

**UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND**



**Assessing the effects of large-scale commercial farming on the livelihoods of farmworkers in King Cetshwayo District Municipality, KwaZulu-Natal Province, South Africa**

**BY**

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## ORIGINALITY DECLARATION

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I acknowledge that I have read and understood the University's policies and rules applicable to postgraduate research, and I certify that I have, to the best of my knowledge and belief, complied with the requirements.

In particular, I confirm that I had obtained an ethical clearance certificate for my research (Certificate Number UZREC 171110-030 PGM 2020/40) and that I have complied with the conditions set out in that certificate.

I further certify that this research thesis is original, and that the material has not been published elsewhere, or submitted, either in whole or in part, for a degree at this or any other university.

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<b>Date</b>	

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this dissertation to my family, especially my mother, who is our family pillar and strength. Thank you for bringing such a wonderful family into my life, especially my brothers and sisters. Mom, your teachings about good conduct and transparency will be never forgotten, they will always be reflected in my conduct.

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## ABBREVIATIONS

<b>ADB:</b>	Asian Development Bank
<b>AGRA:</b>	Alliance for a Green Revolution in Africa
<b>BCEA:</b>	Basic Conditions of Employment Act
<b>BFAP:</b>	Bureau for Food and Agricultural Policy
<b>CAQDAS:</b>	Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software application
<b>COIDA:</b>	Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Act
<b>CSR:</b>	Corporate Social Responsibility
<b>DFID:</b>	Department for International Development
<b>ECC:</b>	Employment Conditions Commission
<b>EKZNW:</b>	Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife
<b>FAO:</b>	Food and Agricultural Organisation
<b>FGD:</b>	Focus Group Discussion
<b>FGIs:</b>	Focus Group Interviews
<b>GAM:</b>	Goal Achievement Matrix
<b>GDP:</b>	Gross Domestic Product
<b>HRW:</b>	Human Rights Watch
<b>IDP:</b>	Integrated Development Plan
<b>ILO:</b>	International Labour Organization
<b>IMF:</b>	International Monetary Fund
<b>IRP:</b>	International Recovery Plan
<b>KCDM:</b>	King Cetshwayo District Municipality
<b>KZN:</b>	KwaZulu-Natal
<b>LED:</b>	Local Economic Development

<b>LRA:</b>	Labour Relations Act of 1995
<b>NEPAD:</b>	New Partnership for Africa's Development
<b>NGO:</b>	Non-Governmental Organisation
<b>OSH:</b>	Occupational Safety and Health
<b>PPE:</b>	Personal Protective Equipment
<b>RDP:</b>	Reconstruction and Development Program
<b>SIZA:</b>	Sustainability Initiative of South Africa
<b>SLF:</b>	Sustainable Livelihood Framework
<b>SMME's:</b>	Small, Medium, and Micro Enterprises
<b>SPSS:</b>	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
<b>UIF:</b>	Unemployment Insurance Fund
<b>UNDP:</b>	United Kingdom, the United Nations Development Program
<b>WSDP:</b>	Water Services Development Plan

## ABSTRACT

In most African countries including South Africa, the role of commercial farming is known especially in its contribution to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and food security. As much as these contributions are known, what is not clear is its contribution to the livelihoods of farmworkers who ensure that commercial farms remain viable and thus produce enough food while also contributing to GDP through exports, among others. Because of these reasons, this study explores the effects of commercial farming on the livelihoods of farmworkers in the three commercial farms, namely, Fowler farm, Hulleys farm, and Farm Secure located in the King Cetshwayo District Municipality, KwaZulu-Natal province. To achieve this, the study set out four objectives which include (a) assessing livelihood assets of farmworkers in the study area, (b) analysing how employment on commercial farms in the study area affects the livelihood contexts in terms of, among others, the nature of social relations, provision of services, and the governance of farmworkers, (c) examining the employment and living conditions of farmworkers on commercial farms, and how they cope with them, and (d) evaluating the extent of the farmworkers' awareness of South African labour laws and rights.

The Sustainable Livelihood Framework was used to provide a theoretical framework for the study. In terms of research methodology, this study adopted pragmatism as a research paradigm. This informed the research design, which is mixed methods research design. Data was collected through the use of surveys, Focus Group Discussions, and one-on-one in-depth interviews. Data analysis followed the mixed nature of this study in which quantitative data was analysed using Microsoft Excel and SPSS while qualitative data was analysed using ATLAS.ti v.8.4 to formulate themes as per the objectives of the study. The study found that the contribution of commercial farming on the livelihoods of farmworkers is directly linked to the livelihood contexts that the farmworkers are exposed to on commercial farms. Farmworkers with farming skills especially men hold high paying jobs on commercial farms and thus attain more livelihood assets. Issues of patriarchy and masculinity are prevalent on commercial farms and mostly affect women farmworkers who are found holding low paying jobs. Living and working conditions of farmworkers in all the three farms are mostly fair, with limited challenges of housing and working environment reported by farmworkers. The study provide evidence that the lives of poor people especially in rural areas are moderately improved by commercial farming. This indicates that commercial farming assists farmworkers to alleviate poverty and provides them with food security which in turn improves their livelihoods.

## **CHAPTER ONE: ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY**

### **1.1 Introduction**

Globally, and especially in developing countries, commercial farming is one of the huge industries contributing significantly to the economic growth and Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of a number of countries (Poulton, et al., 2008; NEPAD, 2013; AGRA, 2018). According to Dercon and Gollin (2013), the contribution of commercial farming is towards economic transformation and maintenance of global food security. The commercial farming industry is also applauded for its ability to create work opportunities for the low-skilled and marginalised groups of poor people, mostly from rural communities. It also employs migrants on either a permanent or seasonal basis (Liebenberg & Kirsten, 2013). According to Kariliki (2011), in sub-Saharan African countries like Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Namibia, Botswana and South Africa, commercial farming is simultaneously a site of both economic production and social reproduction. These developing countries rely on commercial farming as one of their most precious driving engines of economic prosperity (Christiansen, Demery, & Kuhl, 2011). Ramos (2017) states that the vital role of commercial farms in the economic growth and GDP of countries cannot be isolated from the tremendous work effort put in by farmworkers on these commercial farms. Farmworkers act as ground force who maintain the economic transformation seen on commercial farms.

This suggests that they are equally engines of growth who must be applauded when assessing the economic contribution of commercial farming (Devereux, Levendal, & Yde, 2017). In light of this, the study focuses on the impact of large-scale commercial farms on the livelihoods of farmworkers in King Cetshwayo District Municipality in terms of the farmworkers' living and working conditions. The elements of livelihood that the study focuses on as far as large-scale commercial farming is concerned include the livelihood assets which are analysed from social, physical and financial points of view. Livelihood contexts also are analysed in terms of social relations, social and political organisations, governance, and service delivery in large-scale commercial farming. Commercial farming is also analysed as a livelihood strategy for farmworkers, in terms of the livelihood vulnerability (International Recovery Platform, 2010) it poses to commercial farm workers.

### **1.2 Background to the study**

The state of large-scale commercial farming in African countries dates back to the era of colonialism. Colonisation favoured segregation and land dispossession, when indigenous black

African's land was taken away from them by white monopolies (Burnstein, 2013). Land dispossession during the colonial era resulted in the mushrooming of large-scale white-owned commercial farms where black indigenous Africans were forced to provide their labour. In South Africa, the tragedy of colonisation was linked to the apartheid era, when most of the South African black majority were treated with a high degree of injustice, segregation, deprivation, and marginality on large-scale white-owned commercial farms (Lemke & van Rensburg, 2010). These farms were dominated by whites in a system of agrarian dualism, by which the black African majority were forced into Bantustans, where they could practise only subsistence farming. Racially discriminatory laws preceding apartheid, such as the Native Land Act of 1913 and the Native Trust and Land Act of 1936, restricted the majority of the population to 13% of the land in rural areas. The remaining 87% of the land was designated for white South African ownership. This tragedy destroyed the agricultural and land-based livelihood of the majority of South Africans, forcing black farmers into wage labour on white-owned farms (Kheswa, 2015).

The situation resulted in farmworkers and their families lacking rights and legal redress, and facing ongoing poverty as well as income and residential insecurity (Lemke & van Rensburg, 2010). According to Hall et al. (2013), the legacies of colonialism and agrarian dualism in South Africa in this post-apartheid era are still visible in large-scale commercial farms, which are still dominated by white people. The majority of black people even to this day serve as farmworkers and farm dwellers and they experience precarious tenure and poor housing and labour conditions on these farms (Hall et al. 2013). In the light of this background, this study investigates the livelihood of farmworkers in KwaZulu-Natal province, focusing on King Cetshwayo District Municipality.

