a larger scale to include other political regions of Namibia such as Karas, Hardap, Kunene, Otjozondjupa, Erongo, Oshikoto and Khomas.

Further studies would also address some of the limitations of this Case Study and expand on the theories, frameworks and model that were addressed in this study. It is also recommended that future study of this nature should be undertaken over a longer period of time with reasonable human, financial and material resources. Finally, further research in this area could investigate the social and economic impact of land redistribution on white commercial farmers in Namibia who sold land through willing seller, willing buyer and those whose farms were expropriated with compensation. Land reform programme is one of the most important developmental strategies, hence, there is need for timely and systematic method of monitoring and evaluating its implementation.

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APPENDECES

APPENDIX A: Main Source of Income by Respondents

	Main Source	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Missing Values	17	15.0	15.0	15.0
	3	1	.9	.9	15.9
	5	1	.9	.9	16.8
	75% of cattle farming	1	.9	.9	17.7
	Business	2	1.8	1.8	19.5
	Business of knitting	1	.9	.9	20.4
	Cattle	3	2.7	2.7	23.0
	Cattle farming	1	.9	.9	23.9
	Children's social grant	2	1.8	1.8	25.7
	Clerk	1	.9	.9	26.5
	Communal farmer	1	.9	.9	27.4
	Employment	8	7.1	7.1	34.5
	Farm work salary	1	.9	.9	35.4
	Farmer	1	.9	.9	36.3
	Farming	9	8.0	8.0	44.2
	Government employment	2	1.8	1.8	46.0
	GRN	1	.9	.9	46.9
	Grocery shop	2	1.8	1.8	48.7
	Husband works on contract	1	.9	.9	49.6
	Livestock	2	1.8	1.8	51.3
	Maid	1	.9	.9	52.2
	Ministry of Health training	1	.9	.9	53.1
	Monthly salary	1	.9	.9	54.0
	Parastatal	1	.9	.9	54.9
	Pension	4	3.5	3.5	58.4
	Pension grant	1	.9	.9	59.3
	Pensioner	2	1.8	1.8	61.1
	Previous salary	1	.9	.9	61.9
	Priest	1	.9	.9	62.8
	Private business	1	.9	.9	63.7
	Salary	26	23.0	23.0	86.7
	Salary and farming	1	.9	.9	87.6

	Salary wage	1	.9	.9	88.5
	Selling cattle	2	1.8	1.8	90.3
	Selling livestock	1	.9	.9	91.2
	Selling wood	1	.9	.9	92.0
	Small business	1	.9	.9	92.9
	SME	1	.9	.9	93.8
	Social grant	1	.9	.9	94.7
	Support from working son / Remittance	1	.9	.9	95.6
	Teacher	1	.9	.9	96.5
	Tyre business	1	.9	.9	97.3
	Work	3	2.7	2.7	100.0
	Total	113	100.0	100.0	

APPENDIX B: Average Income of Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	1.0
	250.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	2.0
	500.0000000000000	2	1.8	2.0	4.1
	517.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	5.1
	600.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	6.1
	750.0000000000000	2	1.8	2.0	8.2
	900.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	9.2
	1100.0000000000000	6	5.3	6.1	15.3
	1166.0000000000000	2	1.8	2.0	17.3
	1200.0000000000000	3	2.7	3.1	20.4
	1250.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	21.4
	1500.0000000000000	7	6.2	7.1	28.6
	1600.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	29.6
	1800.0000000000000	3	2.7	3.1	32.7
	1875.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	33.7
	2000.0000000000000	3	2.7	3.1	36.7
	2200.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	37.8
	2400.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	38.8
	2456.4300000000000	1	.9	1.0	39.8
	2500.0000000000000	2	1.8	2.0	41.8
	3000.0000000000000	4	3.5	4.1	45.9
	3500.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	46.9
	4000.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	48.0
	4166.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	49.0
	4500.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	50.0
	4800.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	51.0
	5000.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	52.0
	5500.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	53.1
	5750.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	54.1
	6000.0000000000000	3	2.7	3.1	57.1
	6250.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	58.2
	7500.0000000000000	3	2.7	3.1	61.2
	8000.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	62.2
	8475.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	63.3
	9000.0000000000000	2	1.8	2.0	65.3
	10000.0000000000000	3	2.7	3.1	68.4
	10949.9999999999980	1	.9	1.0	69.4

