

**SOCIO-ECONOMIC EFFECTS OF FARM EVICTIONS: A CASE
OF THE MOGALE CITY LOCAL MUNICIPALITY, GAUTENG PROVINCE**

by

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MINI-DISSERTATION

Submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF DEVELOPMENT

In the

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AND LAW

(Turfloop Graduate School of Leadership)

at the

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

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2016

DEDICATION

**THIS STUDY IS DEDICATED TO THE FOLLOWING INDIVIDUALS WHO LEFT THE
REMARKABLE FOOTPRINTS IN MY LIFE:**

- Deceased grandmother, Mrs Ngoanabokone Modipadi Tshoenyana
- Deceased grandmother, Mrs Mankutswane Modipadi Mphaga
- Deceased Father, Mr Magole Mphele Tshoenayana
- Mother, Mrs Segakwe Modipadi Tshoenyana
- Deceased younger brother, Mr Ramaditsi Monare Tshoenyana

DECLARATION

I declare that the mini-dissertation hereby submitted to the University of Limpopo (Turffloop Graduate School of Leadership), for the degree of Master of Development has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university, that it is my work in design and in execution, and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

Maleswene N.M (Ms)

Date: 12 April 2016

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, to God be the glory, the initiator and the author of this mini-dissertation. He provides the strength to pull through; without Him, I would have not achieved my goals.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the following individuals who have contributed in different ways to the completion of this study:

- My supervisor, Dr S Checha and co-supervisor Professor G Makombe for their dedication, inspiration, understanding and critical thinking in ensuring the commencement and completion of this study. I applaud you for your academic excellence in fulfilling your mentorship roles over my studies.
- Mr Victor Netshidzivhani, for the assistance in data analysis, your patience and humbleness took me this far.
- Revd. Dr. Lutz Ackerman, for his professional and meticulous editing skills of this mini- dissertation and his timeous response to my editing request. May the Almighty God continue to bless you abundantly.
- The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform for their financial support and the time given away from work to study this course. Through this bursary funding, I have managed to complete this study on time.
- My special gratitude goes to my partner, Makoko Phogole Sekhukhune for his immeasurable support, understanding and inspiration during my studies. You always offered guidance and picked me up whenever I was falling. You are the best.
- My beloved kids, Donald, Derrick, Mitchell and Tyron, you are all amazing in how you supported and truly believed in me. I love you guys.

- My mother, Ms Segakwe Modipadi Tshoenyana, you have been the pillar of my strength, your unwavering support kept me on my toes; I did this study in your honour.
- My career and life mentor, Mr Ndivhuho Ranwedzi, your advices, guidance and inspiration has kept me alive ever since I met you. You always encouraged me to further my studies and that won't go unnoticed, keep it up, Pastor.
- My MDEV class mates, particularly Ms Mmoti Ntshabeleng, Ms Ditebogo Ratau and Mr Nyiko Golele, your support and guidance during my studies especially the sleepless nights we shared during exam period, thank you so much for not giving up on me.
- Finally, the Mogale City Municipality, Councilor Dipuo Mosese, Ms Tshephang Shuping, Mr Shimi Phate, Mr Victor Molefe and all Buya Africa residents, thank you so much for giving me this enormous opportunity to conduct research in your area and for offering your full participation and support.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assess the socio-economic effects of farm evictions in Mogale City Local Municipality, Gauteng Province. Most of the land owners do not adhere to the legislations which govern evictions in general and to the Extension of Security of Tenure Act which governs farm eviction on specific. The key objectives of the study were to identify the socio-economic effects of farm evictions and to analyse how the affected communities responded to the phenomenon of evictions. The key questions were what are the socio-economic effects do eviction have on farm dwellers and how have the affected communities responded to the phenomenon of eviction. The literature revealed that evictions around the world started decades ago and to date are still happening. In Zimbabwe, evictions were initiated by white farmers as a way of redressing the imbalance of the land ownership; in China evictions are mainly caused by rapid population growth and expansion of cities, in Namibia, Germans expropriated land and forcefully removed original owners of such land. Since independence, Namibia has no legislation governing evictions and this pose a thread of tenure insecurity. Although South Africa has legislations which govern the evictions, evictions are still taking place and mostly initiated by white land owners. The quantitative survey study was conducted to determine the distribution of socio-economic variables before and after the eviction. The primary data was collected, using semi-structured questionnaires which the interviewer administered to the evicted households. The findings revealed that electricity supply, garbage collection, personal care, household income, access to health facilities are negatively affected and the condition of the households deteriorated after the eviction. The main recommendation on the basis of the findings is that the MCLM, DRDLR and NDHS should adhere to the principles outlined in the article 25(1) of the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948. This would reduce the negative impact of evictions.

KEYWORDS: Farm occupier, farm dwellers, farm worker, farm owner, eviction and land owner.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- AFRA: Association for Rural Advancement
- COHRE: Centre on Housing Rights & Evictions
- DLA: Department of Land Affairs (DLA)
- DLA: District Land Committee
- DRDLR: Department of Rural Development and Land Reform
- ESTA: Extension of Security of Tenure Act No. 62 of 1997
- FTLRP: Fast Track Land Reform Programme
- GOZ: Government of Zimbabwe
- GP: Gauteng Province
- HDC: Higher Degree Committee
- IPILRA: The Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act No. 31 of 1996
- LSU: Large Stock Units
- LRRP2: Land Reform and Resettlement Programme 2
- LTA: Land Reform (Labour Tenants) Act No. 3 of 1996
- MCLM: Mogale City Local Municipality
- MOL: Ministry of Land
- NDHS: National Department of Human Settlement
- NGO: Non-Governmental Organisation
- PIE: Prevention of Illegal Eviction from and Unlawful Occupation of Land Act No 19 of 1998
- RDP: Reconstruction and Development Programme
- RLRA: Restitution of Land Rights Act No. 22 of 1994
- SPP: Surplus People Project
- SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences
- SWAPO: South West Africa People's Organisation
- TGSL: Turfloop Graduate School of Leadership
- ZANU-PF: Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

The chapter presents the background of the farm eviction experiences in South Africa; it further introduces the problem statement, aim, objectives and the key research questions of the study. The chapter also articulates the rationale, limitations, significance of the study and the definition of concepts used in the study.

1.2 Background

The problem of farm evictions dates back to 1652 when the majority of black people in South Africa were forcefully removed from their ancestral land and resettled in what became overcrowded and environmentally degraded settlements (Collins and Burns 2007). The South African Native Land Act of 1913 was used to enforce this. Then the Apartheid government of South Africa, through its oppressive legislations, was mandated to forcefully remove the black masses from their land and to resettle them in small pieces of land, occupying 7% of the total land space of the country while their white counterparts occupied 93% (Collins and Burns 2007).

With this background and with the advent of independence in 1994 one might have thought that evictions would have been a thing of the past, but as of today, there are some farm evictions. Most of those who are being evicted are farm workers. One of the most important factors in evictions of farm-workers has been the change of farm-ownership. The time-period between 1975 and 1983 saw many smaller farms being amalgamated into bigger farms owned by consortia and other wealthy farmers. In such big farms the mode of labour changed from manual to mechanical. Many farm-workers lost their employment and became victims of farm evictions at the hands of private farm-owners (Newton1989).

Although the mandate to evict black people by the South African Government was revised as per the 1936 Native Trust and Land Act, blacks were still cramped in a very

small land space i.e. 13%; and moreover blacks could not buy the land and instead they could only occupy it as employees of white masters. As a result, the masses of black people in South Africa found themselves displaced in their own land. The colonisers found themselves in a society that largely survived from agricultural production. Beyond bringing new developments in mining and industry, the colonial and latter Apartheid powers systematically destroyed the viability of black agriculture. This was done to ensure labour for mines and industry and to make room for the creation of a large, white-owned commercial farming sector. There was also an ideological motivation that found expression through grand Apartheid schemes that ultimately sought to deny any black person citizenship in South Africa (Wegerif 2004).

Despite availability of the Land Reform legislations as outlined in the Land Reform Programme, most blacks are still being evicted from the farms and the reasons for eviction range from farms closing down to the passing on of the farm workers who are heads of families. In most instances, a large number of people, mostly women and children, are evicted as a result of the main breadwinner passing away. At a time of loss, these farm dwellers are also losing their homes and sources of income. Other reasons for evictions include changes in land use, conflicts over access to services, disputes over child labour and farmers simply not wanting people living on the farm anymore (Wegerif, Russell & Grundling 2005).

The following are some of the legislations which govern tenure security matter and further gives guidance on how evictions should be carried out:

- The Constitution of the Republic of South African, 1996
- The sections 25, 26 and 28 thereof which talk to the access to land and rights to shelter including children.
- The Human Rights Commission Act No. 54 of 1994; this Act talks about the general rights of people which should be respected.
- Extension of Security of Tenure Act No. 62 of 1997 (ESTA).

This act provides for measures with state assistance to facilitate long-term security of land tenure. This act further provides the guideline on how evictions

on farms should be carried out and the rights for both land owner and farm occupier.

- Land Reform (Labour Tenants) Act No. 3 of 1996 (LTA).

The LTA provides for security of tenure of labour tenants and those persons occupying or using land as a result of their association with labour tenants and is only applicable on the land that is designated for agricultural purposes.

- The Prevention of Illegal Eviction from and Unlawful Occupation of Land Act No 19 of 1998 (PIE).

This act provides for the prohibition of unlawful eviction; to provide for procedures for the eviction of unlawful occupiers and it applies in respect of all land throughout the republic.

- The Restitution of Land Rights Act No. 22 of 1994 (RLRA).

This act provides for the restitution of rights in land to persons or communities dispossessed of such rights after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices.

- The Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act No. 31 of 1996 (IPILRA).

The Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act 31 of 1996 (IPILRA)'s objective is to provide for the temporary protection of certain rights to and interests in land which are not otherwise adequately protected by law; and to provide for matters connected therewith.

The above stipulated acts will be explained in full in chapter 2.

1.3 Problem statement of the study

The Mogale City Local Municipality (MCLM) is facing a challenge of high volumes of evictions happening in their area on a daily basis. Although there are legislations governing evictions in general and farm eviction which the researcher introduced in chapter 1 and will be explained in full in chapter 2, there seems to be a continued practice of not adhering to those by farm owners.

Despite the provision of the Extension of Security Tenure Act 62 of 1997 (South African Government) which seeks to provide for measures with state assistance to facilitate long term security of land tenure, farm dwellers seem to continue to be evicted without considering the socio-economic effects on their livelihoods. So the problem of this study is that those farms dwellers continue to be evicted by farm owners. The study will analyse how the eviction phenomena affect the farm dwellers' socio-economic status.

1.4 Main aim of the study

The aim of this study is to assess the socio-economic effects of farm evictions on farm dwellers in the Mogale City Local Municipality.

1.5 The specific objectives of the study are:

- To identify the social effects of farm evictions.
- To identify the economic effects of farm evictions.
- To analyse how the affected communities responded to the phenomenon of eviction?

1.6 Research questions

This inquiry will be guided by the following research questions:

- What social effects do evictions have on farm dwellers?
- What economic effects do evictions have on farm dwellers?
- How have affected communities responded to the phenomenon of eviction?

1.7 Rationale of the study

A high number of farm evictions are reported daily to the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR). There is, therefore, a need to identify the socio-economic effects of farm evictions on farm dwellers so as to come up with

alternative strategies that will assist in effective implementation of farm eviction policies and legislation.

1.8 The significance of the study

The study will assist policy related to farm evictions so that strategies can be developed that will assist in the effective implementation of farm eviction policies and legislation.

1.9 Definition of concepts

Farm occupier

Means a person residing on land which belongs to another person and who has on 4 February 1997 or thereafter had consent or another right in law to do so (Extension of Security of Tenure Act, 62 of 1997).

Farm dwellers

A category of rural women, girls, boys and men, who view the farm as their home, are born on, live on, work on farms [with or] without salary; who consider themselves to have a right to reside on a farm in spite of not having approved documentation to support this; their claims are supported by their history as residents and community of that farm and by the fact that their ancestral graves are located there (Association for Rural Advancement (AFRA) 2005).

Farm worker

The literal meaning of the term will be accepted in this study, that is, farm workers are people working on farms (Sonjica 2007).

Farm owner

Means the owner of the land at the time of the relevant Act, omission or conduct and includes in relation to the proposed termination of a right of residence by a holder of mineral rights such holder in so far as such holder is by law entitled to grant or terminate a right of residence or any associated rights in respect of such land, or to evict a person occupying such land (Extension of Security of Tenure Act, 62 of 1997).

Eviction

To evict means to deprive a person against his or her will of residence on land or the use of land or access to water which is linked to a right of residence in terms of Extension of Security of Tenure Act, 62 of 1997 (ESTA).

1.10 Limitations of the study

The small size of the sample, a result of a budget constraint, will limit the generalizability of the results.

1.11 Dissertation-chapter breakdown

The dissertation will be presented in five chapters.

Chapter 1 presents a background of the farm eviction programme in South Africa and goes on to introduce the statement of the research problem, the research objectives and questions, significance of the study and definition of concepts used in this study.

Chapter 2 provides an extensive literature review regarding the experience of farm evictions in other countries. Legislative framework of farm eviction processes in South Africa will form part this. This chapter assists to identify applicable approaches, trends and tendencies that are similar or different with regard to evictions in the identified countries.

Chapter 3 presents the aspects related to research design and methods of the study. The chapter undertakes a thorough discussion of the methodology used as data is collected and analysed. Other issues discussed include the sampling procedures followed in selecting participants.

Chapter 4 constitutes the empirical part of this study; it further presents the analysis of the data, using tables and graphs. The presentation starts by analysing the demography and socio-economic effects of participants residing at Buya Africa which is situated at the Mogale City Municipality. The last part of this chapter presents a discussion of results.

Chapter 5 presents the summary of the findings of this study, recommendations and recommended topics for further research. The last part of the chapter concludes the study.

The final part of the research study provides the bibliography and appendices to text for references.