### **1.3 Statement of the study problem**

In South Africa, a number of scholars (see e.g. Dercon & Gollin, 2013; Hall et al., 2013; Ramos, 2017) have drawn much attention to commercial farming as a driver of economic growth, and its contribution to the GDP and employment creation. Such research shows that, indeed, commercial agriculture plays a vital role in the economic transformation of some countries, and also contribute to the maintenance of food security. Similarly, Hall et al. (2013) studied the dual nature of large-scale commercial agriculture, focusing on its skewed economic contribution. The results of their study showed that as much as commercial agriculture contributes significantly towards economic transformation in a number of countries, there are

inequalities in terms of its benefits. For instance, in South Africa, white people are perceived as the ones benefiting significantly from large-scale commercial agriculture, whereas the black majority, as has been noted above, are employed as farmworkers. This has led Glover and Jones (2016) to conclude that increased attention should be given to the ways in which commercial forms of agriculture might stimulate rural economies and contribute to more rapid aggregate growth. However, there is limited academic attention given to the issues of livelihood of these farmworkers on commercial farms, especially in KwaZulu-Natal. It is this knowledge gap that this study occupies by investigating the impact of commercial farming on the livelihoods of farmworkers.

## **1.4 Study aim and objectives**

### **1.4.1 Study aim**

The aim of the study was to investigate the impact of commercial farming in King Cetshwayo District Municipality on the livelihoods of farmworkers.

### **1.4.2 Study objectives**

In order to achieve the stated aim of this study, the specific objectives are to:

- a. Assess livelihood assets of farmworkers in the study area.
- b. Analyse how employment on commercial farms in the study area affects the livelihood contexts in terms of, among others, the nature of social relations, provision of services, and the management of farmworkers.
- c. Examine the employment and living conditions of farmworkers on commercial farms, and how they cope with them.
- d. Evaluate the extent of the farmworkers' awareness of South African labour laws and rights.

## **1.5 Research questions**

- a. What are the livelihood assets of farmworkers, and how do these assets affect their livelihood on commercial farms?
- b. How does their employment on commercial farms affect the livelihood contexts of farmworkers?
- c. What are the employment and living conditions of farmworkers on commercial farms, and how do they cope with them?

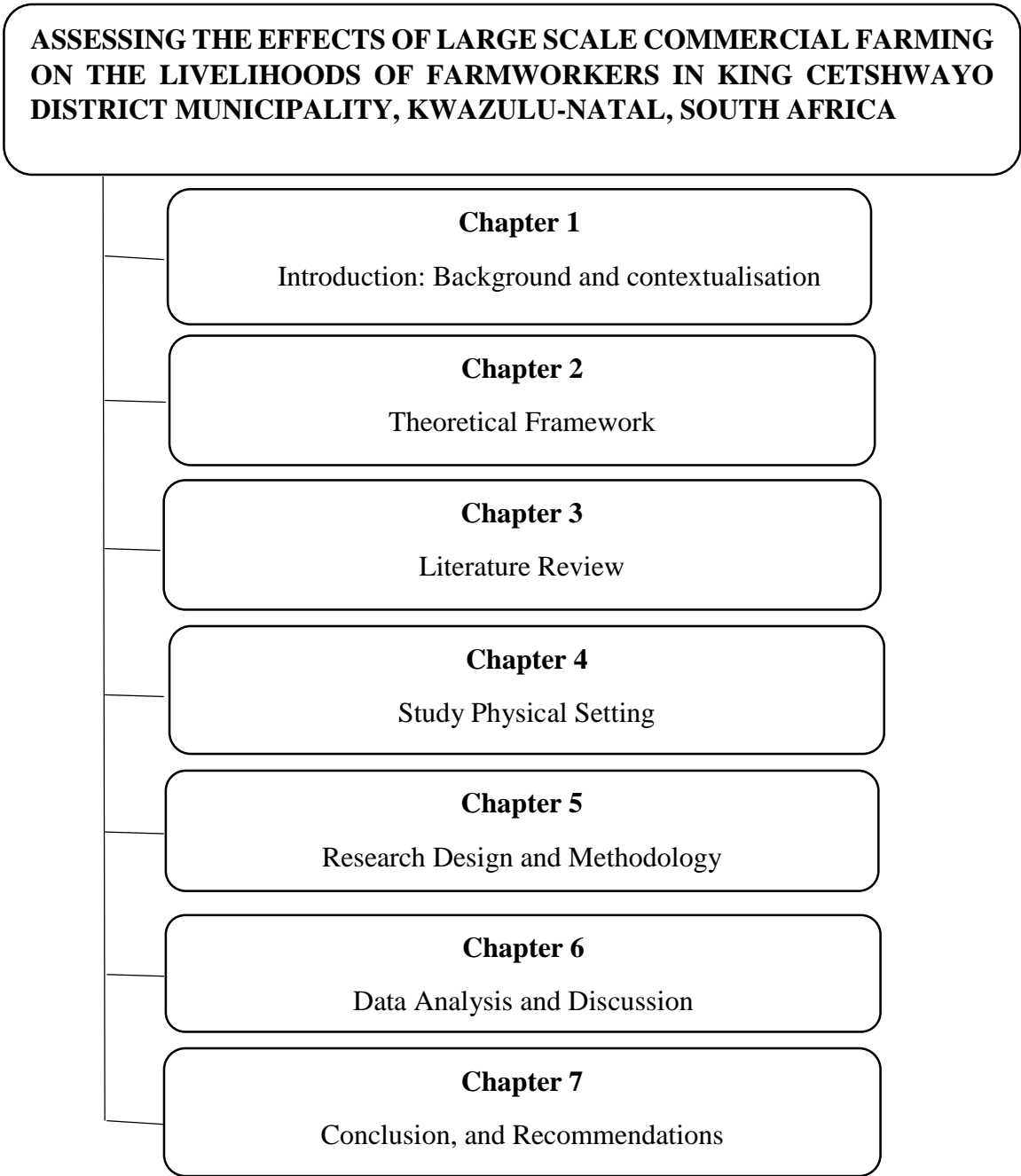
d. To what extent do farmworkers on commercial farms know about South African labour laws and rights?

## **1.6 Significance of the study**

South Africa is a democratic country, whose government is trying by all means to fight against all the injustices that endure from the past apartheid and colonial regimes. Amongst them is the ill-treatment of farmworkers on commercial farms (Hall, Wisborg, Shirhami, & Zamchiya, 2013). This study intends to give insight into the status of farmworkers in the democratic South Africa. It provides the current status on the farmworkers' livelihoods, giving full analysis of whether the injustices still exist or not. This information will assist government, the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries and farmworkers' unions to have complete insight into how farmworkers are living and surviving on commercial farms. This could therefore assist them to come up with decisive measures such as passing laws to address issues that will be discovered in this study with regard to farmworkers.

## **1.7 Structure of the study**

This study is composed of seven chapters. Chapter 1 focuses on the orientation to the study, looking at the background, research problem, aim and objectives. Chapter 2 discusses the theoretical framework which informs the research. Chapter 3 focuses on the review of literature on farm workers' livelihood on commercial farms and Chapter 4 outlines the physical setting of the study. Chapter 5 discusses the research methodology while Chapter 6 analyses and discusses the data. Lastly, Chapter 7 summarizes the research and provides a conclusion and recommendations. Below (Figure 1.1) is the presentation of the logical relationship between the seven chapters that make up the study:



**Figure 1.1. The logical relationship between the seven chapters that make up the study**

(Source: researcher's compilation)

## **1.8 Conclusion**

This chapter has provided the orientation of the entire study in terms of outlining the study's background. This was followed by the study aim together with the objectives that respond to the aim. The chapter also presented the statement of the study problem while the last part of the chapter outlined the structure of the whole research. The next chapter discusses the conceptual and theoretical frameworks.

## **CHAPTER TWO: CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework that guides the study. According to Adom, Hussein, & Agyem (2018) a theoretical framework is the ‘blueprint’ or guide for a research. It is a framework based on an existing theory in a field of inquiry that is related and/or reflects the hypothesis of a study (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). In this study, the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF) or approach has been used to assist in the analysis of the state of livelihoods of farmworkers on selected commercial farms in KwaZulu-Natal. The SLF is a useful analytical tool which can be utilised to understand, analyse and describe the main factors that affect the livelihoods of the poor people (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010). As such, the propositions of the SLF are discussed in light of and to the extent to which they assist in addressing the objectives of this research. This chapter first defines the main concepts which are used in this thesis and the second part focuses on the SLF.