	10999.9999999999980	1	.9	1.0	70.4
	12499.9999999999980	2	1.8	2.0	72.4
	12999.9999999999980	1	.9	1.0	73.5
	14499.9999999999980	1	.9	1.0	74.5
	14999.9999999999980	2	1.8	2.0	76.5
	15994.9999999999980	1	.9	1.0	77.6
	17000.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	78.6
	17200.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	79.6
	19166.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	80.6
	20000.0000000000000	7	6.2	7.1	87.8
	20999.9999999999960	1	.9	1.0	88.8
	21665.9999999999960	1	.9	1.0	89.8
	24999.9999999999960	1	.9	1.0	90.8
	25999.9999999999960	1	.9	1.0	91.8
	28999.9999999999960	1	.9	1.0	92.9
	31893.9999999999960	1	.9	1.0	93.9
	44999.9999999999900	2	1.8	2.0	95.9
	49999.9999999999900	1	.9	1.0	96.9
	70000.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	98.0
	120000.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	99.0
	800000.0000000000000	1	.9	1.0	100.0
	Total	98	86.7	100.0	
Missing	System	15	13.3		
Total		113	100.0		

APPENDIX C: Types of Employment by Respondents

	Type of Employment	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Missing Values	25	22.1	22.1	22.1
	Government employee	43	38.1	38.1	60.2
	Private Sector Employee	17	15.0	15.0	75.2
	Farm Worker	7	6.2	6.2	81.4
	Domestic Worker	2	1.8	1.8	83.2
	Others	4	3.5	3.5	86.7
	Communal farmer	1	.9	.9	87.6
	Farmer	2	1.8	1.8	89.4
	N/A	1	.9	.9	90.3
	Needle work	1	.9	.9	91.2
	Own small business	1	.9	.9	92.0
	Owner of a bakery	1	.9	.9	92.9
	Parastatal	1	.9	.9	93.8
	Regional Councilor	1	.9	.9	94.7
	Resettlement farm	1	.9	.9	95.6
	Selling kapana and fat cakes	1	.9	.9	96.5
	Traditional leader	1	.9	.9	97.3
	Tyre business	1	.9	.9	98.2
	Vendor business	1	.9	.9	99.1
	Zula boy	1	.9	.9	100.0
	Total	**113**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

APPENDIX D: Sizes of Housing/Dwelling in Square Meters

Square Meters	Frequency	Percent
Missing Values	50	44.2
0-5	3	2.7
6-10	9	8.0
11-15	4	3.5
16-20	9	8.0
21-25	4	3.5
26-30	3	2.7
31-35	5	4.4
36-40	2	1.8
41-45	4	3.5
46-50	1	0.9
51-55	1	0.9
56-60	4	3.5
61-65	1	0.9
66-70	0	0.0
71-75	0	0.0
76-80	1	0.9
81+	11	9.7
Sub-Total	112	99.1
Don’t know	1	0.9
Total	113	100