1.12 Conclusion

This chapter presented an outline and the background of the farm evictions in South Africa. The chapter further introduced the research problem statement, aim, objectives and the key research questions of the study. This chapter also articulated the rationale, significance and the definition of concepts used in this study. The ethical issues and limitations were identified.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Chapter one provided a framework for the research study on the socio-economic effects of farm evictions in Mogale City. This chapter presents a literature review of eviction experiences in South Africa and other countries like Zimbabwe, Namibia, and China.

This chapter further adds a highlight on the similarities and differences reflected in the literature.

Forced evictions are carried out in both developed and developing countries, in all regions of the world. Often these are large-scale mass evictions, where entire communities of tens or even hundreds of thousands of people are removed. They are usually directed at the poor, living in informal settlements or in slums. The effect on the lives of those evicted is catastrophic, leaving them homeless and subject to deeper poverty, discrimination and social exclusion. Such communities are invariably evicted against their will, in most cases without any compensation or alternative housing (Centre On Housing Rights and Evictions (COHRE) 2006).

According to COHRE (2006), even though the international law has repeatedly declared forced evictions to be a gross and systematic violation of human rights, governments continue to use forced eviction as a tool of development. Part of the struggle against this widespread practice is clearly a need to change the mindset of those exercising such leadership. It is crucially important to get the message across to governments that forced evictions are unjust, illegal and invariably counterproductive to genuine human development and that alternatives to eviction therefore urgently need to be found. What makes this task very difficult, though, is the fact that the mindset is rooted in very powerful economic forces.

In 2006, COHRE (2006) argued that over the previous four years, the practice of forced eviction had gained wider recognition as a pervasive and egregious abuse of human

rights. Nevertheless, governments continue to implement forced evictions, flouting international law and the rights of those living in their borders. The power to hold governments accountable and halt forced evictions lies with civil society, and reliable information is integral to these efforts. Forced evictions can always be attributed to specific decisions, legislation or policies of states, or to the failure of states to intervene to halt forced evictions by third parties. Thus, states are always legally responsible for forced evictions occurring on territory under their jurisdiction (COHRE 2006).

2.2 Eviction experiences in Zimbabwe

According to Muyengwa (2013), the colonization of Zimbabwe officially began on October 13, 1888, with the signing of the Rudd Concession which was an agreement between the white settlers and the Ndebele king which deprived indigenous people of their traditional land. The British settlers, comprising about 5% of the population in Zimbabwe, occupied half of the agricultural land leaving the indigenous people with inadequate land for agriculture.

In 1980, after almost a century of colonial subjugation, the advent of independence ushered in new expectations and goals with regard to a fair distribution of land and other natural resources. The new government pursued a land acquisition strategy which sought to address the racially skewed land distribution pattern inherited at independence. The first ten years of independence were based on the „willing-seller–willing-buyer“ principle that was agreed upon in the Lancaster House Agreement of 1979, during the country's independence negotiations. Thereafter, the new government enacted new laws and amended the existing laws to allow it to compulsorily acquire land for redistribution (Muyengwa 2013).

A racially skewed agrarian structure and land tenure system existed at independence in 1980 and was dominated by 6,000 white farmers and a few foreign and nationally owned agro-industrial estates, alongside 700,000 peasant families and 8,000 small-scale black commercial farmers. A new chapter was opened in the history of

Zimbabwe's land reforms when the Land Reform and Resettlement Programme 2 (LRRP2) had failed and the state's attempt to have a constitutional clause obliging Britain to compensate dispossessed farmers was rejected at a referendum (Chamunogwa 2012).

The Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ) introduced an accelerated resettlement programme named "Fast Track" in 2000. Under the "fast-track" resettlement programme, about 80% of the former large-scale white commercial farms were re-distributed to a broad base of beneficiaries, including politicians, senior government officials, employed and unemployed urbanites and peasants (Makunike 2014).

Over time, both black and whites have been affected by state orchestrated evictions for a variety of reasons including politics. Whites and blacks who occupied land after independence in Zimbabwe were evicted from their land during the fast track land redistribution period. While in the past evictions were mainly targeted at blacks seen as squatters, many of the white commercial farmers experienced politically motivated evictions for the first time from year 2000 and beyond. Yet, blacks have had the misfortune of regular evictions starting with the colonial period, and continuing into independence, and then also during the fast track period. A country experiencing evictions on such a rapid scale reflects on the unending legacy of tenure insecurity. Such insecurity has its foundation in the colonial period, and the ZANU-PF government used the same colonial instruments and perfected evictions but this time contributing to an almost total collapse of agriculture (Matondi & Dekker 2011).

Chamunogwa (2012) observes that the land occupations has become swift and widespread, and transformed into the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP). FTLRP was preceded by spontaneous and widespread farm occupations led by war veterans, ZANU-PF cadres and traditional leaders as well as involving large numbers of ordinary citizens from nearby communal areas and local towns, as well as sometimes farm workers.

According to Chamunogwa (2012), the Fast Track Land Reform resulted in a radical and widespread restructuring of the agrarian economy in Zimbabwe and this was accompanied by the emergence of new social dynamics and relations. However, this new agrarian economy has not received adequate support from policy makers and development agencies such that it could contribute to the growth of the economy whilst at the same time sustaining the livelihoods of individuals dependent on it.

Makunike (2014) observes that in Mashonaland East province, many commercial farmers were verbally abused and physically assaulted, abducted, tortured or even killed. The most gruesome murders are those of Martin Olds, Gloria Olds and David Stevens. On 15th April 2000, David Stevens was kidnapped at his farm in Murehwa; he was taken from the police station with the knowledge and cooperation of the police and was tortured before being shot dead.

Within the framework of the fast track land reform process, farm workers were treated as the accomplices of white farmers. Political violence targeted white farmers and farm workers believed to support opposition parties. The farm workers were dragged out of their homes forced to attend re-orientation and education sessions with forced singing of ZANU-PF slogans and were severely tortured. Further, farm workers were vulnerable because they did not have sufficient financial and social capital to enable them to escape the invasions and to seek alternative livelihoods elsewhere (Makunike 2014).

The violence on the farms and the subsequent uptake of the farms by hostile new owners virtually displaced a large proportion of farm workers in Mashonaland East province. In this way, land reform pushed from above and supported by the ruling party and its sympathizers, started generating conditions of impoverishment for many and affluence for the few loyalists (Makunike 2014).

During the farm invasions, The ZANU-PF militia and war veterans gave as little as an hour's notice to the farm owner and workers to vacate the farms. Many farm workers, whose livelihoods were linked to the farms for generations, became displaced people

with unpredictable and irregular access to food and water, as well as much less basic amenities such as schools, clinics and hospitals (Makunike 2014).

The eradication of rural poverty, through land reform, is based on two assumptions. Firstly, the poor must have access to the land; secondly the poor must be assisted with sufficient resources and an enabling institutional framework, for them to base their livelihoods on the land. In Mashonaland East, compelling evidence showed that generally, the poor did not have access to the land, and if they did, they did not receive adequate technical, financial and social services support to enable them to produce at full capacity and enable them to derive livelihoods from the land (Makunike 2014).

Makunike (2014) is of the view that the striking feature from this study is the inadequacy of institutional framework within which demands for land are articulated. Whereas the landless and near landless are meant to be the main beneficiaries of the land reform programme, their views in policy dialogue and formulation are weak.

According to Makunike (2014), the government had come up with a credible land reform programme and had restored the rule of law by enacting legislation, principally the Rural Land Occupiers (Protection from Eviction) Act No. 13 of 2001, which regularized the situation of beneficiaries on the farms. Any individual occupying land thereafter was given the status of a “protected occupier” and could not be evicted through court orders. Thus the government chose to “rule by law” instead of subjecting itself to the rule of law.

Chamunogwa (2012) observes that in in Goromonzi Case Study, a few elite individuals, national and local acquired and rewarded each other with farms in a non-transparent manner. There was evidence of the deliberate use of violence and the use of coercive force by elites to allow them to acquire farms and their related infrastructure and economic investments. The political space did not allow for opposition sympathisers or dissenters to acquire land and remain on the plots, although in nearby farms not acquired by elite’s substantial numbers of ordinary citizens acquired land, largely originating from nearby urban areas.

Wrangles which were reported in print and electronic media on the allocation of offer letters in Goromonzi District illustrate how heavy reliance on committees in the implementation of FTLR resulted in manipulation of land allocations by both national and local elites and how it had an impact on who benefitted land in the Goromonzi District (Chamunogwa 2012).

Chamunogwa (2012) further observes that in the Chipinge Case study, Wolfscrag Farm occupations were led by war veterans and traditional leaders and these dominate the list of beneficiaries; civil servants were further allocated self-contained plots through the administrative apparatus of the state. Despite the autochthonous claims by traditional leaders, the farm was a high value enterprise at which timber, coffee and macadamia was grown hence it could not be left at the mercy of 'invaders'.

Glen View Lot 1 which specialised in cattle breeding with high milking technology investment on the farm was allocated through the Ministry of Land (MoL) and the District Land Committee (DLC) and in the end prime land with high value dairy milk infrastructure was taken by civil servants with grazing land being allocated to ordinary beneficiaries. Wedgehill Farm was also highly mechanised and specialised in macadamia and coffee production with high infrastructural development and the farm workers who initially occupied the farm were evicted by the DLC to pave way for security sector officials, civil servants and war veterans. The coordination and management of land acquisition and redistribution by political-bureaucratic networks and the politicised and autochthonous nature of farm invasions left the process prone to corruption, clientelism and limited possibilities of having a more diverse composition of ordinary beneficiaries (Chamunogwa 2012).

In the Masvingo Case Study, Lonely Farm A, a settler occupied land allocated for grazing but could not be removed since his son is employed in the state security department. On most farm sites there was cooperation between MoL officials, extension workers and settler committees in land use planning; demarcation and pegging of plots

and dispute resolution such that formal pegging by the state legitimised informal acquisition through occupations (Chamunogwa 2012).

The key argument is that distribution of society's scarce resources in Zimbabwe is primarily informed by political calculations rather than non-partisan concerns for alleviation of poverty at the grassroots of society. Land is finite and therefore a scarce resource and its redistribution has largely been informed by political calculations rather than consistent criteria to deal with the plight of the rural poor based on measured levels of need and poverty (Makunike 2014).

Makunike (2014) further argues that the land reform programme in Zimbabwe is in a crisis characterized by a lack of transparency and presided over by a state that is itself unclear about the redistribution strategy that it wants to pursue. There is an ambiguous implementation plan as well as inadequate capacity enhancing policy parameters that are vital to enable a fair and objective evaluation of the whole programme.

Muyengwa (2013) argues that violence was mostly directed at white commercial farmers and their workers both of whom were accused of supporting opposition politics. Additionally, the process disregarded commercial farmers' property rights and disrupted farming activities. As a result, the chaotic FTLRP led to a decline in food and export production, remarkable inflation, loss of jobs and shelter within the agricultural sector and collapsing health and education systems

Prior to the implementation of the FTLRP, the agricultural sector in Zimbabwe provided employment to more than 70% of the labour force in the country and contributed over 40% of total exports. In addition, it also provided food for the whole population of Zimbabwe, 60% of all raw materials for the industry came from this sector. Since the FTLRP, about 75 per cent of farm workers were evicted during the farm invasions. As a result, they lost their jobs and accommodation as well as other socio-economic services. Furthermore, the violent character of the land reform exercise led to gross

human rights violations such as assaults, torture and loss of lives by those involved in expropriation of white commercial farmland (Muyengwa 2013).

Farm schools were also affected when the farm owner was served with an eviction order. The maintenance of schools which had previously been under the farm owner ceased, leading to the closure of most farm schools. Although the employment and payment of teachers fell under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, the fact that some schools were closed, led to the loss of jobs and salaries. The same happened to health institutions such as clinics on the farms leading to their closure. In addition, those former farm workers who were fortunate enough to benefit from the FTLRP were resettled in places where there were no social amenities and utilities such as water, schools, clinics and sanitation. Since jobs were lost, it became difficult for the evicted farm workers to fend for their families leading to rising poverty and hunger (Muyengwa 2013).

Amnesty International and the Zimbabwe Lawyers for Human Rights reported that in June 2005 heavily armed police forcibly evicted the residents of Porta Farm. This violated two orders of Zimbabwe's High Court stating that the residents should not be evicted unless the authorities ensured the provision of alternative accommodation. During this eviction, which was part of Operation Murambatsvina, Porta Farm was completely destroyed. Between 6 000 and 10 000 people were forcibly relocated first to Caledonia Farm and then to Hopley Farm, where they were left with no shelter and little means of accessing food. Prior to this, in September 2004, Amnesty International reported violence in a previous attempt to evict residents of Porta Farm, which left 10 residents dead. Riot police had fired tear gas directly into the homes of the Porta Farm residents (COHRE 2006).

The informal settlement of Porta Farm was established 15 years ago following a series of forced evictions in Harare. While the experiences of the people of Porta Farm are similar in many respects to other communities affected by Operation Murambatsvina, the residents of Porta Farm have faced several previous attempts by local and national

authorities to forcibly evict them and have fought to secure their right to housing, which included looking to the courts for protection. In separate rulings on planned evictions at Porta Farm in 1995 and again in 2004 the High Court of Zimbabwe clearly stated that the people of Porta Farm should not be evicted unless and until the authorities ensured the provision of suitable alternative accommodation. The case of Porta Farm highlights the Government of Zimbabwe's increasing willingness to subvert the authority of the courts. This erosion of the rule of law has seriously undermined the role of the legal system in protecting human rights in Zimbabwe, leaving victims of violations with little choice but to seek justice at the international level (Amnesty International and Zimbabwe Lawyers for Human Rights 2006).