### **2.2 Definition of key concepts**

The main concepts on which this study is based are agriculture/farming, commercial farming, farm workers, livelihoods, and sustainable livelihoods;

#### **2.2.1 Agriculture/farming**

Farming involves the manipulation and/or management of soil, water, and other components of the environment so as to produce crops and/or animals either for family consumption or sale or both (Harris & Fuller, 2014). The former refers to subsistence farming and the latter commercial farming. On this basis, two main types of farming can be identified and these are commercial and subsistence farming. This study, explores commercial farming, in terms of its impacts on the livelihoods of farm workers.

#### **2.2.2 Commercial farming**

Kumari and Singn (2017) asserted that commercial farming is a type of farming in which crops are grown for commercial use only. It is a modernised method of farming that is undertaken on a large scale where large land, labour, and machines are used. Large-scale sugar cane and fruits farms are selected for the purpose of this study.

### **2.2.3 Farm workers**

The term farm workers in this study generally refers to those workers who plant, tend and harvest crops and care for livestock on commercial farms. However, it will also include anyone involved in farming activities on a commercial farm and is being compensated (Dercon & Gollin, 2014).

### **2.2.4 Livelihood**

Zhang et al. (2015) states that livelihood refers to the means of earning a living. In other words, it is the activities undertaken by a family to obtain the basic materials needed to sustain household survival and development. According to Chambers and Conway (1991) a livelihood comprises of the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. In this study, livelihood of farm workers is understood in terms of commercial farms employment.

### **2.2.5 Sustainable livelihood**

Many scholars have put forward the concept of ‘sustainable livelihoods’. “A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base” (Chambers & Conway, 1991). If people can cope with, maintain and improve their ability to provide an opportunity for the survival of the next generation and earn net income for the livelihood of others in both the long and short term, without damaging the natural basis, then the livelihood will be sustainable (Krantz, 2001). Based on this study, a livelihood can be understood to be sustainable if it results in favourable livelihood outcomes for farm workers.

## **2.3 The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework**

The concept of “livelihoods” has become increasingly popular in development thinking as a way of conceptualizing the economic activities poor people undertake in their totalities. The focus of development thinking in the 1970s on employment and “jobs” has given way to the realization that while job creation in the formal sector continues to be one important strategy for poverty reduction, the reality for poor people in the Global South is that survival and prosperity depends on the pursuit of diverse and multiple activities simultaneously. This is done by different family members, taking advantage of different opportunities and resources

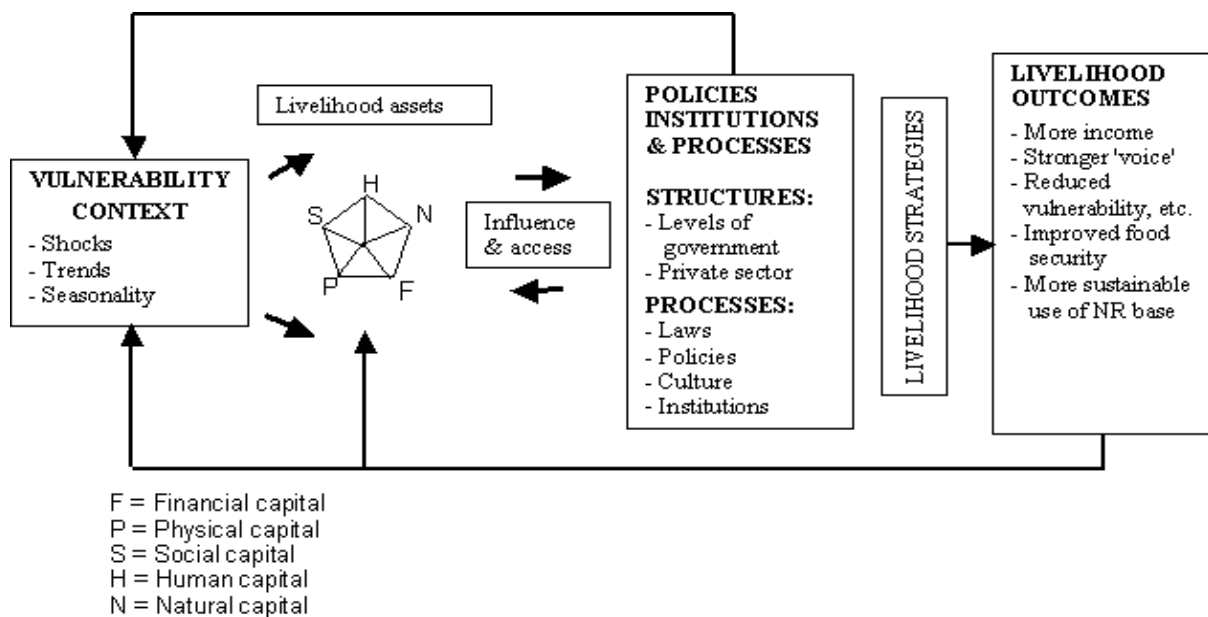
such as those provided by commercial farms. The SLF advocates for development committed to poverty reduction so as to create sustainable livelihoods for the poor (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010). According to Petersen & Pedersen (2010) sustainable livelihood thinking is inspired by the work of Robert Chambers in the 1980s, and has been further developed by Chambers, Conway and others in the 1990s (DFID, 2000).

A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010). Sustainable livelihoods approaches have evolved through three decades of changing perspectives on poverty, how poor people construct their lives, and the importance of structural and institutional issues (Ashley and Carney 1999). The first basic principle of the SLF is that development work has to focus on people, outlining what matters for the poor, how people and their cultures are different, and how this affects the way they understand and appreciate livelihoods. Petersen and Pedersen (2010) argues that the poor themselves have to be key actors in pointing out the important aspects of their own livelihoods. This is because the poor know what matters to them, and outsiders have to listen to their priorities (poor people) instead of assuming that their own values and ideas are as good as, or better. It is also a principle that the role of the donors is to be process facilitators that help the poor to be aware of their priorities and scrutinize their own surroundings for resources (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010). This means that participation and partnership become two very essential factors in development work, and by actively being part of the development work, the poor will be empowered instead of being dependent on outsiders to help them all the time.

The framework also emphasises the principle that there has to be a strong link between macro and micro politics, since these are interdependent. The macro politics are responsible for the main structures and processes in an area and the poor have to adapt to and try to enhance their livelihoods through these (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010). The last basic principle is that development needs to have a long-term focus. This means development of an area should enhance sustainable futures. Figure 2.1 below illustrates the SLF. According to the Asian Development Bank (2017) the vulnerability context outlines the external environment in which poor people live in. These include critical trends, such as technological or population developments. It also includes shocks such as natural disasters or economic inflation and seasonality which refers to the way prices, employment opportunities and production might shift according to seasons. All of these factors will affect the assets that people have and thereby the sustainability of their livelihoods. The SLF is built on the belief that, in order to achieve a

positive livelihood outcome, people need assets. People combine different kinds of assets to help them achieve the livelihoods that they seek (Levine, 2014).

Human capital is one of these assets and refers to the skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health that enable people to achieve the livelihoods they desire (ADB, 2017). Human capital is vital in that it enables the use of other kinds of capitals that exist. Social capital refers to the social resources that people can get in order to achieve their livelihoods. This could be through networking, membership of formalised groups or mere trust between people that make them help each other (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010).



**Figure 2.1: Sustainable Livelihood Model**

Source: DFID (2000, 2)

Natural capital is perceived in a very broad manner, since it covers both the tangible factors, like natural resources such as trees, land etc., and more intangible products such as the atmosphere and biodiversity (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010). Physical capital describes the basic infrastructure and producer goods that are needed to support the livelihoods that people seek. Financial capital is the financial resources at people’s disposal to achieve the livelihoods that they are striving for (Levine, 2014).

The ADB (2017) explains that the transforming structure and process includes the institutions, organisations and policies that frame the livelihoods of the poor, and they are found on all levels from the household to the international level. These processes and structures determine the access that people have to different kinds of assets and therefore their importance cannot

be overemphasised. Examples of processes are international agreements, ownership rights and laws to secure the rights of the individuals, whereas structures might be the existence of ministries, and banks that give credit to the farmers or self-help groups in the local community (Levine, 2014).

Livelihoods strategies are the way that people act in order to achieve their desired livelihood (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010). The access that people have to different kinds of assets affect the strategies that they employ, and the structures and processes in a given society also creates possibilities and constraints on the strategies at their disposal. Finally, livelihood outcomes are the achievements of people's livelihood strategies (ADB, 2017). However, outcomes are to be described by the local people themselves, since these include much more than income. It can be difficult for an outsider to understand what people are seeking and why, as this is often influenced by culture, local norms and values.

#### **2.4 Livelihoods of farm workers through the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework**

The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework is a particular form of livelihoods analysis used by a growing number of research and applied development organizations, including the Department for International Development (DFID) in the United Kingdom, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), as well as nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) such as CARE and Oxfam (DFID 1997; Carney et al. 1999). It is primarily a conceptual framework for analysing causes of poverty, peoples' access to resources and their diverse livelihood activities, and relationship between relevant factors at micro, intermediate, and macro levels. It is also a framework for assessing and prioritizing interventions.