APPENDIX E: Average Value of Houses/Dwelling of Respondents

Value	Frequency	Percent
0 - 10000	22	19.5
10001 - 20000	14	12.4
20001 - 30000	7	6.2
30001 - 40000	2	1.8
40001 - 50000	5	4.4
50001 - 60000	1	0.9
60001 - 70000	3	2.7
70001 - 80000	1	0.9
80001 - 90000	0	0.0
90001 -100000	2	1.8
100001 - 110000	3	2.7
110001 - 120000	4	3.5
120001 - 130000	1	0.9
130001 - 140000	0	0.0
140001 - 150000	1	0.9
150001 - 160000	0	0.0
160001 - 170000	0	0.0
170001 -180000	1	0.9
180001 - 190000	1	0.9
190001 - 200000	2	1.8
200001 - 210000	0	0.0
210001 - 220000	0	0.0
220001 - 230000	0	0.0
230001 - 240000	0	0.0
240001 - 250000	1	0.9
> 250001	10	8.8
Sub-Total	81	71.7
Missing/ Don’t know	32	28.3
Total	113	100.0

APPENDIX F: Access to Grazing Land by Respondents

	Size of Grazing Land in Hectares	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	59	52.2	52.2	52.2
	1000	1	.9	.9	53.1
	1189	1	.9	.9	54.0
	1210	1	.9	.9	54.9
	1215	1	.9	.9	55.8
	1240	1	.9	.9	56.6
	1250	1	.9	.9	57.5
	1300	1	.9	.9	58.4
	1308	1	.9	.9	59.3
	1319	1	.9	.9	60.2
	1500	2	1.8	1.8	61.9
	1500	1	.9	.9	62.8
	1564	1	.9	.9	63.7
	1567	1	.9	.9	64.6
	1622	1	.9	.9	65.5
	200	1	.9	.9	66.4
	2000	3	2.7	2.7	69.0
	2485	5	4.4	4.4	73.5
	300	1	.9	.9	74.3
	320	1	.9	.9	75.2
	4000	1	.9	.9	76.1
	410	1	.9	.9	77.0
	5032	1	.9	.9	77.9
	6000	1	.9	.9	78.8
	7000	1	.9	.9	79.6
	760	1	.9	.9	80.5
	970	1	.9	.9	81.4
	977	1	.9	.9	82.3
	Communal Grazing	20	17.7	17.7	100.0
	Total	113	100.0	100.0	

APPENDIX G: Codes and Variables for Landlessness and Land Redistribution

CODE	VARIABLES
D1	**STATEMENTS / VIEWS ON LAND REDISTRIBUTION**
DDI	Land redistribution in Namibia is aimed at redressing the problem of **Dispossession, Discrimination, and Inequitable** distribution of land.
PDT	Land redistribution in Namibia is more **Politically Driven To** achieve political stability than increasing agricultural (economic) productivity.
WWB	The **Willing seller Willing Buyer** principle is the only viable policy option in achieving the objective of equitable land re-distribution in Namibia.
CAR	The Government should redistribute land only to those who were dispossessed of their land during **Colonial and Apartheid Regimes.**
ALR	Willing seller, willing buyer is the most appropriate principle for **Acquiring Land for Redistribution.**
ALE	**Agricultural Land is Equitably** distributed in my Constituency/area.
LSB	Land should be allocated only to those who can make it more productive.
LCR	**Land** should be allocated to those who have no **Cattle** but need land for **Residential** purposes.
LCG	**Land** should be allocated only to those who have **Cattle** or goats and in need of **Grazing.**
GFT	**Government** should expropriate land in order to **Fast-Track** the redistribution programme.
EVO	**Expropriation** is not a **Viable Option** for land redistribution in Namibia because the willing seller, willing buyer is working properly.
LGL	The **Land** redistribution programme has narrowed the **Gap** between the landed and the **Landless** in your Constituency.
D2	**ACCESS TO LAND AND LANDLESSNESS**
PD	Most indigenous people or **Previously Disadvantaged Communitie**s (PDC) are landless in your Constituency
PAC	Agricultural land in your Constituency is mostly owned by the **Previously Advantaged Community** (PAC).
PCC	The **Previously** disadvantaged **Communities** in your **Constituency** have ***little*** access to agricultural land.
PDN	The **previously Disadvantaged** communities in your Constituency have ***No*** access to agricultural land.
LCS	**Landlessness** is caused by the **Colonial** and apartheid policies of dispossession and **Segregation.**
LON	The level /extent of **Landlessness in Omaheke** region is higher than in any other region in **Namibia.**
LID	**Landlessness** is caused by lack of effective government policies and strategies to address **Inequality** /disparities in **Land** ownership/distribution.
LFF	A **Landless Farmer** is one who does not have land or not going to inherit any, but does the **Farming** on other peoples' land by either sub-letting, leasing or contract farming.