The forcible relocation of people to Porta Farm was part of an exercise to “clean up” Harare ahead of a Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting. Those relocated to Porta Farm were told by Harare City officials that their stay there would be temporary and that the Harare City Council, with the assistance of the central government, would permanently resettle them elsewhere. When the police and government agents arrived at Porta Farm on 28 June 2005 and began forcibly evicting people and demolishing homes they were acting despite the existence of two court orders – the 1995 order directed at Harare City Council and the 2004 Court Order directed at the Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing (Amnesty International and Zimbabwe Lawyers for Human Rights 2006).

For many Porta Farm residents forced onto trucks on 29 and 30 June 2005 their destination was not clear. Some were taken to rural areas, others simply abandoned on the roadside outside Harare. Those who were unable to name a rural area to which they could return were taken to Caledonia Farm Transit Camp, which had been established by the government to temporarily accommodate some of those internally displaced as a result of the mass evictions. Conditions at Caledonia were extremely poor – and little was actually provided by way of accommodation; people found themselves living under highly inadequate makeshift shelters or in the open in mid-winter (Amnesty International and Zimbabwe Lawyers for Human Rights 2006).

Farm workers were treated inhumanely because in some cases they defended their white employers against the invading ZANU-PF supporters and war veterans. There have been instances of evictions of farm workers from farm compound houses by the new settlers and farmers. Evicted farm workers have sometimes sought shelter and livelihoods in a growing number of “squatter camps” or informal settlements that have mushroomed near Macheke in Manicaland East, Concession in Mashonaland Central, Chihwiti and Gambuli in Mashonaland West, near Rusape in Manicaland and Esigodini in Matabeleland South (Maguwu 2007).

2.3 Farm eviction experiences in Namibia

Namibia has a history of land dispossession through colonial conquest. Formal colonial rule began in 1884 but it was only after the rinderpest of 1897 that land grabs by German settlers in Namibia commenced seriously. Laws were enacted in 1906 and 1907 which empowered the Germans to expropriate land and forcefully remove original owners of such land. Nearly all the land of the Herero and Nama was taken by the colonial authorities (Likuwa 2005).

When the SWAPO government took over the reins of power in 1990, it agreed to a constitution that protected the property of citizens. Land would not be taken without just compensation. Upon attaining independence the SWAPO government made it known that it wanted to redistribute land to the land-hungry majority. It swore its allegiance to the independence constitution in which the property of citizens would not be taken without just compensation (Likuwa 2005).

Likuwa (2005) argues that the residents who faced evictions in 1970 included those who had come as early as 1936 from the Nkurenkuru settlement to Rundu. They felt that they also had come from far and therefore if Nkarapamwe Township was meant for people who came from far as the Commissioner argued, then they were those people.

According to Likuwa (2005), the evicted residents of Nkarapamwe were given one month to vacate the houses. The eviction order brought discontent among the residents of Nkarapamwe who protested against such evictions as unfair.

Likuwa (2014) observes that while some people moved voluntarily to Nkarapamwe Township in 1968 there are indications that the relocation was a force to many who had initially refused to move but were eventually forced to do so by the threat of having their homesteads burned and losing their jobs.

According to Likuwa (2014), the paper asserts that relocation impacted negatively on people's economic aspects as it meant finding ways to recover costs of their loss of properties. Equally, it impacted on the people's social aspects as old interpersonal relations and social structure were irretrievably destroyed.

Likuwa (2014) stipulates that people were moved even if they felt that the new houses were too small for their families because some had three wives and there was no space for accommodating guests. Furthermore many had children of opposite sex and the houses of Nkarapamwe did not meet that need of having separate rooms for the boys and girls. The houses in Nkarapamwe lacked most of the characteristics of the homesteads at the riverside villages.

Since Namibia's independence in 1990 it has only developed the Draft National Land Tenure Policy and there is no any other legislation that protects the rights of the farm workers in relation to security of tenure. The National Resettlement Policy of 2001 does not provide guidelines on how farm workers' rights of tenure are to be protected once commercial farms become available for resettlement purposes. In recognition of this fact, the government established the Commission of Inquiry into Labour-related Matters affecting Agricultural and Domestic Employees – the so-called Kameeta Commission, after its Chairperson, Bishop ZN Kameeta. The Commission's report and recommendations were presented to the president in 1997. However, the government

has yet to consider these recommendations for implementation (Odendaal & Tjiramba 2006).

The government currently lacks a clear and comprehensive support policy on strengthening farm workers' rights of tenure. More significantly, the government's land reform programme has failed to strengthen and secure such rights for farm workers. The question that might arise is whether or not introducing legislation that secures farm workers' rights of tenure would result in a change in the concept of ownership. In light of the need for land reform in Namibia, an ideal solution would perhaps be found in introducing legislation that, on the one hand, seeks to protect the rights of an owner of property and, on the other, creates the circumstances within which the rights of an occupier can be established. In other words, a balance has to be struck between the proprietary rights of the owner, and the basic socio-economic and human rights of the farm worker through secured rights of tenure (Odendaal & Tjiramba 2006).

Odendaal & Tjiramba (2006) argue that in the absence of clear legislation dealing with securing farm workers' rights of tenure in Namibia, South African legislation – namely the Extension of Security of Tenure Act, 1997 (No.62 of 1997) – could offer some guidelines for possibly developing similar legislation in this country. Generally, the provisions in Namibia's Draft National Land Tenure Policy are very similar to the Extension of Security of Tenure Act.

In January 2005, the owner of the Otjiku Farm evicted seven workers and their families from his farm, on which most of them had been born. The owner cut off the water supply and destroyed the roofs of some of the houses after a disagreement with the workers on the issue of severance pay. In August 2006, police started driving Oshiwambo-speaking communal farmers and their cattle from west Kavango towards the border of the former Owambo area. Approximately 50 farmers had been served with eviction notices some months before, due to a grazing dispute with the residents of the Ukwangali area. The farmers did not know where to go, as the Owambo area, from which they had come,

had been fenced off. Police arrested many herders and chased their cattle away (COHRE 2006).

The farm owners need to realise that complacency is likely to create political tensions that will not only primarily harm their own interests as farmers, but will also have repercussions throughout the country. Farm owners will be required to make compromises between their own interests and priorities and those of their workers. On many freehold or commercial farms, workers – and, more specifically, generational workers – enjoy the right to graze a limited number of livestock. Farm owners generally impose restrictions on the number of livestock their workers may keep on the farm, with the result that the average number kept is very low (Werner 2004).

In the Omaheke Region it was found that workers were permitted to keep an average of eight large stock units (LSU) and an unlimited number of goats on the farms where they worked. Goats were not limited as they are browsers and, thus, did not compete with cattle for grazing (Suzman 1995:54). These averages are slightly higher than Devereux et al. (1995:27, 50) found in their countrywide study of farm labour. They give averages for cattle owned by farm labourers as 6.9 LSU in the northern and central regions, with 9.6 and 11.7 small stock units (SSU), respectively. In addition, an estimated 14% of farm worker households in the northern region and 26% in the central region owned cattle on farms, while another 9% and 26%, respectively, owned small stock (goats and sheep). Farm workers in the southern region did not own any cattle, but 26% owned some sheep and goats (Werner 2004).

These figures serve to underline the fact that the ownership of livestock by farm workers on freehold farms is not very widespread and numbers are like they are in Zimbabwe. Farm workers in Namibia appear to have been more adversely affected than other groups targeted by the land reform process. Very few farm workers were chosen to be amongst the beneficiaries in resettlement schemes. They have often been evicted from farms allocated to other resettlement target groups, and the government does not

appear to have ensured that they have access to alternative sustainable livelihoods (Werner 2004).

Werner (2004) argues that the findings of the Commission of Inquiry into Labour-related Matters affecting Agricultural and Domestic Employees suggest strongly that the provisions of Namibia's Labour Act to extend residential and agricultural rights to farm workers on commercial farms are not sufficient. Although no accurate figures are available, indications are that farm workers are still being evicted, frequently without adequate access and reference to legal procedures.

The farm workers continue to be ignored in the wider process of rural development in Namibia. Although their working conditions are reasonably well documented, attempts to improve these conditions are limited to the initiatives of a few farmers. Moreover, land reform and resettlement policies do not accord farm workers any priority as beneficiaries. It has been argued that unless these change, they stand to lose out in the land redistribution process. It was also argued that redistributive land reform only ever benefits a small minority. In view of this, it is imperative that development programmes be launched to support farm workers. Farm owners undoubtedly have a central role to play in this process. They have to be prepared to take the interests of farm workers seriously and discuss possible solutions with them (Werner 2004).

The owner of the Otjiku Farm evicted seven workers and their families from his farm on which most of them had been born. The owner cut off the water supply and destroyed the roofs of some of the houses in a disagreement with the workers on the issue of severance pay. (Global Survey on Forced Evictions 2006).

The state can play an important role in contributing towards the improvement of workers' living conditions. Firstly, it has to put a policy and legal framework in place to protect farm workers from unreasonable eviction – be it as employees or as a result of land redistribution. Secondly, incentives may have to be put in place where they do not exist, and strengthened where they do, to encourage farmers to improve their workers'

living conditions. Different forms of financial support should be considered where farmers invest in the well-being of their workers. The state may also want to consider sanctions in those cases where farm owners show no sign of improving the conditions of their workers, such as targeting the land of such farmers for acquisition and redistribution (Werner 2004).

2.4 Farm eviction experiences in China

The period between 1987 and 2001, non-agricultural use rendered at least 34 million Chinese peasants landless. It is further estimated that by 2030, the total number of landless peasants will exceed 78 million (Zhao 2010). According to the United States Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2015), the estimated China population will be 1.415.545.000 in 2030. The estimated percentage of the Chinese peasants landless will therefore be 0.06.

Forced evictions results in people being pushed into extreme poverty and pose a risk to the right of life itself. They have also been found tantamount to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment particularly when carried out with violence and discriminatory intent. This vulnerable group, especially in poorer regions has found it extremely difficult to pursue other economic opportunities to make ends meet. Peasants are marginalised and prone to forced evictions, unfair compensation and insufficient provision of social security, all of which lead to an increasing number of land conflict cases (United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commission 2014).

Chinese government policy development tends to emphasise control rather than to create incentives for peasants' participation and mobilisation in decision making processes concerning their land use and management. To a certain extent, the Household Responsibility System (HRS) has been an institutional basis of village governance. Yet it has failed the poor peasants in providing an avenue for them to claim their rights and voice their concerns over political decision-making. From an egalitarian

or equity point of view, access to land is not a major problem in China due to an existence of HRS as opposed to many other developing countries (Zhao 2010).

Over the last decade, cases of land takings have grown drastically by more than 15 times, and still growth rate cannot be effectively contained. Those evicted do not receive proper notice and they are unable to voice their concerns effectively. These land takings have severely and negatively affected the livelihoods of the poor and most unfortunately, those land takings are affected in the name of public interest in terms of infrastructural construction and real estate development. More than 50% of such appropriations are meant for road construction, 16% for factory and 13% for development zones or industrial parks (Zhao 2010).

Zhao (2010) further argues that the struggles between the landless, local estates and local developers embody the large power imbalances between them and the resulting land tenure insecurity for the former. The rural land in China is owned by the village collective mostly and the state under special condition. Peasants are granted land usufruct rights with the land being subject to readjustment and expropriation. The current legal frame work does not does not clearly stipulate peasants' legal status and responsibilities and it does not clarify how their benefits and interests will be realised.

As one of the fastest growing economies in the world, China has also been experiencing one of the largest building booms, which has been accompanied by forced evictions on a massive scale. At least 1.25 million households have been demolished and nearly 3.7 million people were evicted throughout China in the past decade. The government of China has argued that these evictions are legitimate because evictees are provided with relocation and compensation. However, many evictees argue that this assistance has been grossly inadequate, as the government generally provides relocation to less valuable land and smaller housing units that are located far from urban centres, sources of employment, and transportation options. If residents object to relocation, they may negotiate the level of compensation, but they cannot stop the eviction process once a government panel has ruled on a compensation dispute.

Moreover, relocations have been carried out in spite of insufficient consultation with affected persons. This has led to numerous protests and even suicides (COHRE 2006).

Increasingly, China's rural population is facing forced evictions. The rapid expansion of China's cities has brought a rise in the demand for the land surrounding urban areas. A 2006 report from the Ministry of Labour and Social Security reported that 40 million farmers had lost their land and livelihood in the last decade, due to the rapid industrialisation and urbanisation which are fuelling China's high economic growth. The report also forecasts that the government will requisition lands from 3 million farmers annually for the next five years. There are reports of corrupt deals between government authorities and private developers, in which farmers are forcibly evicted and receive only a fraction of the actual worth of their land in compensation (COHRE 2006).

The Ministry of Labour and Social Security admits that cases of illegal land seizures had risen by 20 per cent in the first five months of 2006. Protests regarding these land disputes are growing in China's countryside, and they are increasingly accompanied by violence. When residents resist eviction, local authorities and developers often hire security personnel to forcibly take possession of the land (COHRE 2006).

According to Prosterman, Zhu, Ye, Riedinger, Li & Yadav (2009), between 750 and 800 million out of China's estimated population of 1.3 billion which is around 60% still reside in rural areas and rely significantly on agricultural land for their livelihoods.

The prominent inclusion of takings of farmers' land for commercial land purposes would appear to make the nature of the takings process all important. The survey shows that in 3 cases out of seven - which constitutes 43.5% - there was no advance notification of land takings. Only 26.8% of the farmers were consulted about the amount of compensation to be paid (Prosterman *et al.* 2009).

More than once, a farmer has arrived at his or her plot of land only to discover heavy equipment tearing into the field and found little recourse to prevent the loss. It is thus

easy to understand why Chinese farmers rarely undertake long-term investments, such as installing irrigation and drainage infrastructure, planting trees, and constructing greenhouses, all of which are essential for rural prosperity (Prosterman *et al.* 2009).

Keliang & Prosterman (2006) argue that in the late 1970s, various localities in China began to experiment with dismantling the collective farms and giving individual farmers limited freedom to farm independently. Today, village collectives still own virtually all rural land in China, though they must contract the land to individual households for a term of 30 years. Under such an arrangement, Chinese farmers receive “30-year rights” to their contracted land, supposedly free from administrative interference or disturbance.