In Southern Africa, most households draw on a diverse portfolio of activities and livelihoods that not only enhance household income, but also food security, health, social networks and savings and that furthermore bridge the rural-urban divide (Mazonde, 2000; Shackleton et al. 2000). These multiple livelihoods are, however, often more of a response to crisis than a coping strategy for stability (Loevinsohn and Gillespie, 2003). Agricultural employment on commercial farms is one of the livelihood strategies that most rural poor people engage in as the source of their livelihoods. However, agricultural employment on commercial farms pose vulnerability issues to some farm workers although it is also used as the assets base by some farmworkers. On the other hand, commercial farms are also institutions governed by particular organisations with policies which indirectly or directly affect farm worker's livelihoods.

In understanding and building the theoretical ground which guides this research, the epistemology of the SLF is employed to understand the effects of large-scale commercial farming on the livelihoods of farmworkers in KwaZulu-Natal. The SLF is widely used in many scholarly researches, especially for issues which focus largely on the rural poor, their vulnerability, and livelihood assets and activities which determine their livelihood outcomes (DFID, 2000). Employment on commercial farms is regarded as a livelihood strategy for farm workers which is directly linked to various livelihood assets in the form of capitals.

This understanding of livelihood assets provides a context for addressing the first objective of the study which is to assess the livelihood assets of farm workers in the study area. This means that, this study will attempt to understand the livelihoods assets of the farm workers by responding to the question; what are the livelihood assets of farmworkers, and how do they affect their livelihood on commercial farms? The SLF also addresses physical capital which this study translates as the farm workers' access to infrastructural facilities such as transportation, roads, shelter, water supply and sanitation, and energy on commercial farms. Social capital, in terms of farm workers relationships with themselves and with their employers, increased trust, ability to work together, and access to opportunities are important concepts of the SLF which help to illuminate the vulnerability or otherwise of poor people such as farm workers. These different types of capital directly translate to the livelihood outcomes of farm workers in terms of income, increased well-being, reduced vulnerability and improved food security. In other words, appreciating the nature of assets and livelihood contexts provided by agricultural employment to farm workers, and their relevancy in sustaining the livelihoods of farm workers, is important to the goal of addressing the first and second objective of the study. Therefore, the SLF assists in this regard.

The SLF also provide a theoretical ground in terms of livelihood contexts which stipulate that livelihoods are formed within social, economic and political contexts. Livelihood strategies and outcomes are not just dependent on access to capital assets or constrained by the vulnerability context, they are also transformed by the environment of structures and processes. Structures are the public and private sector organizations that set and implement policy and legislation, deliver services and purchase, trade, as well as perform all manner of other functions that affect livelihoods. Processes embrace the laws, regulations, policies, operational arrangements, agreements, societal norms, and practices that, in turn, determine the way in which structures operate (ADB, 2017). The macro politics are responsible for the main structures and processes in an area and the poor have to adapt to, and try to enhance their

livelihoods through these (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010). The SLF also asserts that development has to have a long-term focus. This means the development of an area should enhance sustainable futures. This understanding of livelihood contexts construct the foundation for addressing the second, third and fourth objectives of this research, which analyse the employment and living conditions of farmworkers on commercial farms as well as assess the extent to which farmworkers on commercial farms know about South African labour laws and rights, respectively. This means that, commercial farms as institutions are governed by farm owners with policies which sometimes generate vulnerability and injustices to farm workers and thus affect their livelihood outcomes. This is because, like all commercial enterprises, the policies may be more profit driven, than people-centred.

In all this, the focus is on understanding the nature of the relationships amongst farm workers and with their employers and how these relationships affect their livelihoods. In addition, the issues of unionisation (or lack of it) and the provision of social services also will help in understanding the position and status of farm workers in light of especially objectives three and four. This is pertinent because in some cases, farm owners and farm workers get into conflict with each other, leading to farm murders and strikes which directly affect the livelihoods of farm workers since some get their employment terminated. .

The vulnerability context is another pillar of the SLF, which refers to the external environment around which people exist, including critical trends as well as shocks and seasonality over which people have no control (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010). This affects people's livelihood outcomes. This understanding provides a foundational ground for addressing the third and fourth objectives of this research. These objectives analyse how employment on commercial farms in the study area affects the livelihood contexts in terms of, among others, the nature of social relations, provision of services, and the governance of farmworkers and also examine the employment and living conditions of farmworkers on commercial farms, and how they cope with them, respectively. Employment on commercial farms results in shocks among farm workers, such as illnesses due to exposure to unfavourable working conditions and pesticides, diseases, and conflicts which in turn, affect the livelihood outcomes of farm workers. Shocks in terms of illnesses also affect human capital of farm workers in terms of their capacity to work. As a result, given the known principle of 'no work, no pay' in most commercial farms, the financial capital of those farm workers is negatively affected which will lead to less favourable livelihood outcomes. Employment on commercial farms is sometimes seasonal and

those farm workers employed on seasonal basis with no permanent contract will find themselves vulnerable to farm owner's abuse and violation of their rights.

The principles of the SLF as outlined by the DFID (2000) is that this framework is people-centred. This principle is used as a guide in this study in the exploration of the impact of economic activities such as plantation agriculture on ordinary people like farm workers. In other words, the focus is more on the people, than profits and agricultural production of commercial farms. In this way, issues such as vulnerability, exploitation, and marginalisation of farmworkers on commercial farms, come to the fore. Since large-scale commercial farming employs mostly the poor and rural population, the SLF will assist in responding to poor farmworkers' views and their own understanding of poverty (Zhang et al., 2015). This provides a context for addressing the second and third objectives of this study.

As a result, this study attempts to understand the extent of vulnerability and/or abuse of farm workers. Further, the last objective of the study, which aims at evaluating the extent of the farmworkers' awareness of South African labour laws and rights, will also be investigated on the basis of livelihood assets in the SLF, especially in using the human capital approach in terms of farmworkers' education and knowledge (DFID, 2000). This is informed by the fact that human capital, specifically knowledge, can drive farm workers' awareness of the labour laws and their rights which will limit their abuse and violation by farm owners. This will in turn promote a safe and just environment for farm workers, which is something positive to sustain their livelihoods. The SLF emphasises the need to analyse the many factors that affect livelihood, attempts to distinguish the main factors affecting livelihood and the interactions between them, and plays an important role in understanding livelihood, especially the kinds of livelihood chosen by the poor (Zhang et al., 2015).

The SLF has been generally criticised for its diagram which suggests a snapshot approach instead of being seen as dynamic. Although livelihood strategies, vulnerability factors, asset portfolios, and policies, institutions, and processes are often in a state of flux (Adato and Meinzen-Dick, 2002), it still remains relevant as an analytical framework. This relevance in this research has been illustrated in the preceding sections of this chapter.

## **2.4 Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed the conceptual and theoretical frameworks of this study. This was achieved through first defining the main concepts on which this research is based and these are; agriculture/farming, commercial farming, farm workers, livelihood, and sustainable livelihood. This was then followed by an analysis of how the SLF provided a theoretical framework for the study. The next chapter engages with a critical review of the literature around the topic under discussion.

## **CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter reviews the literature on the global history and background of commercial farming and its impact on the livelihoods of farm workers. The chapter also explores the concept of livelihood and explains its components in greater depth, unpacking livelihood contexts and assets. The status of farm workers on commercial farms is also scrutinized in this chapter. The state of migrant farm workers on commercial farms, in terms of living and working conditions, together with labour laws and rights of farm workers are also analysed in this chapter.

### **3.2 Overview of the status of farmworkers on commercial farms**

Globally, commercial farming is one of the sectors which are significant and vital when it comes to contributing to the economies of both developed and developing countries. The contribution of commercial farming sector at a global scale, include the significant role it plays towards the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and food security. According to Agarwal (2015), commercial farming continues to be the main source of income, employment and livelihood for many, in a number of countries especially in Asia and Africa. Globally, about 60% of workers (both men and women) are employed in the agricultural sector. This sector also contributes to food supply which plays an important role in fighting against food insecurity particularly in African countries where a number of people are living in poverty. World Bank (2018) asserts that agriculture accounts for an estimated 9.5% of GDP for all developing countries, 26.0% for the least developed, 17.6% in South Asia and 17.4% in sub-Saharan Africa, compared with only 1.1% in the United States. Commercial farming also continues to employ a number of people as farm workers, especially the poor and marginalised people. The UN Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO, 2018) highlighted that most people in sub-Saharan Africa (61.4%) live in rural areas, and most Africans (57.3%) work in the agricultural sector. These statistics suggest that agriculture remains the primary source of livelihood for the majority of households in sub-Saharan Africa.