D3	**LANDLESSNESS AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**
FPO	Landlessness is the most contributing **Factor to Poverty** /near poverty among communities in **Omaheke** region
APS	**Access** to agricultural land has a **Positive** effect on the **Socio-economic** development of communities.
CER	**Cattle** farming is the main **economic** activity that supports socio-economic development in Omaheke **Region.**
PII	Landlessness has proved to be both the cause and the manifestation of **Poverty, Insecurity, Indebtedness** and powerlessness of the majority of rural households in Omaheke region.
PLB	Land redistribution has redressed the skewed land ownership **pattern** and introduced the **Previously Landless Black** Namibians into the mainstream of the agricultural economy.
OCG	Through land redistribution program small-holder farmers are able to produce for the **Open** market and to **contribute** to the **Country's Gross** Domestic Product.
D4	**POLICY STRATEGIES TO ADDRESS LANDLESSNESS**
ALC	Making provision for **Ancestral Land Claims** and restitution may contribute to a reduction in landlessness among the previously dispossessed communities in Omaheke region
GSP	In order to overcome landlessness and achieve equitable access /ownership of land, the **Government Should Put** a ceiling /limit on the size of agricultural land that an individual is allowed to own/use.
ALW	**Agricultural Land** should be allocated to people **Who** have no land, no income and no livestock.
ALV	**Agricultural Land** should be allocated to people who have no land, but have income or **livestock** and need land for grazing their livestock.
AFL	**Agricultural land** should be given to people who have no income, no land but have **Few Livestock.**
BAA	**Beneficiaries** of resettlement should have a **background** or an interest in **Agriculture** or other related **Activities**
FAM	A resettled **Family** that has little or no livestock should be **allowed** to rent out the **Allotment** at **Market-related** price for them to earn an income.
BTR	Resettlement **Beneficiaries** should be allowed to purchase their allotments in order to secure their **Tenure Rights** through freehold title.

APPENDIX H: Interview Schedule

Interview Schedule for Households

On

Assessing Landlessness and its Impact on Socio-Economic Development in Namibia: A Case Study of the Omaheke Region

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

A1. In which of the following Constituencies are you living /farming?

Aminius	1
Epukiro	2
Gobabis	3
Kalahari	4
Otjinene	5
Otjombinde	6
Okorukambe	7

A2. Gender

Male	1
Female	2

A3. What is the size of your household? ☐ (Number)

A4. To which (Ethnic) Language Group do you belong?

OtjiHerero	1
Setswana	2
White	3
Damara/Nama	4
San	5
Other (Specify)……………………………………………………….	6

A5. How old are you? (Record age in years at last birthday)
(Years)

A6. What is your marital status?

Single	1
Married	2
Living Together	3
Divorced	4
Widowed	5
Separated	6

A7. What is your employment status?

Full-time wage employment	1
Part-time/ casual/ seasonal employment	2
Self-employed (own business)	3
Unemployed	4
Retired/ pensioner	5

A8. Type of Employment

Government Employee	1
Private Sector Employee	2
Farm Worker	3
Domestic Worker	4
Other (Specify) …………………………………………………………………………	5

A9. What is your main source of income?........Cattle farming...

A10. What is your average income per month?
(N$)

A11. What is the level of your educational qualification?