Findings from the 2005 survey confirm that the land rights of Chinese farmers are still under threat. Thirty percent of the village collectives that claim to have given 30-year land rights to farmers have illegally readjusted or reallocated farmers’ contracted land. Moreover, over the past decade, the frequency of governmental taking of farmers’ land for non-agricultural use has grown by more than 15 times. In only 22 percent of all land takings were farmers actually consulted about their compensation. Almost two-thirds of respondents said their amount of compensation was inadequate, a top rural grievance in today’s China (Prosterman *et al.* 2009).

The farmers’ land rights under the HRS were generally insecure and short-term. “Land readjustments” stood out as the top threat to farmers’ land tenure security. Although land use rights were theoretically allocated to farm households for a specific period of years, most villages in China adopted the practice of periodically readjusting or reallocating landholdings in response to changes in individual household makeup, total village population, and loss of land through land takings or expropriations. In those cases that are called “big readjustments,” a village takes back all land from farmers and then redistributes it (Keliang, Prosterman, Ye Jianping, Ping, Riedinger & Yiwen 2007).

Cabannes (2010) stated that the government gave all the families who were evicted a home by putting them into debt. The place they were evicted to is 3-4 kilometres away

from here and they were allocated small apartments of 60 m². Many people cannot pay their debt now and they are under the threat of a new eviction of the government. Socially, many old people have trouble in the new place and children also.

According to Cabannes (2010), the total number of households affected by the overall construction project in this part of Hangzhou, as mentioned in a report by Zhejiang News¹, is 8,400 households, 7,000 of which are 'rural' households (like those of Nongkou) and 1,400 of which are 'urban' households. The government authorities of Hangzhou City and Jianggan District decide to carry out expropriations for the construction of the Eastern Railway station. The decision to expropriate remaining land of Nongkou communicated to villagers. The houses of the families that accepted the demolition / relocation package are being demolished.

Du Plessis (2006) argues that a wave of almost daily protests [in opposition to evictions] swept [through] cities across China from September to December 2003. This opposition included a number of suicides and attempted suicides, including the incidents where on the 1st of October, China's National Day, Beijing resident Ye Guoqiang attempted suicide by jumping from Beijing's Jinshui bridge to protest his forced eviction for construction related to the 2008 Beijing Olympics. In September, resident Wang Baoguan burned himself to death while being forcibly evicted in Beijing.

In cases of refusal to sign, orders to evict and demolish forcefully can be made – evictees do not really have a meaningful option to refuse - and the process of implementing such orders can involve further violence (Amnesty International, 'Standing Their Ground: thousands face violent evictions in China 2012).

A good conception of just access to land must take legitimate interests in protection from arbitrary interference with housing and property into account. If exclusion must not lead to grave injustice, the same is true of forcible redistribution, the goal (or at least the intended consequence) of expropriations and evictions. Current occupants of land and housing must not be treated like figures on a chessboard, easily moved around by

others, who make the decisions. The problem of governing access to and control over land and housing must be understood as also one of distribution of resources, but not only as such (Pils Undated).

2.5 Farm eviction experiences in South Africa

Through centuries of colonialism and decades of Apartheid, black South Africans were systematically disposed of their land. The colonisers found a society that largely survived from agricultural production. Beyond bringing new developments in mining and industry, the colonial and later the Apartheid powers systematically destroyed the viability of black agriculture. This was done to ensure labour for mines and industry and to make room for the creation of large white-owned commercial farming sector. There was also an ideological motivation that found expression through grand apartheid schemes that ultimately sought to deny any black person citizenship in South Africa (Wegerif 2004).

The history of farm workers and their current social and economic problems are the product of colonialism, segregation, Apartheid, capitalist development and post-Apartheid development thinking (Atkinson 2007).

Prior to and after the advent of democracy, the single greatest problem that has faced many farm workers and dwellers in South Africa has been the ever-present threat of eviction from homes on the farms in the absence of alternative accommodation (Shabodien 2008).

In 2005, Wegerif, Russell & Grundling (2005) stated that in South Africa over the previous 21 years, from 1984 to 2004, almost 1.7 million people had been evicted from farms. The disquieting reality of the scale and uninterrupted nature of these evictions, brought to light through this study, reveals startling weaknesses in the legislation passed since 1994 to protect the rights of farm dwellers, and its implementation.

One of the most disturbing findings of this study is that almost half of all evictees are children, most of whom were born on the farm from which they were evicted. This brings a whole new perspective to the issue of farm evictions, placing a range of social obligations on the state to ensure that these children's shelter, educational and nutritional needs are addressed. This is critical, as further findings have demonstrated that the ability to meet these needs is seriously jeopardised by the eviction and the ability of families to recover after being evicted is certainly not guaranteed (Wegerif *et al.* 2005).

According to Wegerif *et al.* (2005), the largest numbers of evictee households are found in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal. This is a reflection partly of the number of evictions in these provinces, but also the extent to which evictees are finding their way to provinces with the largest urban centres, especially around Gauteng.

The time given to leave the farm is an important factor especially considering that many of these people had been living on the farm for a significant period of time, some for their whole lives. They have to find new places to live and new schools for children and some have to find a place for cattle and other livestock. As in other areas of the eviction process, however, little thought seems to have been given to these factors. Short notice periods for evictions also further reduced the possibility of farm dwellers getting assistance to challenge the eviction (Wegerif *et al.* 2005).

Wegerif (2006) states that in the early 1980s, the Surplus People Project (SPP) established that from 1960 to 1983 a total of 3.5 million black people had been forcibly removed from their land. A large number of these, 1.1 million people, were removed from white farms. SPP saw the forced removals of this period as central to the Apartheid system and essential for its survival.

Most disturbingly, the survey shows that evictions gathered pace rather than declined in the first decade of democracy. More black South Africans lost their homes and access to land due to evictions from farms than acquired land through all land reform measures

– restitution, redistribution and tenure reform – combined. The removals of women, men and children living on farms manifest a startling continuity, even acceleration, of Apartheid dispossession as South Africans moved into the democratic era (Prince 2004).

The first democratically elected government in South Africa has failed to halt the continued forced removal of black peasants and workers from farms owned by a small group of rich, still largely white, land owners. Evictees continue to live in poverty, struggling to get any work at all. Those who are working are often only scraping an existence from piece jobs and informal employment. There is no evidence of any planning to accommodate or assist those evicted as they try to establish themselves in new settlements. With generally very low levels of education and no savings and assets of their own it is very hard for them to establish new lives of dignity (Wegerif 2006).

The effects of the evictions include emotional trauma as well as physical losses. Homes and jobs were lost, families separated and furniture damaged. All the interviewees spoke about the loss of dignity associated with their eviction. All the respondents were unanimous in saying that the quality of their lives and livelihoods had declined since leaving the farms. Interview respondents recalled the sadness they felt, and the sadness expressed by fellow farm workers and family members left behind (Kleinbooi & Williams-Phuhlisani 2010).

While the application for an eviction order was in progress, farmers cut off electricity and water, withdrew grazing agreements and made numerous demands for reduction of livestock. Respondents reported that subsequently livestock had to be sold, given away or slaughtered. In one instance the farmer demanded that the dismissed worker reduce the number of their pigs kept on the farm from forty to two. At the same time the farmer withdrew other benefits like transport and healthcare. Respondents indicated they were 'blacklisted' with the other farmers in the area which prevented them from gaining other employment in the vicinity. Farmers also used other methods of pressure, such as refusing to sign grant applications (Kleinbooi & Williams-Phuhlisani 2010).

According to Kleinbooi & Williams-Phuhlisani (2010), all these strategies were used to ensure the impoverishment and destitution of the farm dwellers and their families in an effort to force them to leave of their own account before the eviction order was granted. One respondent described how a farmer utilised fear and prejudice surrounding HIV to encourage fellow farm workers on the farm to put pressure evict the respondent who was by then known to be an HIV/AIDS sufferer.

At the time of the eviction no alternative housing was available, and no efforts seemed to be forthcoming from either the farmer or the municipality to provide emergency shelter. All the evictees had managed some alternative accommodation from friends and family living elsewhere. This either involved moving in to an already occupied house with family members or into an informal dwelling. Others rented Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) houses from government beneficiaries after leaving the farms. Some ended up in shelters or occupying public spaces under bridges and public toilets. Those evictees who occupied a public toilet have since been moved by the municipality to prefabricated metal shacks/containers and improvised shelters. While attempts have been made by the majority of the evictees to apply for housing at the municipality, no applications for accommodation via the state housing programme had been successful at the time of writing (Kleinbooi & Williams-Phuhlisani 2010).

Kleinbooi & Williams-Phuhlisani, (2010) argue that a strengthened institutional intervention is needed to co-ordinate services and responses to farm workers facing evictions. These include responding quickly to those under threat of evictions, and the provision of support for relocation and integration into the broader community off the farms.

They highlight the extreme vulnerability of farm workers and dwellers in a context of rapid change in the agricultural sector where the combination of deregulation, increases in farm size and mechanisation have contributed to labour shedding and eviction. The physiological impacts on their lives and the lives of their children can only be guessed

at. Families not only suffer loss of belongings and families but a number of workers interviewed expressed the loss of the sense of belonging, not only in terms of space (their homes on the farms) but also politically (as citizens), their dignity and the overwhelming sense of humiliation they have suffered at the hands of their former employers (Kleinbooi & Williams-Phuhlisani 2010).

Evidence exists that once evicted the chances of numerous moves increase. Some people end up drifting from one home to the next and it seems highly likely that they will eventually end up in informal settlements – a stark difference from life on the farm, both socially and in terms of space. They have struggled to find employment in their new surroundings. The case studies underscore the inadequacy of the state to house those made homeless. By and large it would appear that evicted and displaced farm workers remain largely invisible in local planning and development processes (Kleinbooi & Williams-Phuhlisani 2010).

It is imperative as South Africa strives to build a new democracy and address its unfortunate past that the plight of farm dwellers is addressed. Various legislative interventions and government programmes have sought to improve the lot of farm dwellers, but the new legislation has not gone far enough in conferring rights and implementation has been woefully inadequate (Wegerif 2004).

The state's position on farm dwellers' tenure rights appears ambivalent. On the one hand, there is a strong message from within the Department of Land Affairs (DLA) that ESTA is not implementable, that DLA as an institution cannot make it work and is unable to build effective relations with other institutions that also have a part to play – specifically the police, magistrates, the Legal Aid Board and Justice Centres, as well as municipalities and the Department of Housing. On the other hand, DLA has initiated a process not only to consolidate ESTA and the Land Tenure Act (LTA) but also to strengthen the rights contained in these laws and build into the new legislation clear lines of responsibility for enforcement – including the creation of an alternative dispute resolution mechanism (Hall 2003).

In the Malamula case, a situation had been created where tenure was largely employment-based and temporary. Anyone with historical claims to land had been forcibly removed over time. In the 1990s, the farm owners gradually evicted long-term farm dwellers by depriving them of land to produce their own crops such as sorghum, by banning livestock-keeping, and by destroying self-built houses. The curtailment of these livelihood options caused some farm dwellers, who previously enjoyed independent production on the farm, to leave or enter into wage labour. Apparently a transition from self-constructed to farmer-built housing around 2000 further weakened any claims they might have had to independent residence and land use (Wisborg, Hall, Shirinda & Zamchiya 2013).

The result is that land owners/employers are not being forced to follow legal processes, either in terms of the land tenure laws or the labour laws, and consequently these laws are largely ignored. The notion that farm dwellers should at least be provided with alternative accommodation, as required by ESTA for some categories of occupiers, is also largely ignored (Wegerif *et al.* 2005).

Other reasons that evictees gave for having been evicted from a farm included the changing activities on the farm resulting in the farmer needing the land occupied by farm dwellers for other purposes. Also mentioned are instances of workers joining unions against the farmer's wish, and workers expressing their resistance to their children have to work on the farm, usually at the expense of their formal schooling. There were also a few cases where evictees reported that farmers were unhappy with or worried by the political changes in the country (Wegerif *et al.* 2005).

A key challenge that needs to be met is to find ways of separating tenure and employment rights. There are immediate and achievable steps that should be taken now to improve the situation (Wegerif *et al.* 2005).

Wegerif (2006) concludes that the land and tenure reform introduced by the government since 1994 has not yielded the envisaged outcomes. Instead, farmers have responded by escalating evictions and casual workforce. This has increased the housing demand on the outskirts of rural towns and cities while at the same time deepening poverty.

The weakness in the legislation is that it creates no real or substantive rights to land. If land owners follow the procedures, it seems possible for them to get eviction orders against almost anyone on their land, albeit through a rather lengthy and sometimes costly process (Wegerif *et al.* 2005).

Wegerif (2006) further states that the failure to protect and provide benefits to farm dwellers, one of the most vulnerable groups in South Africa, is a continuing indictment of our constitutional democracy.

Farm workers who live at their place of work are mobilized with great difficulty, whether by trade unions or by government agencies. Their relationships with their employers tend to be more important than their relationship with their peers who work on the neighbouring farms. Farm workers are often the last constituency that government agencies reach and this is because they are geographically remote. These problems characterise farm workers throughout the world, but they are intense particularly in South Africa (Atkinson 2007).

In one of the eviction cases, Nolan (2007) narrates that the farmer had waited farm worker to die in order to evict the rest of the family. However, part of the eviction package that had been agreed to between the deceased farm worker's daughter and the farmer was that her grandmother would be given a one room house on the farm and would therefore be allowed to stay. The rest of the family had to pack as many of their belongings as they could and moved off the farm immediately.

The family bought an RDP house with the money that had been settled for the eviction, combined with a loan. The farm deceased farm worker's daughter went back to the farm

every week to visit her grandmother and the neighbours suggested that she take her grandmother with her because nobody had been looking after her. Three months after the eviction, the deceased farm worker's daughter and her brothers came to pick up their grandmother so that she could move in with them. She felt that it had been just in time as she found when she got there that the farmer had been about to put her grandmother into an old age home without consulting with the family. Now there are twelve people living in the small RDP and the Wendy house (Nolan 2007).