The World Bank (2018) announced that as much as commercial farming is applauded for its contribution to GDP and employment creation, there are global concerns around its practical contribution to the farm workers who are working tirelessly on the farms. The World Bank (2018) outlined that in Georgia, United States of America, the sector has contributed less to the well-being of farm workers. They continue to earn low salaries, work in unpleasant environment, and live in conditions that are not up to standard. Farm workers are still subjected

to various farm abuses and exploitation, such as abuse of their rights, evictions and deteriorating health due to exposure to pesticides (Bail et al., 2012). This points to a global concern about commercial farming and the manner in which it negatively affects farm workers.

In the sub-Saharan Africa, commercial farming is said to be one of the industries which contribute enormously to the growth of the economies in terms of their GDPs, food security and jobs for the poor and marginalised people who are largely found in rural areas, International Monetary Fund (IMF, 2018). However, this is not different from other regions of the world. According to the IMF (2018) the vital contribution of the agricultural sector to GDP also underlines the limited diversification of most African economies to other sectors. On average, agriculture contributes 15% of total GDP, but it ranges from below 3% in Botswana and South Africa to more than 50% in Chad, implying a diverse range of economic structures (IMF, 2018).

In Africa, the situation of farm workers in the commercial farming sector is said to be characterised by a high rate of injustices and deprivation. Despite being the engines of growth, farm workers on commercial farms are said to suffer severely in terms of marginality and powerlessness where farm owners violate their rights and treat them in inhumanely (Devereux, Hall, and Solomon, 2019). Farm workers are said to work long hours on agricultural fields under very harsh conditions and some farm workers have been reported to suffer from food insecurity due to low wages earned on these commercial farms (Devereux, Hall, and Solomon, 2019). In many of the African countries, women comprise at least half of the labour force (FAO, 2016). Meanwhile, commercial agriculture employs more than half of the total labour force in Sub-Saharan Africa, and within the rural population, provides a livelihood for multitudes of farm workers.

In South Africa, it appears as if the conditions of farm workers are substandard, this is because they suffer greatly from the burden of marginality and vulnerability in these commercial farms. They continue to work under unfavourable working and living and conditions, exposed to pesticides and other violations of their human rights as provided by the South African Constitution (Stanwix, 2013). Farm workers in South Africa are also the lowest wage earners when compared to other primary sector workers. These injustices to South African farm workers are happening despite the significant contribution of the farm workers in sustaining the role of the commercial farming sector in the GDP and overall growth of the country. It is important to provide a historical account in order to put into perspective the conditions of farm workers in South Africa. A good starting point for this is the Native Land Act (Act 27) of 1913

which was implemented against black majority who owned the highest percentage of the land. This Act stipulated the allocation of about 7 % of fertile land to black South Africans and set apart the more fertile land for white ownership at about 80%. This resulted in whites owning large hectares of arable land which they utilised for commercial farming (Sandrey et al., 2011). This Act was motivated by the colonial and apartheid regimes in order to implement land dispossession, segregation and discrimination.

Another Act on land ownership which accelerated the marginality of blacks over whites is the Native Trust and Land Act (Act 18) of 1936. The Act started by increasing the total percentage of land which was allocated for blacks in the Native Land Act of 1913 from 7% to 13.6% which was still not enough considering that blacks are in the majority in South Africa and whites are minority, but they were allocated the highest percentage (Sandrey et al., 2011). The Native Trust and Land Act made it illegal for black people to occupy certain land unless they provide evidence or proof that they were employees or dependents of the employee. This Act further perpetuated land injustice against blacks leaving them with limited choices than to seek employment on dominated white owned farms. This then made black people vulnerable to exploitation concerning their rights on commercial farms as well as abusive treatment by the farm owners.

The Native (Urban Areas) Act (No: 21) of 1923 was another Act which was passed to control the influx of black Africans inside urban areas since urban areas were designated for only white occupation. Under this Act, black Africans were only allowed in urban areas on condition that they were employed by white people (Visser and Ferrer, 2015). The above mentioned Acts promoted land dispossession, marginality, and vulnerability against the black majority. According to van der Zee (2017), there were other laws and institutions formulated by the apartheid government that supported and protected the agricultural industry, specifically white farmers who owned the vast highly productive and fertile agricultural land. Van der Zee (2017) points out that the Land Bank of South Africa and the Agricultural Credit Board simultaneously made provision for credits and financial services for farmers within the industry, particularly for white farmers. Visser and Ferrer (2015) state that a network of primary producer cooperatives, formed under the Cooperative Society Act, negotiated relatively cheap inputs and services such as storage and transport for the industry. Control Boards regulated the movement, price setting, monitoring, quality standards and trade of agricultural products, given the statutory powers conferred on them by the Marketing Act.

Visser and Ferrer (2015) note that these boards also played a vital role in the export of all agricultural produce, particularly by maintaining high export prices. Sandrey et al. (2011) notes that by the 1970s the commercial farming sector had high levels of state support and protection, and was highly racially segregated, with white farm owners benefiting the most from the industry while the black majority expected to be farm workers on those white dominated commercial farms. With reference to farm workers in South Africa, they have been characterised as a neglected segment in society. They are an almost powerless and an invisible group, with a lack of a public profile (Atkinson (2007). This burden was carried by South African farm workers until the new dawn of democracy introduced in 1994.

After 1994, the government engaged in the Land Reform Programme which was introduced to provide a redress to the land injustices of the past against the black majority (Greyling, Vink, and Mabaya, 2015). Land reform policy in South Africa consists of land restitution, land tenure reform, and land redistribution programs. Briefly, land restitution deals with historical land rights of people who were forcibly removed by the state, with the objective to serve justice by either returning the land itself or providing a cash equivalent (Binswanger-Mkhize, 2014). Tenure reform outlines the land policy, administration, and legislation to improve the tenure security of all South Africans and to accommodate diverse forms of land tenure, including types of communal tenure. Redistribution focuses on the transformation of existing, racially biased land ownership patterns (Binswanger-Mkhize, 2014). Its scope includes the urban and rural poor, labour tenants, farm workers, as well as new entrants in agriculture. In 1999, the State set a formal target for the land reform program to transfer 30% of land that had been owned by white commercial farmers in 1994, which amounts to some 25 million hectares (Binswanger-Mkhize, 2014).

But, the status of farm workers appears not to have improved (Karaan and Vink, 2014). The situation in the post-apartheid South Africa still forces black people to seek employment on white dominated commercial farms since whites still own large pieces of land despite the existence of agricultural policies such as land reform to address the injustices in the land issue. Black South Africans up to this time own less percentages of land when compared to whites. A majority of blacks in South Africa are still employed as farm workers on large-scale white dominated commercial farms, especially people from rural areas who are still living in abject poverty. Devereux, Hall, & Solomon (2019) asserts that in South Africa, farm workers continue to be the one of the most vulnerable groups, despite being directly engaged in producing food. These authors further outline that farm workers continue to be evicted from commercial farms

and exposed to unpleasant living and working conditions. A 2019 study by the Institute of Development Studies in the UK and the University of Western Cape's Institute for Social Development and the Centre for Excellence in Food Security found that at least 80% of farm workers in the Northern Cape Province face seasonal hunger during April to August (Devereux, Hall, Solomon, 2019). This indicates the unsustainability of farm workers' livelihood on commercial farms, their continued marginalisation, and socio-economic deprivation. It is against this background of commercial farming and farm workers' status that this study explores the extent to which commercial farming impact the livelihood of farm workers in King Cetshwayo District, Kwa-Zulu Natal, South Africa.

### **3.3 Livelihood assets and contexts**

According to Gaillard, Maceda, Stasiak, Iwan Le Berre and Espaldon (2009), the concept of livelihood was formulated in the 1980s as an alternative to the technocratic concept of "employment" to describe better how people struggle to make a living (Scoones, 2009). Drawing on Chambers & Conway (1992) a livelihood comprises of the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with, and recover from stresses and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base.

According to the International Recovery Plan (IRP) (2010), livelihoods are also linked to three most important concepts, which include livelihood assets, livelihood contexts, and livelihood strategies. IRP (2010) asserts that livelihood assets may be tangible, such as a food store, livestock, tools, and other resources. They may be also intangible, such as claims one can make for food, work, and access to materials, information, education, health services as well as employment opportunities. These assets can be grouped according to various kinds of capital in order to make more sense of them, including human capital, natural capital, physical capital, and financial capital (IRP, 2010) (see Table 3.1 below)

**Table 3.1: Livelihood assets**

Human capital	Skills, knowledge, health and ability to work.
Social capital	Social resources, including informal networks, membership of formalised groups and relationships of trust that facilitate cooperation and economic opportunities.
Natural capital	Natural resources such as land, soil, water, forests and fisheries.
Financial capital	Financial resources including savings, credit, and income from employment, trade and remittances.
Physical capital	Basic infrastructure, such as roads, water and sanitation, schools, ICT; and producer goods, including tools, livestock and equipment.