No Formal Education	1
Primary Level	2
Secondary Level	3
Tertiary Level	4

SECTION B: ACCESS TO INFRASTRUCTURE (HOUSING, WATER, ELECTRICITY, COMMUNICATION FACILITIES)

B1. Housing

(a) Main type of housing material

Bricks (permanent structure)	1
Thatching & Wood	2
Iron Sheets	3
Canvas /Tent	4
Other (Specify) ………………………………..………………………………………………	5

(b) Number of rooms: ☐ (Number)

(c) Size of dwelling: ☐ (Square meters)

(d) Total value: ☐ (N$)

B2. Main source of drinking water

Tap in the house	1
Deep well	2
Reservoir/Dam	3
Windmill	4
Solar Borehole	5
Communal Tap	6
Pool	7
Engine Borehole	8

B3. Main source of energy

For Cooking:		*For Lighting:*	
Electricity Grid	1	Electricity Grid	1
Generator	2	Generator	2
Wood	3	Wood	3
Paraffin Stove	4	Paraffin Lamp	4
Solar Panels	5	Solar Panels	5
Gas Stove	6	Candle	6
Other	7	Other	7

B4. Communication connectivity

Yes, telephone/cell phone connected/good reception	1
Irregular cell phone connection / poor reception	2
No cell phone / telephone connection	3

B5. Type of toilet

Private latrine	1
Public latrine	2
Bush	3
Other (Specify)	4

SECTION C: OWNERSHIP OF ASSETS

C1. Ownership of productive assets

Infrastructure Assets		***Number***	***Buying Year***			
			Y1	***Y2***	***Y3***	***Y4***
1	Trucks					
2	Van /Bakkie					
3	Tractors					

4	Donkey /Horse Carts					
5	Diesel Engine Generators					
6	Green Fodder Cutter					
7	Processing Machines					
8	Water Pumps					
9	Animal Pens / Kraal					

Livestock Assets		***Number***	***Value Now (N$)***
10	Cattle		
11	Sheep		
12	Goats		
13	Poultry /Chicken		
14	Pigs		

C2. Ownership/ Access to land

	Land Use Type	***Size (Sq. m)***	***Location of land***	***Type of tenure***	***Mode of Acquisition***	***Rental Fees (if any) (N$)***
1	Vegetable garden					
2	Fruit garden					
3	Grazing land					
4	Residential Site					
5	Other (specify) ………………..					

C3. Ownership of durable assets

	Asset	***Number***	***Buying Year***		***Buying Value (N$)***	
			Y1	***Y2***	***V1***	***V2***
1	Bicycle					

2	Colour TV						
3	TV Receiver						
4	Motorcycle						
5	Liquefied Gas & Stove Set						
6	Electric Cooker/ Stove						
7	Refrigerator						
8	Radio						
9	Cars (Sedan)						
10	Recorder						

D2. ACCESS TO LAND AND LANDLESSNESS	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Not sure**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
2.1. Most indigenous people or previously disadvantaged communities (PDC) are landless in your Constituency.	1	2	3	4	5
2.2. Agricultural land in your Constituency is mostly owned by the previously advantaged community (PAC).	1	2	3	4	5
2.3. The previously disadvantaged communities in your Constituency have ***little*** access to agricultural land.	1	2	3	4	5
2.4. The previously disadvantaged communities in your Constituency have ***no*** access to agricultural land.	1	2	3	4	5
2.5. Landlessness is caused by the colonial and apartheid policies of dispossession and segregation.	1	2	3	4	5
2.6. The level /extent of landlessness in Omaheke region is higher than in any other region in Namibia.	1	2	3	4	5
2.7. Landlessness is caused by lack of effective government policies and strategies to address inequality /disparities in land ownership/distribution.	1	2	3	4	5
2.8. A Landless farmer is one who does not have land or not going to inherit any, but does the farming on other peoples' land by either sub-letting, leasing or contract farming.	1	2	3	4	5
D3. VIEWS LANDLESSNESS AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Not sure**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
3.1. Landlessness is the most contributing factor to poverty /near poverty among communities in Omaheke region.	1	2	3	4	5
3.2. Access to agricultural land has a positive effect on the social and economic development of communities.	1	2	3	4	5
3.3. Cattle farming is the main economic activity that supports socio-economic development in Omaheke Region.	1	2	3	4	5
3.4. Landlessness has proved to be both the cause and the manifestation of poverty, insecurity, indebtedness and powerlessness of the majority of rural households in Omaheke region.	1	2	3	4	5
3.5. Land redistribution has redressed the skewed land ownership pattern and introduced the previously landless black Namibians into the mainstream of the agricultural economy.	1	2	3	4	5
3.6. Through land redistribution program small-holder farmers are able to produce for the open market and to contribute to the country's Gross Domestic Product.	1	2	3	4	5
D4. VIEWS ON OTHER POLICY STRATEGIES TO ADDRESS LANDLESSNESS	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Not sure**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**