The most central issue on which the participating women commented was the need for local municipalities as well as provincial and national government to build trusting relationships with emerging women farmers. Irrespective of whether women described relationships with government as positive or negative, there was an overwhelming sense of frustration and disappointment regarding government's commitment towards women farmers. The women identified that the government was not responding to the reality that evictions are occurring and a threat to the livelihoods of women farmers and their families. They proposed that the government could provide support to emerging women farmers by developing a law that prohibits evictions from farms and that protects emerging farmers like them (Parencee 2010).

2.6 Legal framework

2.6.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South African, 1996

The sections 25, 26 and 28 of the constitution outline the need for every person to have access to land, access to adequate housing and children's right to basic shelter respectively.

2.6.1 a The section 25 (5) and (6): Access to land

The section 25(5) of the constitution states clearly that 'the state 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'.

The section 25(6) further states that 'a person or community whose tenure of land is legally insecure as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided by an Act of Parliament, either to tenure which is legally secure or to comparable redress.

2.6.1 b The section 26 (1) (2) and (3): Access to housing

The section 26(1) states that 'everyone has the right to have access to adequate housing; while section 26(2) states that 'the state must take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to achieve the progressive realisation of this right and section 26(3) further states that 'no one may be evicted from their home, or have their home demolished, without an order of court made after considering all the relevant circumstances. No legislation may permit arbitrary evictions.

2.6.1 c The section 28 (1): Children's right to basic shelter

The section 28 (1) states that every child has the right to:

- (b) 'family care or parental care, or to appropriate alternative care when removed from the family environment';
- (c) 'basic nutrition, shelter, basic healthcare services and social services'.

2.6.2 The White Paper on South African Land Policy (1997)

The policy gives rise to the land tenure reform which is the most appropriate program which deals with strengthening of the security of tenure and has to deal with the following challenges:

- how to extend security of tenure to the millions of people who live in insecure arrangements on land belonging to other people, especially in the predominantly white farming areas;
- how to upgrade the variety of highly conditional land tenure arrangements currently restricting the tenure security and investment opportunities of black South Africans, both in urban and rural areas;

- how to resolve the overlapping and competing tenure rights of people forcibly removed and resettled on land to which others had prior rights;
- how to strengthen the beneficial aspects of communal tenure systems and at the same time bring about changes to practices which have resulted in the erosion of tenure rights and the degradation of natural resources;
- how to make government services available to communities which do not have legally secure rights to the land on which a development is to take place.

2.6.3 Human Rights Commission Act No. 54 of 1994

This Act is obliged to promote observance of, respect for and the protection of the fundamental rights, to develop an awareness of the fundamental rights of all the people of the republic, to make recommendations to the organs of states at all levels of government where it considers such actions advisable for the adoption of the progressive measures for the promotion of fundamental rights within the framework of the law and the constitution.

The stipulated fundamental rights are contained in the chapter 3 of the constitution. The South African Human Rights Commission monitors and evaluates the realisation of the rights to Health care, food, water and social security. Farm evictions continue to violate the human rights.

2.6.4 Extension of Security of Tenure Act No. 62 of 1997 (ESTA)

The Extension of Security of Tenure Act no. 62 of 1997 (ESTA)'s objective is to provide for measures with state assistance to facilitate long-term security of land tenure, to regulate the conditions of residence on certain land, to regulate the conditions on and circumstances under which the right of persons to reside on land may be terminated, to regulate the conditions and circumstances under which persons, whose right of residence has been terminated, may be evicted from land and to provide for matters connected therewith.

This Act covers persons who resided on or used land on 4 February 1997 and it is applicable on land that is designated for agricultural purposes. ESTA prohibits the eviction of any occupier unless in terms of a court order. There are set fundamental rights and duties for both land owner and the occupier and the limitations for eviction.

The Act further stipulates that there must be two calendar months eviction notice presented to the evictees, the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform and the jurisdiction municipality. This is a rights based act which is administered by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform.

2.6.5 Land Reform (Labour Tenants) Act No. 3 of 1996 (LTA)

Land Reform (Labour Tenants) Act 3 of 1996 (LTA)'s objective is to provide for security of tenure of labour tenants and those persons occupying or using land as a result of their association with labour tenants, to provide for the acquisition of land and rights in land by labour tenants and to provide for matters connected therewith. This Act is applicable on the land that is designated for agricultural purposes and does not cover wage workers but those who have lived on white-owned farms for generations, supplying their labour in return for the right to reside there, cultivate and keep livestock. This is a rights based act which is administered by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform.

2.6.6 The Prevention of Illegal Eviction from and Unlawful Occupation of Land Act No19 of 1998 (PIE)

The Prevention of Illegal Eviction from and Unlawful Occupation of Land Act No 19 of 1998 (PIE)'s objective is to provide for the prohibition of unlawful eviction, to provide for procedures for the eviction of unlawful occupiers, to repeal the Prevention of Illegal Squatting Act, 1951, and other obsolete laws and to provide for matters incidental thereto.

This Act seeks to prevent an illegal eviction for unlawful occupiers of the land and it applies in respect of all land throughout the republic. The Act stipulates that there should 14 days effective written eviction notice of the proceedings on the unlawful occupier and the municipality having jurisdiction. This is a rights based act which is administered by the Department of Human Settlement.

2.6.7 The Restitution of Land Rights Act No. 22 of 1994 (RLRA)

The Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 (RLRA)'s objective is to provide for the restitution of rights in land to persons or communities dispossessed of such rights after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices, to establish a Commission on Restitution of Land Rights and a Land Claims Court and to provide for matters connected therewith.

The Act covers persons or communities dispossessed of such rights after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices by providing for restitution of the property or equitable redress. With this Act, people or communities are returned to their disposed land or they are given just and equitable compensation. This is a rights based act which is administered the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform.

2.6.8 The Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act No. 31 of 1996 (IPILRA)

The Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act 31 of 1996 (IPILRA)'s objective is to provide for the temporary protection of certain rights to and interests in land which are not otherwise adequately protected by law and to provide for matters connected therewith.

This Act is applicable mostly in the communal land area with the intention to protect the informal rights of the occupants and users of the land. This is also one of the rights based acts which is administered by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform.

The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform is said to be the relevant department to administer the farm evictions. However, the security of tenure and report on farm evictions doesn't form part of the Department Strategic Objectives and the Annual Reports of 2012 / 2013 and 2013 / 2014 (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, Annual Report 2012-2013 & 2013-2014).

2.7 Conclusion

It is evident that evictions around the world started decades ago and still taking place even today. In the case of the experiences in Zimbabwe, farm evictions were initiated by the state as way of redressing the imbalance of land ownership. The victims were mostly white land owners. However, some black farm workers and dwellers were also evicted.

In the case of experiences in China, the literature reveals that evictions are mainly caused by the rapid population growth and the rapid expansion of the cities which covers the rural areas. In South Africa, during colonisation and through the Apartheid period, as in the case of Zimbabwe, evictions were also initiated by the state with its discriminatory law however targeting only black people. After the advent of South African democracy, with a number of legislations in place, evictions are still taking place and mostly initiated by individual white land owners. In the case of Namibia, there is no legislation governing evictions and therefore this pose a thread of tenure insecurities.

Some of the above legislations places clear limits on the circumstances in which eviction may occur. They set up the principles that need to be followed before, during and after the eviction process. Almost all of the stated legislation further suggests the suitable alternative place for the evictees and the eviction must be just and equitable. With all the legislations presented above, farm evictions are still taking place which leaves people, including children, elderly and people with disabilities stranded with no place to go.

The material used in this literature review and the study as whole was obtained through various sources such as dissertations and theses in different universities, the internet,

published books, unpublished dissertations and theses, research reports, official reports, documentation and speeches, articles from academic journals.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the discussions regarding the research design, methodology and approach as used in the study. Different applicable concepts of the research design and methodology such as research approach, qualitative research, quantitative research, descriptive study, semi-structured questionnaires, video recording, the population and sampling procedure, data collection and analysis will receive attention. Ethical consideration and limitation of the study will be discussed in this chapter.

3.2 Description and the map of the study area

Mogale City Local Municipality is located directly west and south of the City of Johannesburg and City of Tshwane Metropolitan areas respectively, and forms part of one of the three district municipalities that make peripheral areas of the Gauteng Province. The municipality measures 1 342km² in extent (The Local Government Handbook 2015).



Figure 3.1 West Rand District Municipality map

3.3 Understanding research design and methodology

3.3.1 Research design

Mouton (2001) defines research design as a plan or blue-print of how one intends conducting the research. It is a scientific enquiry on the research methods to be used in a particular study. Based on the views of these authors, the concept of the research design in this study is a plan outlining the research processes that were followed from the design of questionnaires, to the collection and data analysis.

According to Pavelek (2013), the choice of research design is guided by the research paradigm and the type of research being carried out. A paradigm is a world view, a general perspective, a way of breaking down the complexity of the real world.

Pavalek (2013) broadly differentiates qualitative and quantitative research as follows:

Qualitative research describes an event in its natural setting. It is a subjective way to look at life as it is lived and an attempt to explain the studied behaviour. The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the participant's setting, data analysis inductively building from particulars to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data (Pavelek 2013).

Quantitative research is a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures. Quantitative research establishes statistically significant conclusions about a population by studying a representative sample of the population. The population consists of the entire group being studied. It does not matter if the population is broad or narrow; only that it includes every individual that fits the description of the group being studied (Pavelek 2013).

The chosen research method used in this study is quantitative. The method is selected because it has the ability to address the stated research questions. To address the stated research questions requires quantifiable data and statistical analysis.

3.3.2 Research methodology

Dawson (2002) defines the research methods as the tools one uses to collect data such as interviews, focus groups, questionnaires and participant observation. On the other hand, Dawson (2002) defines the research methodology as the philosophy or general principle which guides the research.

The research was conducted using semi-structured questionnaires. All questionnaires were interviewer administered, who came around door to door in order to address the issues pertaining non-response, achieve full participation and for the respondents to feel more comfortable in their own space. The other reason for choosing an interviewer administered as opposed to a self-administered questionnaire was to assist those who couldn't read and write.

According to Dawson (2002), the questions need to be grouped into specific topics as this makes it easier to understand and follow. The layout and spacing are extremely important. If the questionnaire looks cluttered, respondents will be less likely to fill it in.

The study questionnaire was grouped into seven sections which included the demographic characteristics of respondents, employment status, adequate housing, health status, food security, income and expenditure and lastly the nature of eviction.

3.4 Population and sampling

3.4.1 Population

Welman & Kruger (2005) describe the concept as a study object which consists of individuals, groups, organisation, human products and events. Another view is that the

concept refers to the full set of cases from which a sample for the collection of data is made (Welman & Kruger 2005). They further describe the concept as large collection of individuals or objects that are the main focus of all scientific queries. Creswell, Vicki & Clark (2007) also define this concept as well-defined collection of individuals or objects with similar characteristics.

There are 64 households at the Buya Africa relocation site near Magalisburg, at Mogale City Local Municipality, who are part of the evicted farm dwellers around the area. Based on the above outlined definitions of population, all 64 household served as a population of this study. So this study mainly focused on the farm dwellers evicted from the farms around the Mogale City Local Municipality and placed at Buya Africa relocation site.

3.4.2 Sampling

The concept of sampling is a process whereby a group of people, objects, or items is taken from a larger population for measurement (Welman & Kruger 2005). Dawson (2002) argues that for large scale quantitative surveys one will need to contact many more people than one would for a small, qualitative piece of research. The sample size will also depend on what one wants to do with the results. If one intends to produce large amounts of cross tabulations, the more people one contacts the better.

Dawson (2002) further argues that if it is not possible to contact everyone in the research population, researchers' select a number of people to contact bearing in mind, however, issues of non-response.

As this study is a census survey, all of the 64 households who were evicted and relocated at Buya Africa relocation site served as a sample in this study.

3.5 Questionnaire administration

3.5.1 Piloting the questionnaire

According to Dawson (2002), once one has constructed the questionnaire, one must pilot and this means that one must test out to see if it is obtaining the results as required. Dawson (2002) further argues that once this has been done, the questions should be altered accordingly, before one sends out a number of questionnaires to the type of people who will be taking part in the main survey. One has to make sure they know it is a pilot test and ask them to forward any comments they may have about the length, structure and wording of the questionnaire.

As per the above argument, the semi-structured questionnaire was developed and discussed with the researchers' supervisors, was piloted on the 21 January 2015 at Lethabong relocation site near Hekpoort at Mogale City Local Municipality. Four questionnaires were administered to two women and two men who were evicted from the farms around Mogale City area and relocated to Lethabong Center.

The main aim of the questionnaire pre-test was to determine the following objectives:

- Whether the proposed methodology would successfully determine the socio-economic effects of farm evictions in Mogale City Local Municipality;
- Whether the instrument used in this process was effective in obtaining the type of information required; and
- Whether the primary study objectives could be achieved using the defined unit of analysis.

On the basis of the pilot questionnaire results, considerable amount of time was spent determining what could be improved in the research instruments and approach used.

3.5.2 Administering final questionnaire

Each and every questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter explaining the main purpose of the research, extent of confidentiality, proposed structure and the personal details of the researcher for possible further information after the interview.

The questionnaire has seven sections which were split in several sub-questions to guide the respondents. The questionnaires began with a series of closed questions, with boxes to tick or scales to rank in order to generate statistics and there was a section of open-ended questions at the end for more detailed response. The researcher undertook to collect data and conduct the research herself and as a result the response rate and participation was satisfactory.

3.6 Data collection

The intention of this study to use the described data collection methods was to make an attempt to respond appropriately to the research questions, in particular, the extent at which the respondents' socio-economic part of their life is affected by the farm evictions.