**Source:** IRP (2010; 2)

These capital assets are the key in terms of peoples' livelihood because they determine whether a person will have a better or worse livelihood. For better livelihoods these forms of capitals must be all utilised not just one of them (IRP, 2010). In the context of this study, this review raises questions around the livelihood assets, for farm workers in relationship to their employment on commercial farms. For example, human capital in this study looks at the skills and knowledge of farm workers with regard to farming, together with their ability to work. This directly translates to financial capital in terms of wages that they will earn as per their employment. Infrastructural provision on commercial farms is understood through physical capital which gives the overall living and working conditions for farm workers in the study area. This literature review provides a context for the study to address the first objective which assess the livelihood assets of farm workers in the study area.

The IRP (2010) explains further that livelihoods are formed within social, economic, environmental and political contexts. Institutions, processes and policies, such as markets, social norms, and land ownership policies affect the ability to access and use assets for a favourable outcome. The changes in these contexts create livelihood obstacles or opportunities. Livelihood contexts include social relations, social and political organisation, governance, and service delivery (IRP, 2010) (see Table 3.2 below).

**Table 3.2: Livelihood contexts**

Social relations	The way in which gender, ethnicity, culture, history, religion and kinship affect the livelihoods of different groups within a community.
Social and political organisation	Decision-making processes, civic bodies, social rules and norms, democracy, leadership, power and authority, rent-seeking behaviour.
Governance	The form and quality of government systems, including structure, power, efficiency and effectiveness, rights and representation.
Service delivery	The effectiveness and responsiveness of state and private sector agencies engaged in delivery of services such as education, health, water and sanitation.

**Source:** IRP (2010; 2)

The above illustrated livelihood contexts are very important when it comes to peoples' livelihood, because they determine whether a person could have a favourable or unfavourable livelihood. The role of livelihood contexts is to test the circumstances and situations that a person's livelihood is created upon (IRP, 2010). For example, in terms of social relations, this pillar of livelihood context assesses whether one's gender affects the manner in which a person can create their livelihood, how employers respond to and treat their workers, and how workers regard each other. Likewise, the question of how one's gender determine and their position in the work place and the relationship with co-workers, is the context of social relations on a person's livelihood. The availability of resources, income-generating opportunities, and demand for certain products and services may fluctuate seasonally. IRP (2010) asserts that predictable trends in politics, governance, technology use, economics, and availability of resources can pose serious obstacles to the future of many livelihoods. These changes affect the availability of assets and the opportunity to transform those assets into a living. In such conditions people must either adopt existing strategies, or develop new ones (IRP, 2010).

In the context of commercial farming according to Karamata (2006), farm work is characterised by a sexual division of labour, as men were employed to carry out work like cattle herding, and fencing. In terms of livelihood contexts, this indicates the pillar of social relations and governance. Akter et al. (2017) state that, globally, about 43% of workers who engage in agricultural activities are women, and across Asian and African countries, about half of all

agricultural workers are women (Agarwal, 2015). Women perform a wide range of activities, including the majority of weed control and harvesting (FAO, 2016). They also do transplanting, cleaning of grain, processing, sowing, clearing of fields, and much more. In Benin and Mali, for example, women are heavily involved in land clearing, tillage, harvesting, threshing, and the marketing of staple food crops (Adetonah et al., 2015). There are also a number of stereotypes among commercial farmers regarding the suitability of specific ethnic groups for farmworkers (Prince, 2004).

Since there is different work for men and women, there are also differences in their living and working conditions, as well as in their wages (Drucza & Peverl, 2018). On commercial farms living and working conditions mostly favour men over women. Women are under-rated, and their contribution is neglected. According to Eisenstein (1979), the issues of capitalism and patriarchal relations are relevant categories in various social structures. The status of women farmworkers is also reflected in the income disparities between men and women farmworkers (Barreto 1980). Women earn less than men on a weekly basis, and more often than not, women work fewer weeks per year. Men dominate the high-paying jobs, which include irrigation, tractor-driving, spade work, operating heavy machinery, and supervision. Other farmworkers who are also ill-treated on commercial farms are migrants.

This review exposes the livelihood context which favour men or women based on gender on commercial farms. This background on the livelihood contexts in this study provide the context for addressing the first and second objective in which the livelihood context of farm workers are analysed to gain insight into their impact on the livelihood of farm workers in the study area. Social relations with regard to gender of farm workers and the relationship they have with farm owners as well as with each other can influence the manner in which they earn their livelihoods.

### **3.4 Farm workers living and working conditions**

The commercial farming sector has, and continues to impose intolerable and harsh living and working conditions for farm labourers globally. Increased violation and abuse of farm workers, inhuman living environment characterised by shelters that are not safe for the lives and health of farm workers are still reported on a number of commercial farms worldwide (Botes, van der Westhuizen, Alpaslan, 2014). Farm workers globally still suffer from marginalisation and deprivation which result in their being vulnerable to exploitation and violation of their rights by farm owners. In Sub-Saharan Africa, rural dwellers find themselves victims of these

injustices that take place on commercial farms because most of them are poor, and live in abject poverty. Consequently, they find refuge in commercial farm jobs in a desperate bid to improve their livelihoods (Botes, van der Westhuizen, Alpaslan, 2014).

Despite the democratization of the country, and the adoption of a Bill of Rights in South Africa's Constitution, conditions on many South African farms have not improved. About one third of people employed in farms in South Africa have little or no schooling, (London, 2015). Housing conditions vary widely, being poorest on smaller commercial farms. Moreover, labour conditions on South African farms are among the poorest of all employment sectors. London (2015) notes that, until recently, farm work was effectively unregulated, dominated by a culture of paternalism, and not always free of violent coercion. Assaults of workers by farmers continue, as does interpersonal violence between farm workers at levels that place a huge burden on South Africa's already overstretched rural health care system.

According to London (2014) despite the extension of legislation to the agricultural setting covering rights to collective bargaining, basic conditions of employment, social security benefits, and workplace health and safety, the implementation of such measures remains bedevilled by a of myriad factors. These include an understaffed and under-resourced inspectorate, fragmentation between government departments responsible for surveillance and enforcement, a culture of non-regulation entrenched over decades among employers, the legacy of state-sanctioned racial discrimination, and the weakness of trade union and NGO organizations in rural areas. Rights that exist on paper for farm workers are yet to result in practical changes in the lives of farm workers in the absence of effective worker organization or strong civil society institutions.

Atkinson (2007) asserts that the current social and economic problems faced by South African farm workers stem from a long history of, among other factors, colonialism, segregation, apartheid and, more recently, post-apartheid perceptions and marginalisation by political and economic power bases. The plight of farm workers is embedded in the way this section of the South African population developed from the "master to servant" system. This involved a process that moved through the extension of labour laws to farm workers, the establishment of a minimum wage, the provision of services in rural areas to the vocational direction of farming that evolved in recent times (Kleynhans, 2007).

According to Prince (2004), various media and scholarly sources indicate that agricultural workers are worse off than those in other sectors of the economy. A number of farmworkers

experience hugely unpleasant conditions at work, which include poor housing, low wages, difficult (if any) access to education, and dire health issues. Prince (2004) explains that in terms of social circumstances, farmworkers and their families are highly dependent on farmers for employment, accommodation, and transport. Farmworkers and their families also find it very difficult to access social services. This shows a great deal of marginalisation, which puts farmworkers in particularly vulnerable positions and exposes them to human rights abuse.

Prince (2004) observes that the tenure and eviction of farmworkers are still issues on commercial farms. Most farmworkers and their dependents end up at risk, and they often have nowhere else to go if they lose their employment, and thus become evictees. In a number of cases, Prince (2004) states, evictions are carried out not by the direct use of the law or the application of force, but through conditions that are created which will force farmworkers to leave farms voluntarily. These conditions include the withdrawal of water and other services, or basic hygiene and other health-related needs. Evictions of farmworkers are also enforced by the contract they sign, which stipulates that when their labour is terminated, their right to housing also gets terminated (Prince, 2004).