4.1. Making provision for Ancestral land claims and restitution may contribute to a reduction in landlessness among the previously dispossessed communities in Omaheke region.	1	2	3	4	5
4.2. In order to overcome landlessness and achieve equitable access /ownership of land, the Government should put a ceiling /limit on the size of agricultural land that an individual is allowed to own/use.	1	2	3	4	5
4.3. Agricultural Land should be allocated to people who have no land, no income and no livestock.	1	2	3	4	5
4.4. Agricultural land should be allocated to people who have no land, but have income or livestock and need land for grazing their livestock.	1	2	3	4	5
4.5. Agricultural land should be given to people who have no income, no land but have few livestock.	1	2	3	4	5
4.6. Beneficiaries of resettlement should have a background or an interest in agriculture or other related activities				4	
4.7. A resettled family that has little or no livestock should be allowed to rent out the allotment at market related price for them to earn an income.	1	2	3	4	5
4.8. Resettlement beneficiaries should be allowed to purchase their allotments in order to secure their tenure rights through freehold title.	1	2	3	4	5
D5. INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITY TO ADDRESS LANDLESSNESS	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Not sure**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
5.1. The MLR has the capacity and resources to speed up the land acquisition and re-distribution processes.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D: VIEWS REGARDING LANDLESSNESS AND LAND REDISTRIBUTION PROGRAMME

In this section a respondent is required to indicate his/her extent of agreement or disagreement with each of the statements below.

D1. STATEMENT /VIEWS ON LAND REDISTRIBUTION	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Not sure**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
1.1. Land redistribution in Namibia is aimed at redressing the problem of dispossession, discrimination, and inequitable distribution of land.	1	2	3	4	5
1.2. Land redistribution in Namibia is more politically driven to achieve political stability than increasing agricultural (economic) productivity.	1	2	3	4	5

1.3. The willing seller willing buyer principle is the only viable policy option in achieving the objective of equitable land re-distribution in Namibia.	1	2	3	4	5
1.4. The Government should redistribute land only to those who were dispossessed of their land during colonial and apartheid regimes.	1	2	3	4	5
1.5. Willing seller, willing buyer is the most appropriate principle for acquiring land for redistribution.	1	2	3	4	5
1.6. Agricultural land is equitably distributed in my Constituency/area.	1	2	3	4	5
1.7. Land should be allocated only to those who can make it more productive.	1	2	3	4	5
1.8. Land should be allocated to those who have no cattle but need land for residential purposes.	1	2	3	4	5
1.9. Land should be allocated only to those who have cattle or goats and in need of grazing.	1	2	3	4	5
1.10. Government should expropriate land in order to fast-track the redistribution programme.	1	2	3	4	5
1.11. Expropriation is not a viable option for land redistribution in Namibia because the willing seller, willing buyer is working properly.	1	2	3	4	5
1.12. The land redistribution programme has narrowed the gap between the landed and the landless in your Constituency.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION E: EXPRESSED NEED FOR LAND