The appropriate methods ensured that the researcher has respondents in mind when drafting the questions. In this regard, a semi-structured, closed and open-ended questionnaire is flexible enough to allow interaction with the interviewer and among respondents themselves to clarify stipulated questions. The structuring of the questionnaire was similar for all the respondents. This was imperative in order to allow the smooth facilitation of the interviews.

The researcher managed to administer questionnaires to 57 household heads and the remaining 7 households were reported to have relocated to other areas while some have passed on. The victims were easily accessible and all the parties are not too far apart from one another, as they are residing in the same relocation site. The original data is stored safely, preserved, and protected against any possible corruption or damage. There are backup copies stored separately from original data.

3.7 Data analysis

The results of the semi-structured questionnaire are presented and analysed to ensure that the input of the respondent is appropriately understood. As this study is quantitative with empirical data in nature, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used data analytical tool to analyse the collected data. The data was analysed to assess whether there were changes before and after the eviction. Food security before and after eviction is an example of variable used to assess socio-economic effects. Income is an example of a variable that was used to assess the economic effects. Livelihoods were used to analyse how the affected communities responded to the eviction. This is consistent with the study objectives.

The current research study produced some interesting findings as presented in the findings chapter. A thorough analysis, discussion and interpretation of the empirical data is undertaken in chapter four to further unpack the explanations in this section of the study.

3.8 Ethical consideration

Ethics is a set of widely accepted principles that offers rules and behavioural expectations for the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport 2005). The aim of ethical consideration in research is that it allows respondents to participate in the interviews voluntarily and ensure that they are not exposed to risks that are greater than the gains they might derive.

In line with this, the researcher obtained written permission to conduct the study from the Mogale City Local Municipality and from the respondents. The researcher made sure that questions posed during interviews did not intimidate participants in any way.

Furthermore, the respondents were made aware of the nature of the study and their rights to participate. An undertaking to protect the identity of respondents was also made as assurance that the information furnished would not be used for any other purpose than for study purposes only.

Leedy & Ormrod (2001) further relate that the presentation of the findings needs to ensure that there is no data fabrication to support a particular conclusion.

3.9 Limitations of the study

The researcher had hoped to cover the whole Westrand District Municipality but due to financial and time constraint, only a case study of the Mogale City Municipality was investigated. Out of the intended population of 64 households, the researcher managed to administer questionnaires to only 57 household heads and the remaining 7 households were reported to have relocated to other areas while some has passed on. However, this results in a eighty nine percent response rate.

3.10 Conclusion

This chapter provided the discussions regarding the research design, methodology and approach as used in the study. Different applicable concepts of the research design and methodology such as research approach, qualitative research, quantitative research, descriptive study, semi-structured questionnaires, the population, sampling procedure and data collection have received attention. The data analysis, ethical consideration and limitation of the study were briefly discussed in this chapter. Chapter four considers the detailed discussion on data analysis and interpretation.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results in the form of tables, charts and graphs and interprets the empirical findings using statistical test like chi-square and t-test.

4.2 Descriptive analysis of selected responses from evictees

Fifty three percent of the respondents had lived up to five years while eleven percent had lived for more than ten years at the place where they were evicted. The average years lived at the place where respondents were evicted is seven years. The land where the households are staying now is owned by the Mogale City Local Municipality.

Table 4.1 shows that evictions happened between 2006 and 2012 with more than 90 percent taking place in 2010 and 2011. Why most of the evictions took place in these years warrants further investigation.

Table 4.1 The year households were evicted (n=57)

Year	Percent
2006	2
2010	70
2011	23
2012	2
Total	97
Missing	4
	100

Table 4.2 summarises selected responses from evictees. These responses were grouped and discussed together only as a result of their similarity in being dichotomous. However, they address some pertinent issues related to eviction.

Table 4.2 Selected dichotomous attributes (%) n=57

Question /Instruction	Yes
Did a member of your household lose a job due to eviction?	12
Did you have any income 1 year before eviction?	88
Did you have any income 1 year after eviction?	95
Did you incur any debts before eviction?	70
Did you incur any debts after eviction?	93
Did you have any written agreement to stay on the farm?	5
Were you given notice to vacate the land?	61
Did the land owner offer an alternative place to stay after eviction?	0
Did the farm owner offer any form of compensation for vacating the farm?	4
Where there children who were schooling in your family when evicted?	63
Did you have access to land for farming on the farm?	28
Did you have legal representation for your eviction case?	0

Eighty eight percent of the households reported that there was no household member who lost their jobs due to eviction.

After eviction, ninety five percent had income per month 1 year after eviction. Eviction seems to have spurred the evictees to look for employment. Further research needs to be carried out to find out the nature of employment and the remuneration in order to establish whether evictees could possibly be better off after eviction.

Seventy percent of the sample had debts before eviction while ninety three percent had debts after evictions. The result from the debts and earning an income are counterintuitive hence the need for further research.

All the respondents were not given any alternative place to stay by the land owner after eviction. This finding is in line with the findings of Shabodien (2008)

Sixty three percent had children who were schooling in their family when evicted. This finding is in line with the findings of Wegerif, Russell & Grundling (2005).

Table 4.3 shows that fifty three percent of the respondents sourced their debts from the shops while only two percent sourced from private money lenders before the eviction. After eviction seventy two percent of the respondents sourced their debts from the shops while two percent sourced from private money lenders after eviction.

Table 4.3 Source of debts before and after eviction (%) n=57

Source	Before	After
Relative Friends	7	5
Private money lenders	2	2
Shop	53	72
Spaza	5	12
Not applicable	30	9
Friends/Shops	2	
Sellers	2	
Total	100	100

Earlier analysis shows that evictees were more in debt than before eviction. However, why the sources change warrants further investigation since it is also found out that the reason for debt do not change that much.

Table 4.4 shows that forty percent of the respondents' reasons for debt was to buy food while two percent it was for clothes before the eviction. Forty two percent sourced debts for food while two percent sourced the buy both food and paraffin after eviction.

Table 4.4 Reasons for debts before and after evictions (%) n=57

Reasons	Before	After
Food	40	42
Clothing	2	7
Not applicable	30	9
Food and Clothes	26	30
Clothes and furniture	2	2
food/clothes/transport		2
Food and paraffin		4
Food/clothes/paraffin		2
food and furniture		2
loan to burry a relative		2
Total	100	100

Ninety five percent of the households did not receive any written agreement to stay on the property where they were evicted. This may be one of the reasons why the owners find it so easy to evict. There is need for research to find out if agreements could better protect potential evictees.

All the households were not offered alternative accommodation by the land owner when evicted from the farm. This probably is an expected result because the land owner is more interested in the land being vacated than in where the evictees go.

Ninety six percent of the households were not offered any compensation by the land owner when vacating the farm while four percent reported that they took land owners'

corrugated iron by force. Because the process of eviction is not organised, it can lead to this forceful loss of property. More organisation and facilitated negotiations between evictees and land owner might lead to win-win situations.

Sixty three percent of the households had children attending school when evicted.

Table 4.5 shows that fifty six percent of the children continued schooling after eviction.

Table 4.5 School continuity (n=57)

	Percent
Not applicable	37
Continued at the same school	56
Dropped out	5
Completed that year of eviction	2
Total	100

It is very important to note that in terms of school attendance not too many children suffer due to eviction however issues of quality of schools and access may warrant further investigation.

Twenty eight percent of the households had access to land for farming on the farm where they were evicted and twenty one percent left their produce there when evicted. This is in line with the findings for Kleinbooi & Williams-Phuhlisani (2010). Thus for the majority was not farming that was their source of livelihood. This might also explain why the evictees appear to have been spurred to look for employment.

Table 4.6 shows that twenty one percent of the households left their produce at the farm when they were evicted.

Table 4.6 What happened to your produce at eviction? (n=57)

	Percent
Left them there	21
Harvested	5
Not Applicable	72
Didn't plant in that season	2
Total	100

None of the households reported having legal representation for their eviction case. It is worth researching whether having legal representation would improve the situation of the evictees.

Sixty one percent of the households were given notices to vacate the farm. Ninety eight percent of the households were evicted in summer.

Table 4.7 shows that forty two percent of the households were given three months notices to vacate the farm while thirty nine percent were not given notice to vacate. This finding is in line with the findings of Wegerif, Russell & Grundling (2005)

Table 4.7 Notice duration to vacate the farm (months) (n=57)

	Percent
Not applicable	39
1	5
3	42
Don't know	7
Many times	7
Total	100

Further research is needed to find out if the notice time was enough for the evictees to find alternatives and also to establish the optimum eviction notice time.

4.3 Gender

Table 4.8 shows that twenty eight percent of the female respondents have less than five years of education while twelve percent of the female respondents have more than ten years of education. This finding regarding the low level of education of the evictees is in line with the findings of Wegerif (2006), however reported not only on female respondent.

Table 4.8 Highest level of education (years) by Gender of respondent (n=57)

	Gender of respondent %		Total
	Male	Female	
Highest level of education (years) ≤ 5	18	28	46
>5 to ≤ 10	9	30	39
>10	4	12	16
Total	31	70	100

It will be interesting to find out why there are more females in this evicted community. It does not appear that the education of women disadvantages them to find income sources. This is supported by earlier results that show that more of the evictees had income after eviction.

4.4 Marital status

Figure 4.1 shows that seventy nine percent of the respondents are single. It is important to find out if being single has any impact on the ability of the respondents to survive after eviction.

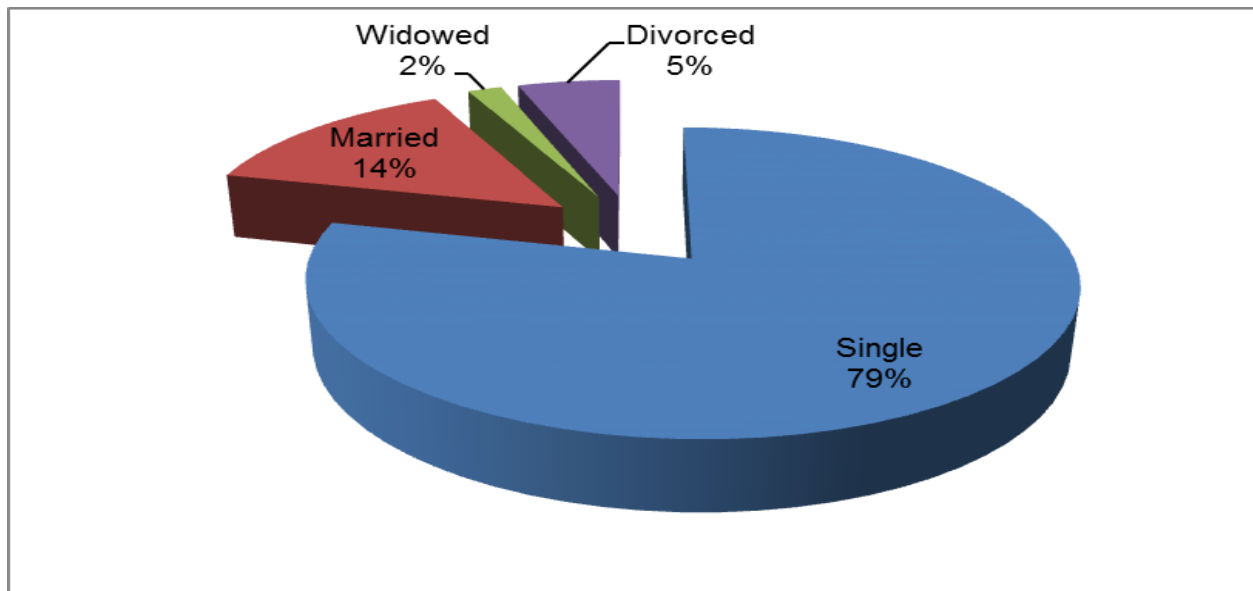


Figure 4.1 Marital Status of respondents (n=57)

4.5 Housing

In terms of housing, seventy seven percent lived in brick houses before eviction while the rest lived in tin houses. After eviction all the respondents lived in tin houses. However, when respondents were asked about the dwelling size before and after eviction the paired t-test p-value of 0.466 (>0.05) shows that the dwelling size did not change.

Table 4.9 shows that seventy seven percent of the dwellings were built by landowners while twenty one percent were built by respondents themselves before the eviction. After eviction ninety seven percent of the dwellings were built by respondents and four percent of the dwellings were built by respondents with the help of the Red ants. Red ants is a group of people hired by other institutions to help in forcefully removing people

from evicted areas.

Table 4.9 Dwelling builder before eviction and after eviction (n=57)

Builder	Before	After
Land owner	77	
Self	21	97
Relatives/Friends	2	
Self, helped by Red Ants		4
Total	100	100

Thus the dwelling status appears to have deteriorated after eviction.

4.6 Income sources

A comprehensive analysis of the income sources was done. In terms of income sources before and after eviction, table 4.10 shows that thirty three percent had income through employment while thirty three got their income through grants one year before eviction. Forty percent of the respondents got their income through grants while thirty percent got income through the combination of both work and grant one year after eviction.

Table 4.10 Sources of income 1 year before and 1 year after eviction (%) n=57)

Income	Before	After
No source of income	2	
Work	33	19
Grant	33	40
Not Applicable	7	5
Work and Grant	23	30
Donations	2	
Relative/Friends/Partner		2
Stipend		2
Selling/grant		2
Total	100	100

Table 4.11 shows the mean differences in food, medical, expenditure, personal care, clothing and education expenditures one year before and one year after eviction.

For all the expenditures, the difference is negative showing that the expenditures all reduced after eviction. However, only the differences between the values for food and personal care expenditure one year before and one year after eviction are statistically significantly different. This may suggest that for the other attributes, the evictees were already living at the basic minimum such that it is not possible to reduce the expenditure.

Alternatively, food and personal care expenditure may be the ones where evictees were able to reduce expenditure by either cutting down or finding cheaper alternatives. This is worth investigating further.