Another issue that affects the status of farmworkers on commercial farms is their access to government services (Prince, 2004). Many workers living in agricultural communities do not have adequate access to basic primary health care facilities. This severely affects those who live with their children on farms, because these children need to be immunised and have regular check-ups during their developmental years, and this is often lacking for children in farming communities. Prince (2004) states that a number of farmworkers indicated that they were unwilling to take a half-day off to attend to health concerns as they would lose much-needed wages. There are also reports of farmworkers being denied access to health care by farmers, and in some cases emergency health care services are up to 25kms away. According to Prince (2004), farmworkers and their children also face severe hardships in terms of accessing health care services, and they are often denied access to other government services. They are often not informed of services which are available, and which would benefit them. Some farmworkers are denied the right to access social services like social security, or have access to social workers. They are also denied access to the justice system. In addition to these difficulties, the greatest problem becomes the lack of access to general information on issues pertaining to their lives.

Farm workers experience tremendously high prevalence of both communicable and non-communicable disease. For example, TB incidence rates in rural Western Cape farming areas exceed 1,000 per 100,000 of the population, rates which even for South Africa are two to three times higher than urban rates (London, 2015). Exposure to occupational health hazards, such as pesticides, organic dusts, and ergonomic and mechanical hazards, have been reported in a number of commercial farms in South Africa. As is the case for agriculture generally, rates of injury reported among South African farm workers are higher than those in most other occupational sectors and this is compounded by the lack of comprehensive workers' compensation (London, 2015). As a result of significant use of child labour in agriculture, work-related injuries to children as young as 11 years old and pesticide poisonings from occupational exposure of children continue to cause untold suffering for farm families and pose a challenge to the realization of children's rights as contained in the South African Constitution. Unlike traditional occupational categories, farm work is typically associated with shared risks for family members. For example, many pesticide poisonings occur in farm workers' homes as a result of domestic use of farm pesticides (London, 2015). Indeed, pesticide exposure is a significant hazard for South African farm workers, particularly in the fruit industry, with South Africa representing the largest market in sub-Saharan Africa.

Migrant farm workers are not left out in the issues of harsh and inhuman living and working conditions on commercial farms. In 2019, 272 million people were living outside their country of origin, comprising 18.5% of the world's population, according to the United Nations. The International Labour Organization (ILO) estimates that approximately half of these are migrant workers, those who have left their countries of origin in search of jobs in other, often more developed countries. These individuals represent nearly 4% of the total global population aged between 15 and 48 years. However, if one also includes internal migration, the total global migrant population approaches 1 billion. The largest driver of this total is economic disparities, and the search for work. International migration is an important part of global social and economic development. Migrant labourers contribute to the economies of their home countries through sending remittances, and in developing new skills that have a potential of being used on their return. In addition, migrants provide the needed labour and skills to the host countries (Sally, Moyce, & Schenker, 2018).

According to Darcin, Darcin, Alkan and Dogrul (2018), migrant farmworkers are characterised by adverse life, transport and working conditions globally. They are also known as a group experiencing all the dimensions of social exclusion, and exposed to the worst conditions of

working life. They live in poor conditions such as unhealthy shelters, with waste that accumulates into the living space; lack of clean drinking water, unhygienic toilets; and other problems. These include, malnutrition; accidents and injuries; snake bites; scorpion and other insect stings; health issues such as sunburn; reproductive health problems; risks caused by poor working conditions (long working hours, work in extreme heat and cold, exposure to agricultural chemicals, dust-soil, lack of work safety, etc.); and social insecurity (inability to afford to educate their children), inability to reach social services; illnesses and early deaths owing to the inaccessibility of services that affect their chances of having a decent life (Darcin et al., 2018).

Migrant farmworkers, as compared to local farmworkers, are the most disadvantaged groups of any society, and are emerging as special risk groups in terms of accident, injury, illness and premature death (Darcin et al., 2018). Landowners or landholders, who are unable to meet their targets with the current labour force due to time and, being under pressure, will prefer seasonal migrant workers. This is because they offer cheap labour, thereby reducing costs. Very low wages for long and vague working hours are another big problem added to health and safety problems of migrant workers.

According to the study by Darcin et al. (2018), every year in Turkey, dozens of seasonal agricultural workers pay the price of living and working in primitive conditions with their lives. Workers who are transported illegally in vans, trucks, or on tractor trailers with cargo, are forced to bear these inhumane conditions for economic gain. Inadequate housing and nutritional problems put migrant seasonal workers at major health risk. The study reveals that families stay in squalid conditions in agricultural areas for three to eight months (Darcin et al., 2018). In some cases, they do not return to their homes. They remain in tents built in unhealthy and insecure places in the fields outside the city centres. They wait for the next business season, meanwhile being exposed to environmental threats (Darcin et al., 2018).

As the findings of Darcin et al. (2018) study show, workers' shelter and working conditions are a serious threat to their health. Migrant farmworkers also struggle under poor working conditions. Developing countries, where only 20% of agricultural chemicals are used, are responsible for almost all of the pesticide poisoning because of the uncontrolled and widespread use of hazardous pesticides. This is a serious threat to migrant seasonal agricultural workers together with local farm workers and their families, especially children, who are likely to come into direct contact with these chemical substances (Darcin et al., 2018). According to

Caffaro et al. (2018), agriculture is one of the most hazardous of industries, and migrant workers are exposed to higher safety risks than local workers because they often work longer hours in poor safety conditions. This therefore makes them more vulnerable, and exposed to a higher rate of work-related illnesses, injuries and fatalities compared with natives. Caffaro et al. (2018) state that one of the major risks that increase migrant farmworkers' vulnerability lies in language and cultural barriers. In most cases, limited knowledge of local language and low levels of literacy make it more difficult for migrant farmworkers to understand or even report on their Occupational Safety and Health (OSH) rules, which in turn affects their health care. Mans et al. (2013) point out that in the United States, fatal and non-fatal injury, including disorders of multiple organ systems, have been ranked high among migrant agricultural workers.

This literature reveals a situation where both local and migrant farm workers on commercial farms live from hand to mouth with regard to their working and living conditions on commercial farms. It is clear from the review that marginality, vulnerability, and violation of farm workers' rights still exist in terms of poor housing, clean water and sanitation and also exposure to harsh working conditions. Among the poorest groups in the nation, farmworkers are challenged by low wages, exploitation and discrimination that hinder their ability to access affordable quality housing. The adverse conditions faced by farmworkers are further exacerbated by a plethora of legal, cultural, and geographic circumstances that often keep this population in the shadows and contribute to their economic marginalization. This review provides the context for addressing the third objective of the study which focuses on assessing the working and living conditions of farm workers in the study area.

### **3.5 Farm workers' labour Rights and Laws**

According to Devereux (2019) commercial farm workers in South Africa endured centuries of exploitation and abuse until the 1990s, when progressive legislation was promulgated that confers rights to workers aimed at improving their living and working conditions, including a sector-specific statutory minimum wage. However, widespread violations of labour rights are ongoing in the agriculture sector, and farm workers are arguably more vulnerable than before as they face ongoing evictions, casualization and exploitation. Devereux (2019) further points out that apart from farmers themselves, government is responsible for failing to enforce compliance with pro-worker legislation, while trade unions have failed to represent farm workers and hold farmers and government to account.

The former president of the Republic of South Africa, Nelson Mandela, speaking at a rally of the African National Congress, in Pietersburg, on 25 March 1990 stated that;

“We condemn the lack of legal protection for farm workers and the gross exploitation which exists on many farms. We demand that farm workers be allowed full trade union rights. We speak directly to the magistrates in the courts in all the rural areas. Today, we are drawing your attention to the terrible miscarriages of justice which have gone on for decades” (Davies, 1990; 16).

These were his (Nelson Mandela) words based on the recognition of the impact of apartheid state on farm workers in commercial farms, where the rights of farm workers were neglected and disregarded by farmers on commercial farms. Farm workers were poorly treated, abused and brutally attacked on commercial farms. Employers in the agricultural sector are now required to issue written contracts to all farmworkers, pay an annually adjusted minimum wage, provide protective clothing to workers who are exposed to pesticides, allow workers to join trade unions and allow labour inspectors to monitor working conditions on farms.

Ironically, through a combination of ‘the law of unintended consequences’ and a failure to effectively enforce these laws and regulations, farm workers have arguably been left more vulnerable than before. Moreover, recent policy changes have served the interests of commercial farmers rather than farm workers (Devereux, Levendal & Yde, 2017). For example, farmers can (and do) apply for exemption from paying the legislated minimum wages, and the recently introduced national minimum wage (as of January 2019) is set at a higher rate than the Sectoral Determination wage for farm workers. Some analysts argue that the new labour legislation, by imposing higher monetary and non-monetary costs on farmers, actually accelerated trends in farmworker evictions, casualization and labour-substituting mechanisation (Sparrow et al. 2008; BFAP 2012). This therefore, has resulted in some farm workers to be left jobless. The following are some of the laws which have been implemented to address the injustices faced by farm workers on commercial farms.