E1. Did you rent other people's land for grazing between 2010 and 2016?	Yes 1	No 2
E2. If your answer is yes in E.1, how much was the rent in N$ per month?	(N$)	
E3. Have you ever been evicted from land by a landlord?	Yes 1	No 2
E4. Do you need land?	Yes 1	No 2

E5. If Yes in E4: What type of land-use do you really need?	(a) Crop production	1
	(b) Cattle farming	2
	(c) Horticulture	3
	(d) Residential	4
	(e) Other (Specify) ……………………………………	5

E6. If yes in E4: How much land do you need?	(Ha)

SECTION F: EXPRESSED OPINION FROM CONSTITUENCY COUNCILLORS

1. How much (size) land does one need to do farming in your region /area?

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……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………

2. In your opinion, how should government redistribute land to those who were dispossessed of their land? Or those who need it?

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3. What is the level /extent of landlessness in your constituency / region?

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4. What are the main causes of landlessness in your constituency /region?

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5. What are the main economic activities that support development in Omaheke Region?

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6. How is landlessness determined and who is classified as landless in the Namibian context?

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7. How many people are regarded as landless and need to be resettled in your constituency/region?

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…………………………………………………………………………………………
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8. In your opinion, who should qualify for resettlement and why?

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9. How would you describe the <u>overall impact/effect</u> of land reform in Namibia on:

(a) the change to the commercial agrarian structure in Namibia;

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(b) <u>Poverty reduction</u> among resettled beneficiaries (previously landless poor);

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(c) <u>Access to</u> productive agricultural <u>land</u> by landless Namibians?

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(d) Equity in land distribution /ownership between PDN and PAN?

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(e) Productivity of agricultural land under resettlement programme?

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(f) Peace and stability in the country?

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APPENDIX I: Letter of approval from UNAM to conduct the study

UNAM
UNIVERSITY OF NAMIBIA

Date: 2 May 2017

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This letter services to inform you that Mr. Eric Ndala is a final year PhD student at the University of Namibia, Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences in the Department of Political and Administrative Studies. In this regard, the student is required to conduct a research project as part of the requirement to complete the Doctor of Philosophy in Political Studies (PhD) successfully. This research project may take him a minimum of two months to do fieldwork. The topic of the research project: Assessing landlessness and its impact on social and economic development: A case study of Omaheke Region, Namibia. Therefore the University is humbly requesting your good offices to grant the student all the necessary assistance for him to obtain information required to write his thesis. The research findings will mainly be used for the PhD Degree in Public Administration thesis only and the participants opinions/views will be kept confidential.

Thanking you for your support.

Dr. Hoze Riruako (Supervisor)

Department of Political and Administrative Studies

Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

APPENDIX J: Letter of Authorisation from the Ministry of Land Reform

REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

MINISTRY OF LAND REFORM

Tel: +264 61 2965000
Fax: +264 61 228240

55 Robert Mugabe Avenue
Private Bag 13343
Windhoek
NAMIBIA

2 June 2017

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This letter serves to inform you that Mr. Eric Ndala is an employee of the Ministry of Land Reform and currently a student at the University of Namibia, in the Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences. He is required to conduct a research project as part of the requirement to successfully complete the Doctor of Philosophy in Public Administration and Management. The topic of his research is: *Assessing Landlessness and its Impact on Social and Economic Development: A Case Study of Omaheke Region, in Namibia.*

The Office of the Permanent Secretary has granted Mr. Ndala the permission to carry out fieldwork and have access to information and data in the Ministry to enable him to write his dissertation. The information to be collected will be used for the study purposes and will be kept confidential. You are, therefore, requested to render him the necessary assistance and cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

....

Peter Amutenya
PERMANENT SECRETARY

Ministry of Land Reform
Republic of Namibia
02 -06- 2017
Private Bag 13343
Windhoek
Office of the Permanent Secretary

All correspondence should addressed to the Office of the Permanent Secretary