Table 4.11 Mean expenditure differences 1 year before and after eviction for selected items per month (R) (n=57)

Attribute	Mean difference	SDev	Sig
Food expenditure	-192.63	510.295	.008
Medical care expenditure	-.32	2.384	.322
Personal care expenditure	-39.56	70.586	.000
Clothing	-37.84	235.804	.231
Education expenditure	-16.84	127.155	.322

4.7 Descriptive analysis of perceived ESTA effectiveness, government assistance satisfaction and evictions impact

Respondents were asked about their perceptions of the effectiveness of ESTA. Table 4.12 Summarises the analysis related to ESTA.

**Table 4.12 Perceived ESTA effectiveness, government assistance satisfaction and evictions impact
(n=57)**

Question/Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total %	Test for association with gender	Test for association with Education
ESTA is effective	2	14	9	26	49	100	0.516	0.234
Government assistance about farm evictions is effective	5	30	0	25	40	100	0.616	0.077
Eviction has negative effect on livelihood	93	7	0	0	0	100	0.360	0.796

Perceived ESTA effectiveness and relationship with gender

Sixteen percent of the evictees agreed that ESTA is effective while seventy five percent disagreed with the statement. This finding is in line with the findings of Hall (2003). The t-test was used to test for the ESTA effectiveness's association with gender of the respondents. The p-value of 0.516 (>0.05), shows that the association is statistically insignificant. We therefore conclude that there is no association between ESTA effectiveness' and gender.

Perceived ESTA effectiveness and relationship with education

The t-test was used to test for the ESTA effectiveness's association with education of the respondent. The p-value of 0.234 (>0.05) shows that the association is statistically insignificant. We therefore conclude that there is no association between ESTA effectiveness' and education of respondents.

Perceived government assistance effectiveness and relationship with gender

Thirty five percent of the evictees agreed that government assistance is effective while sixty five percent disagreed with the statement. This finding is in line with Wegerif, Russell & Grundling (2005). The t-test was used to test for the government assistance satisfaction association with gender of respondents. The p-value of 0.616 (>0.05) shows that the association is not statistically significant. We therefore conclude that there is no association between government assistance satisfaction and gender.

Perceived government assistance effectiveness and relationship with education

The t-test was used to test for the government assistance satisfaction's association with education of the respondents. The p-value of 0.077 (>0.05) shows that the association is not statistically significant. We therefore conclude that there is no association between government assistance satisfaction and education. However, since this association is significant at 0.1, the relationship warrants further investigation.

Perceived eviction impact and relationship with gender

All respondents agreed that eviction has negative impact on livelihoods. This finding is in line with the findings of Kleinbooi & Williams-Phuhlisani (2010). The t-test was used to test for the eviction impact in association with gender of respondents. The p-value of 0.360 (>0.05) shows that the association is not statistically significant. We therefore conclude that there is no association between eviction impact and gender.

Eviction impact and relationship with education

The t-test was used to test for the eviction impact's association with education of respondents. The p-value of 0.796 (>0.05) shows that the association is not statistically significant. We therefore conclude that there is no association between eviction impact and education.

4.8 Perceived ESTA improvements

Table 4.13 shows that thirty percent of the respondents have the opinion that for ESTA to be effective, it should not allow land owners to evict people at all whereas nineteen respondents are of the opinion that the land owners should give alternative place to stay. Twenty five percent of the respondents did not know how ESTA can be improved.

Table 4.13 How can ESTA be improved? (n=57)

	Percent
Land owner to give alternative place to stay	19
To give enough notice to be able to look for land	11
I don't know	25
Land owners to give us houses	7
Stop officials to take bribes from land owners	4
Do not allow land owners to evict people at all	30
Awareness	4
Government to give houses	2
Total	100

The potential improvements of ESTA warrant further investigation.

4.9 Summary of agree-disagree questions for evictees before and after eviction

The evictees were asked to agree or disagree with statements related to housing, health, food security, income and awareness of tenure rights before and after eviction.

Table 4.14 summarises the results.

Table 4.14 Analysis of evictees' situation before and after eviction (%) n=57

Question / Statement Before	1	2	3	4	5	Total %	Question / Statement After	1	2	3	4	5	Total %	Sig
Adequate housing														
My dwelling was satisfactory before eviction	18	53	0	18	12	100	My dwelling was satisfactory after eviction	0	5	0	16	79	100	.522
Electricity supply was reliable before eviction	2	2	0	9	88	100	Electricity supply was reliable after eviction	0	0	0	4	97	100	.000
Energy for cooking was satisfactory before eviction	7	47	2	19	25	100	Energy for cooking was satisfactory after eviction	2	2	0	18	79	100	.405
Garbage collection was satisfactory before eviction	4	75	2	14	5	100	Garbage collection was satisfactory after eviction	2	33	0	47	18	100	.000
My personal care														
My personal care was satisfactory before eviction	5	68	0	21	5	100	My personal care was satisfactory after eviction	5	25	2	46	23	100	.000
Health status														
Health status was not satisfactory	5	30	0	35	30	100	Health status was not satisfactory	16	53	0	12	19	100	.008
I had access to medical facilities	16	79	0	4	2	100	I had access to medical facilities	0	16	0	47	37	100	.182
Food security														
There was always enough food to eat before eviction	14	60	0	25	2	100	There was always enough food to eat after eviction	2	16	0	65	18	100	.371
Household income														
My household income was satisfactory in year before eviction	5	37	9	39	11	100	My household income was satisfactory in year after eviction	2	11	5	46	28	100	.007
Awareness														
Awareness of tenure rights before eviction	0	28	0	26	46	100	Awareness of tenure rights after eviction	7	70	4	12	7	100	.005

Key: 1 = Strongly agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Neither, 4 = Disagree, 5 = Strongly disagree

Housing

Dwelling satisfaction

Seventy one percent of the evictees agreed that dwelling was satisfactory before eviction. After eviction, ninety five percent disagreed with the statement. The t-test was used to test for the distribution of the responses before and after eviction. The p-value of 0.522 (>0.05) shows that the two distributions are not statistically significantly different. It is therefore concluded that in relation to dwelling satisfaction, the situation of the evictees did not deteriorate after eviction. This might be explained by the fact that the respondents may feel secured and no longer prone to evictions as the place where they are staying now is owned by the municipality.

Electricity supply

Ninety seven percent of the evictees disagreed that electricity supply was reliable before eviction. After eviction, all respondent disagreed with the statement. The t-test was used to test for the distribution in responses before and after eviction. The p-value of 0.000 (<0.05) shows that the two distributions are statistically significantly different showing that more evictees disagreed with the statement after eviction. It is therefore concluded that in relation to electricity supply the status of the evictees deteriorated after eviction.

Energy for cooking

Fifty four percent of the evictees agreed that energy for cooking was satisfactory before eviction. After eviction ninety seven percent disagreed with the statement. The t-test was used to test for the distribution in responses before and after eviction. The p-value of .405 (>0.05) shows that the two distributions are not statistically significantly different. It is therefore concluded that in relation to energy for cooking satisfaction, the situation

of the evictees did not deteriorate after eviction. This might be explained by the fact that the cooking energy sources might not have changed as a result of eviction.

Garbage collection

Seventy nine percent of the evictees agreed that garbage collection was adequate before eviction. After eviction sixty five percent disagreed with the statement. The t-test was used to test for the distribution in responses before and after eviction. The p-value of 0.000 (<0.05) shows that the two distributions are statistically significantly different showing that more evictees disagreed with the statement after eviction. It is therefore concluded that in relation to garbage collection, the situation of the evictees deteriorated after eviction.

Personal care

Seventy three percent of the evictees agreed that their personal care was satisfactory before the eviction. After eviction sixty nine percent disagreed with the statement. The t-test was used to test for the distribution in responses before and after eviction. The p-value of 0.000 (<0.05) shows that the two distributions are statistically significantly different showing that more evictees disagreed with the statement after eviction. It is therefore concluded that in relation to personal care, status of the evictees deteriorated after eviction.

Health

Thirty five of the evictees agreed that health status was not satisfactory before the eviction. After eviction, sixty nine percent agreed with the statement. The t-test was used to test for the distribution in responses before and after eviction. The p-value of 0.008 (<0.05) shows that the two distributions are statistically significantly different showing that more evictees agreed with the statement after eviction. It is therefore

concluded that in relation to health status, the situation of the evictees deteriorated after eviction.

Access to medical facilities

Ninety five percent of the evictees agreed that they had access before eviction. After eviction, eighty four percent disagreed with the statement. The t-test was used to test for the distribution in responses before and after eviction. The p-value of 0.182 (>0.05), shows that the two distributions are not statistically significantly different. It is therefore concluded that in relation to access to medical facilities, the situation of the evictees did not deteriorate after eviction.

It is possible for the health status to deteriorate while access to health facilities did not change. This might mean that the expenditure priorities might be affected by eviction. This is an area requiring further study.

Food security

Eighty four percent of the evictees agreed that there was adequate food before eviction. After eviction eighty three percent disagreed with the statement and eighteen percent strongly disagreed. The t-test was used to test for the distribution in responses before and after eviction. The p-value of 0.371 (>0.05) shows that the two distributions are not statistically significantly different. It is therefore concluded that in relation to availability of food to eat, situation of the evictees did not deteriorate after eviction.

Income

Forty two percent of the evictees agreed that their household income was satisfactory before eviction. After eviction seventy four percent disagreed with the statement. The t-test was used to test for the distribution in responses before and after eviction. The p-value of 0.007 (<0.05) shows that the two distributions are statistically significantly different showing that more evictees disagreed with the statement after eviction. It is

therefore concluded that in relation to household income, the situation of the evictees deteriorated after eviction. This is interesting in light of the results of income sources discussed earlier. Incomes might have actually improved after eviction but satisfaction with that income might deteriorate due the increased demand on that income for instance in the need to provide shelter. However, this relationship warrants further investigation.

Awareness of tenure rights

Twenty eight percent of the evictees agreed that they were well aware of their tenure rights before eviction. After eviction, nineteen percent disagreed with the statement. The t-test was used to test for the distribution in responses before and after eviction. The p-value of 0.005 (<0.05) shows that the two distributions are statistically significantly different showing that more evictees disagreed with the statement after eviction. It is therefore concluded that in relation to tenure awareness, most of the evictees only became aware of their tenure rights after eviction.

4.10 Conclusion

This chapter provided the discussions of the findings in relation to the demographics and the employment status of the respondents before and after the eviction. The chapter further discussed the findings relating to housing, health, income, expenditure debts and the nature of the eviction. It is evident that the respondents were negatively affected by the eviction in most of the socio-economic factors that were investigated.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECCOMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The study set out to assess the socio-economic effects of farm evictions in MCLM. The aim of this chapter is to present the conclusion and recommendations of the study.

5.2 Conclusions

This section briefly summarises the key study findings in relation to the posed study questions from chapter 1. Housing, health, food security, income and awareness are the critical socio-economic factors on which evictees are assessed in order to establish the effects of farm evictions.

Firstly, in findings relating to housing, factors such as electricity supply reliability, garbage collection satisfaction and personal care satisfaction were assessed. It is evident that electricity supply, garbage collection and personal care are some of the most essential socio-economic factors that have significantly deteriorated as a result of eviction. The highest percentage of the respondents had to build shelters/houses for themselves after eviction and are all living in temporarily structures (tin houses). These identified variables address the research study question related to social effects of farm evictions.

Secondly, in relation to health, the study concludes that the evictees' satisfaction with health significantly deteriorated after the eviction. This identified variable also addresses the research study question related to social effects of farm evictions.

Thirdly, in terms of income satisfaction, it is evident that household income satisfaction of the evictees deteriorated significantly after the eviction. The results further show that the highest percentage relies on grants as their source of income after eviction. This is counter-intuitive to the finding that more evictees had an income one month after the

eviction. This relationship warrants further investigation. This identified variable addresses the research study question related to economic effects of farm evictions.

Fourthly, tenure rights awareness was also assessed and the study showed that the evictees only became aware of their tenure rights as prescribed in the Extension of Security of Tenure Act (ESTA) after the eviction. Whether prior knowledge would have changed their outcomes warrants further study. This identified variable also addresses the research study question related to social effects of farm evictions.

Fifthly, the study showed that the evictees' perceptions are that ESTA is not effective. Further analyses were conducted to test perceived ESTA effectiveness in relationship with gender and education; the test revealed that the association thereof is statistically insignificant. Thus the perceived ESTA ineffectiveness depends neither on gender nor on education. This identified variable addresses the research study question related to how the communities responded to the eviction phenomenon.

Sixth, in relation to perceived government assistance effectiveness about farm evictions, the study shows that evictees perceive that government assistance is not effective. Further analyses were conducted to test perceived government assistance effectiveness about farm evictions in relationship with gender and education; the test revealed that the association thereof is statistically insignificant. This identified variable further addresses the research study question related to how the communities responded to the eviction phenomenon.

Seventh, in relation to perceived negative impact of evictions to the respondents, the study concludes that there is indeed a negative impact experienced. However further analyses were conducted to test the impact in relationship with gender and education, and the test revealed that the association thereof is statistically insignificant. This identified variable also addresses the research study question related to how the communities were affected by the eviction phenomenon.

It is important to note that some of the findings address the same research study questions. Overall, the study concludes that the evictees' socio-economic status is negatively affected by the evictions.

5.3 Recommendations

Following are the recommendations as per study findings:

5.3.1 Firstly, electricity supply reliability, garbage collection satisfaction and personal care satisfaction

Electricity supply reliability

There is no electricity at the relocation site; the MCLM should strive to provide the evicted community with electricity as one of the basic needs. However, some can argue that since this site is a temporary or an emergency site, it is not possible for the municipality to provide for such, as it is supposed to be a permanent structure. It is important to note that the majority of the respondents have been relocated to this site for five years. There is therefore a need to assess, on a location to location basis, whether electricity infrastructure should be availed so as to reduce the negative impacts of eviction. This should also be accompanied by an assessment of whether or what kinds of plans exist in the respective municipalities regarding the potential for the provision of alternative areas to live in, in other words there should be an assessment of how temporary is the temporary occupation.

Garbage collection satisfaction

There are toilets provided for in the area however some residents reported (and this was confirmed by observation during data collection) that the municipality takes long to empty the toilets and garbage bins. This leads to unpleasant smell and health risks in

the area. The provision of sufficient toilet facilities and the maintenance of proper sanitation would improve the wellbeing of the evictees.

Personal care satisfaction

The MCLM, Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, Department of Agriculture and other private institution should initiate projects in the area which will improve the income of the affected community so that they are able to take care of their personal care needs.

5.3.2 Secondly, health status satisfaction

The researched community does not pay for their medication however they walk for about 3.5 km to the local clinic. The road is reported to be unsafe for them. Accessibility of the clinic is even more difficult when experiencing health challenges in the course of the night. The provision of a mobile clinic could effectively address the issue of access to health facilities and eventually improve their health status.

5.3.3 Thirdly, income satisfaction

The highest percentage of respondents depend on grants as their source of income, if the MCLM, Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, Department of Agriculture and the private sector can assist in introducing projects in the area, this will as well improve the income for the respondents.

5.3.4 Fourthly, adequate awareness campaign

The study shows that a high percentage of the respondents became well aware of their tenure rights only after evictions. It is recommended that all the parties involved in eviction including all spheres of government, NGO's and private institutions should embark on a campaign to educate all the farm workers / dwellers and land-owners about their tenure rights, roles and responsibilities as stipulated in ESTA. This will assist the affected people to respond properly to the eviction phenomena without fear of being victimised and without hesitation.

5.3.5 Fifthly, ESTA effectiveness

The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform should work together with MCLM to effectively implement ESTA in order to prevent and resolve the prevalent of farm evictions in the area.

5.3.6 Sixth, government assistance satisfaction

The MCLM, Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, Department of Agriculture, Department of Human Settlement should strive to assist the evicted farm dwellers with the necessary basic resources such as low cost houses, clean water, proper sanitation facilities, access to education, legal representation and food security projects in order to improve their livelihoods.

5.3.7 Seventh, impact of evictions

The MCLM, DRDLR, NDHS and land owners should adhere to the principles outlined in the article 25(1) of the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948 and to the Constitution of the Republic of South African, 1996, sections 25, 26 and 28 of the constitution which outline the need for every person to have access to land, access to adequate housing and children's right to basic shelter respectively.

5.3.8 Lastly, effective implementation of ESTA

The DRDLR and MCLM should ensure effective implementation of the Act.

5.4 Further research areas

Areas of possible future research are identified during the study, namely:

- The causes of farm evictions in Gauteng Province

- Investigation on why most of the evicted farm dwellers are not married (as per the results of this study).
- Investigate the municipalities on what plans are in place to curb the farm evictions.
- Assess the effectiveness of ESTA in Gauteng Province or South Africa.
- Assess the roles and responsibilities stakeholders in relation to evictions.
- Assess if public-private partnerships could be forged to curb the negative impacts of evictions.
- Assess if it is possible to use incentive and punishment schemes for farm owners to behave responsibly in the process of eviction.
- Assess why there is no adherence to the acts mentioned earlier and the constitution.
- There were no early learning centers observed during data collection. It is important to assess whether they should be provided for the evictees including by whom, when and how they should be provided.
- Assess whether the formation of task teams to provide knowledge and support could improve the outcomes for evictees.

5.5 Concluding remarks

It is evident from the study that evictions have high negative socio-economic impact on evictees and it is of utmost importance for the all spheres of government and private sector to take note of the following to further reduce the impact:

5.5.1 Adhere to article 25(1) of the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948

The declaration serves as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations to which South Africa is a party. The article 25 (1) of the declaration states that everyone has the right to adequate living standard for health and wellbeing. This article further refers to the right to property which includes housing for everyone. The

municipality, Department of Rural Development and Land Reform and Department of Human Settlement should strive to adhere to the principles outlined in the article in order to protect the rights of the resettled communities. This would reduce the negative impacts of evictions.

5.5.2 Adhere to the Constitution of the Republic of South African, 1996

There is a need for the concerned government departments, including municipalities to honour the sections 25, 26 and 28 of the constitution which outlines the need for every person to have access to land, access to adequate housing and children's right to basic shelter respectively. This recommendation derives from the fact that many evictees viewed government assistance as ineffective.

5.5.3 Education facilities

It is important to note that school attendance remained high even after eviction. This is a sign that something is being done correctly.

5.5.4 Task teams for support

All farm workers / dwellers should form support groups in their respective areas in order to share experiences and knowledge about matters which affects the farming areas. The task team will play an important role in negotiating terms with the government on matters that affect their quality of life.

5.5.5 Municipal pro-active plan to respond to farm evictions

The municipality together with the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform are only responding to the farm eviction as and when they occur. This is a challenge because some of those evictions just erupt and leave the families with children stranded with no place to go. The mentioned institutions should comprehensively profile all the farm workers and farm dwellers in the area as this will give them an indication of how

many people are vulnerable to possible evictions. This report will enable the municipality to plan for future developments in the area and to include them (farm workers / dwellers) in their development plan.

5.5.6 Housing supply

Even though the housing dissatisfaction is statistically insignificant, all respondents are staying in informal shelter made of corrugated irons. The MCLM and the Department of Human Settlement should assist the evictees to get RDP houses.

5.5.7 Food security

The food security status after eviction was statistically insignificant. However, it will be imperative for the MCLM, Department of Rural Development and Land Reform and the Department of Agriculture to assist in initiating projects such as vegetable gardens and other projects where women can be involved in improving the food security of the respondents.

5.5.8 Energy for cooking

The respondents dependent on wood as their source of energy before and after the eviction thus the statistically insignificant reflect. It is recommended that the MCLM, Department of Rural Development and Land Reform should assist in supplying solar energy to warm water and for lights, as there is no electricity.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: PROOF OF AUTHORISATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT MCLM



Mogale City
Local Municipality

MINUTE

FROM OFFICE OF THE COUNCILLOR

WARD 31

REF: CLLR. D.L. MOSESE

CONTACT NO.: 072 092 2058

DATE 2015-06-23

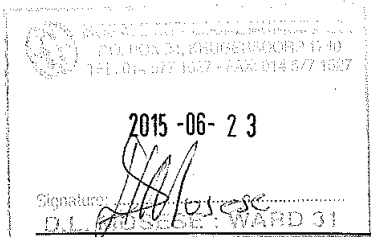
TO:

WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

WE HAVE RECEIVED YOUR REQUEST TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH AT WARD 31, BUYA AFRICA, PORTION 82, SITE AND SERVICE ABOUT THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC EFFECTS CONCERNING FARM EVICTION, A CASE OF MOGALE CITY LOCAL MUNICIPALITY IN GAUTENG PROVINCE

WE WELCOME THE OPPORTUNITY AND WOULD HOPEFULLY BE ABLE TO BENEFIT FROM YOUR RESEARCH FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATION WHICH MAY ASSIST THEM MUNICIPALITY IN FUTURE PLANNING OF THE AREA AROUND FARM EVICTION MATTER

PLEASE FEEL FREE TO CONTACT ME FOR FURTHER ASSISTANCE, IF NECESSARY



CLLR. D.L. MOSESE

WARD 31

APPENDIX 2: SEMI-STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE

SEMI-STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE: SOCIO-ECONOMIC EFFECTS OF FARM
EVICTIONS: MOGALE CITY LOCAL MUNICIPALITY: QUESTIONNAIRE NUMBER:
/_01_/

Name of household head: _____

Name of the municipality: _____

Name of location: _____

How long have you been staying at this place: _____

Date of interview: ____/____/____

Day Month Year

Interviewer:

My name is Ngoanabokone Maleswene, a Master of Development degree student at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop Graduate School of Leadership). I am conducting the research as part of the degree requirements. My research topic is “Socio-economic effects of farm evictions: A case study of the Mogale City Local Municipality, Gauteng Province”.

The purpose of the interview is to understand in more detail the socio-economic effects of farm eviction on evicted farm dwellers. The information you provided will be collected, summarized and analyzed in a report and your name will not be identified anywhere in the report. Your assistance in responding to this questionnaire will be greatly appreciated and it will take only 30 minutes to complete it. The participation is voluntarily and you are free to refuse to answer any questions at any time but each question is an important area that would like to get your feedback on.

All the completed information will be kept confidential and will only be used for the purposes of research project.

Signature of the interviewee: _____

Signature of the interviewer: _____

Section 1: Demographic and characteristics of respondents

No	Questions and instructions	Code categories/ answers
Q1-1	Are you a household head?	1: Yes 2: No
Q1-2	What is the sex of respondent?	1: Male 2: Female
Q1-3	What is your highest level of education?	
Q1-4	What is your marital status?	1: Single 2: Married 3: Widowed 4: Divorced 00: Don't know 99: No response
Q1-5	How many members currently live in your house including you?	

Section 2: Employment status

No	Questions and instructions	Code categories/ answers Before eviction	Code categories/ answers After eviction
Q2-1	What is your current employment status?	0: Unemployed 1: Government staff 2: NGOs staff 3: Seller 4: Other _____ 00: Don't know 99: No response	0: Unemployed 1: Government staff 2: NGOs staff 3: Seller 4: Other _____ 00: Don't know 99: No response
Q2-2	Did a member of your household lose a job due to eviction?		1: Yes 2: No 00: Don't know 99: No response
Q2-3	Did a member of your household get a job after eviction?		1: Yes 2: No 00: Don't know 99: No response

Section 3: Adequate housing

No	Questions and instructions	Code categories/ answers Before eviction	Code categories/ answers After eviction
Q3-1	My dwelling was/is satisfactory.	1: Strongly Agree 2: Agree 3: Neither 4: Disagree 5: Strongly Disagree	1: Strongly Agree 2: Agree 3: Neither 4: Disagree 5: Strongly Disagree
Q3-2	What was/is the type of structure you lived/live in?		
Q3-3	What was/is the size of your dwelling? (Number of rooms)		
Q3-4	Who built the dwelling you lived/live in?		

Q3-5	Electricity supply was/is reliable	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree
Q3-6	Energy for cooking was/is satisfactory.	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree
Q3-7	Garbage collection was/is satisfactory.	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree
Q3-8	My personal care was/is satisfactory.	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree
Q3-9	My household was/is well aware of my tenure rights as prescribed in the Extension of Security of Tenure Act (ESTA) during the eviction process.	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree

Section 4: Health status

No	Questions and instructions	Code categories/ answers Before eviction	Code categories/ answers After eviction
Q4-1	My health status was/is not satisfactory.	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree
Q4-2	I have/had access to medical facilities.	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree

Section 5: Food security

No	Questions and instructions	Code categories/ answers Before eviction	Code categories/ answers After eviction
Q5-1	There was/is always enough food to eat daily on average per month etc....)?	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree

Section 6: Income, expenditure and debt per month 1 year before evictions and 1 year after evictions on average

No	Questions and instructions	Code categories/ answers- 1 year before eviction	Code categories/ answers-1 year after eviction
Q6-1	Did/do you have any income?		
Q6-2	What was/is your source of your income?		
Q6-3	How much is/was your household average income (R) per month		

	in total?		
Q6-4	My household monthly income was/is satisfactory eviction.	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree

How much did you expend on below items per month 1 year before evictions and 1 year after evictions on average

No	Item Description /month on average	1 year before Eviction: Amount in (R) Code categories/ answers	1 year after Eviction: Amount in (R) Code categories/ answers
Q6-5	Food?		
Q6-6	Garbage collection?		
Q6-7	Medical care (doctors' fees, other medical services, drugs, hospital charges, other medical supplies etc...)?		
Q6-8	Personal care (soap, toothpaste, razor, sanitary napkins, haircut, manicure, etc...)?		
Q6-9	Clothing and footwear (tailored clothes, ready-made clothes, rain clothes, underwear)?		
Q6-10	Education (school fees, textbooks, private tutoring,		

Debts

No	Questions and instructions	Code categories/ answers: Amount in (R)	Code categories/ answers: Amount in (R)
Q6-11	Did/do you have incurred any debts?		
Q6-12	Which institutions/person did you take loans from?	1: Relatives/Friends 2: Private money lenders 3: Credit program (Bank/MFI) 4: Other _____ 00: Don't know 99: No response	1: Relatives/Friends 2: Private money lenders 3: Credit program (Bank/MFI) 4: Other _____ 00: Don't know 99: No response
Q6-13	Reasons for taking incurring debts?		

Section 7: The nature of eviction

No	Questions and instructions	Code categories/ answers
Q7-1	How long have you lived at the place where you were evicted? (Number of years)	
Q7-2	Who owns the land where you staying now?	
Q7-3	Did you have any written agreement to stay on the farm?	
Q7-4	The relationship with the land owner was good?	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree
Q7-5	Which year where you evicted?	
Q7-6	Which season in the year when you were evicted?	
Q7-7	Were you given notice to vacate the land?	
Q7-8	If yes, how long were you given notice to vacate the place?	Period in months
Q7-9	Did the land owner offer an alternative place to stay?	
Q7-10	Did the farm owner offer any form of compensation for vacating the farm?	
Q7-11	The compensation to vacate the farm was enough to can acquire my own house?	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree
Q7-12	Who else was evicted in your family?	
Q7-13	Where there children who were schooling in your family when evicted?	
Q7-14	If any, what happened to schooling continuity?	
Q7-15	Did you have access to land for farming on the farm?	
Q7-16	If yes, what happened to your farm produce when evicted?	
Q7-17	ESTA is effective	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree
Q7-18	How can ESTA be improved?	
Q7-19	Did you have legal representation for your	

	eviction case?	
Q7-20	Government assistance about farm evictions is effective	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree
Q7-21	Eviction has negative effect on livelihood	1:Strongly Agree 2:Agree 3:Neither 4:Disagree 5:Strongly Disagree
Q7-22	What led to eviction?	
Q7-23	How did the eviction process unfold?	
Q7-24	How did you feel that day when you were told to leave the farm?	

Thank you