### **3.5.1 Sectoral Determination 13 for Farm Workers of 2006**

A sectoral determination is legislation that controls terms and conditions of employment in a particular sector, as well as determines the sector’s minimum wages. A sectoral determination can also set minimum standards of housing conditions on an employer’s premises. Sectoral determination is implemented in sectors where there is no collective bargaining, such as farm and domestic work (Devereux, Levendal & Yde, 2017). The 2006 Determination sets out the

labour rights of farm workers, and also establishes clear codes for the living and working conditions of farm workers. According to Devereux, Levendal & Yde (2017) the determination provides a legal guideline for the calculation of wages or remuneration, the right of the worker to information concerning their wages, identifies permissible deductions from the worker’s wages. The law also provides for the right of the worker to obtain written particulars of employment from the employer, the number of hours the worker is legally required to work, what constitutes overtime work, the right to rest periods and meal intervals, the right of the worker to appropriate health protection and sick leave, the right of the worker to maternity and family responsibility leave, the right to annual leave, the prohibition of child and forced labour, the rights of temporary workers and the rights of the worker in the event of termination of employment.

### 3.5.2 Minimum wage in South African agriculture

According to van der Zee (2017), in South Africa minimum wages are enforced in sectors where workers are particularly vulnerable to exploitation, and where there are low levels of unionisation, worker protection and representation are limited. Minimum wages attempt to regulate the labour conditions in these environments by setting a legal wage floor, and by stipulating various minimum conditions of employment, with the clear intention of bringing wages up to at least some reasonable predetermined “living wage”, and improving working conditions. The minimum wage paid to farmworkers increased by 10.7% in 2019, and increased to 11.1% in 2020. The overall increase is 23% over the two years from 28 February 2018 to 1 May 2020. The terms of reference which were drafted by industry stakeholders were to investigate the debate around the implementation of a national minimum wage of R20 per hour, from which agriculture was exempted in 2018. The remainder of the document therefore assumes an R18 per hour wage in 2019, and R20 per hour in 2020 in order to settle the national minimum wage debate (Department of Labour, 2018) (see Table 3.3 below).

**Table 3.3: The minimum wage in agriculture (2017-2020)**

Date of inception	Monthly	Weekly	Daily	Hourly	% Increase
28/02/2017	<b>2778.83</b>	<b>641.32</b>	<b>128.26</b>	<b>14.25</b>	
01/03/2018	<b>3169.19</b>	<b>731.41</b>	<b>146.28</b>	<b>16.25</b>	<b>14.0</b>
01/05/2019	<b>3499.20</b>	<b>810.00</b>	<b>162.00</b>	<b>18.00</b>	<b>10.7</b>
01/05/2020	<b>3900.00</b>	<b>900.00</b>	<b>180.00</b>	<b>20.00</b>	<b>11.1</b>

**Source:** Department of Labour (2018)

According to van der Zee (2017), because of the high number of vulnerable workers in South Africa it is important that workers are adequately protected and represented, and that labour markets are in some way regulated to avoid exploitation. To achieve this, the labour law was one of the first areas to be reformed after the country's democratisation in 1994. Four key pieces of legislation were put in place that aided the strengthening of worker rights: these included the South African Constitution, which lays out the rights of workers under Section 23, and the Labour Relations Act of 1995, which promotes economic development, social justice, labour peace and democracy in the workplace. Minimum wages are governed by the Employment Conditions Commission (ECC), and have the explicit intention of ensuring that workers in low-paid, vulnerable occupations are guaranteed a basic subsistence income, and are in some way protected in the working environment (Department of Labour, 2015). The other two Acts are the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, No. 75 of 1997, which regulates employment conditions such as leave, employment and termination of contracts; and the Extension of Security of Tenure Act, No. 62 of 1997, which sets out the procedures and limitations of eviction of workers occupying land (Bhorat, Kanbur, & Stanwix., 2014).

Minimum wages in South Africa are unique when compared to other countries, as there is not a single national minimum wage; it differs across sectors, and these sectoral minimum wages can then vary further according to occupation types and across geographical areas (van der Zee, 2017). Van der Zee writes that South Africa's first nationally binding minimum wage was implemented in 1999, and applied to workers in the contract cleaning sector. Since then minimum wages have been introduced in eleven more sectors covering civil engineering, learnerships, private security, domestic work, wholesale and retail, the employment of children in performance or advertising, artistic and cultural activities, the taxi industry, forestry, agriculture, and hospitality. Minimum wages were introduced in the agricultural sector for the first time in 2003 in the form of Sectoral Determination 8 (which became Sectoral Determination 13 in 2006) (van der Zee, 2017).

### **3.5.3 Labour Relations Act (LRA)**

The Labour Relations Act of 1995 (LRA) was initiated to bargain for the rights of farmworkers (Visser & Ferrer, 2015). It applies to all workers and employers and aims to advance economic development, social justice, labour peace and the democracy in the workplace. It broadly outlines the employment relationship between employer and worker, general rights and

responsibilities of employers and workers and the scope of unions in the workplace. However, very few farmworkers were organised; approximately 6% of them, leaving the remaining 94% with very little means to bargain for better wages and working conditions, despite the fact that the LRA made provision for this. According to Ledger (2016), this lack of labour organisation, combined with South Africa's history of disadvantaging African farmworkers, resulted in working conditions that were, and often still are, generally very poor, with farmworkers earning the lowest wages amongst formally employed workers, as well as enduring high levels of poverty and low levels of food security.

#### **3.5.4 Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA)**

According to Devereux, Levendal & Yde (2017) the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA) applies to all employers and workers and regulates leave, working hours, employment contracts, deductions, pay slips, and terminations. Its purpose is to regulate basic employment conditions and ensure that fair labour practices as outlined in Section 23(1) of the Constitution are established. Many of these basic conditions are in line with International Labour Organisation regulations. In 1993, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act of 1983 and the Unemployment Insurance Fund were extended to cover farmworkers, but even with these initial adjustments, farmworkers were still treated as a unique case in all labour regulations (Visser & Ferrer, 2015).

#### **3.5.5 Occupational Health and Safety Act (OHSA)**

This Act aims to provide and regulate health and safety at the workplace for all workers. It also aims to provide a safe and healthy environment for people connected to people at work, e.g. people living on farms are exposed to health hazards related to farming practices, such as machinery as well as fertilisers and pesticides used on farms. The Act places a direct responsibility on employers to provide a safe and healthy work environment. The Occupational Health and Safety Act is supported by subordinate legislation, Regulations and Codes of Practice, which give practical guidelines on how to manage health and safety issues in the workplace (Devereux, Levendal & Yde, 2017).

#### **3.5.6 Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Act (COIDA)**

Workers who are affected by occupational injuries and diseases are entitled to compensation. The COIDA provides for compensation for occupational injuries or diseases sustained or contracted by workers in the course of their employment, or for death resulting from such

injuries or diseases (Devereux, Levendal & Yde, 2017). The Act provides guidelines to a worker's right to compensation and the procedures to be followed in case of work-related injuries or diseases. All employers conducting business in South Africa including the agricultural sector must register with the Compensation Commissioner, and must keep a record of workers' earnings. Employers should be assessed by the State and compensation tariffs calculated according to the category of their business and their history of work-related accidents and occupational diseases. Businesses less likely to result in work-related accidents should pay lower tariffs.

### **3.5.7 Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF)**

Van der Zee (2017) asserts that the unemployment insurance system in South Africa is governed by the following legislation, Unemployment Insurance Act, 2001 (the UI Act) and Unemployment Insurance Contributions Act, 2002 (the UIC Act). All employers must register and pay UIF contributions. Employers must pay UIF contributions of 2% of the value of each worker's pay per month: the employer and the worker each contribute 1%. The UIF provides short-term security to workers when they become unemployed, or to their families when they die. It also supports workers who are unable to work due to maternity or adoption leave as well as illness. It also provides financial relief to the dependants of a deceased contributor (van der Zee, 2017).

The above review on the labour laws and rights give the contextual ground on understanding the nature of laws that has been created in the post-apartheid South Africa in protection of poor and marginalised labour especially in private sectors such as commercial agriculture. It is in light of this background that the fourth objective of this study assesses farm worker awareness of their labour laws and rights to understand the context of their understanding.

### **3.6 Conclusion**

This chapter has provided an overview of commercial farming and farm workers at a global scale, and has also looked at commercial farming statistics especially in Sub-Saharan Africa together with the brief history of commercial agriculture in South Africa. The chapter further reviewed the concept of livelihood in terms of capital assets and contexts, working and living conditions of farm workers on commercial farms has also been examined in this chapter. This chapter has also addressed Labour laws and rights especially in the commercial farming sector. The next chapter provide the overall physical setting of the study.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: PHYSICAL SETTING OF THE STUDY**

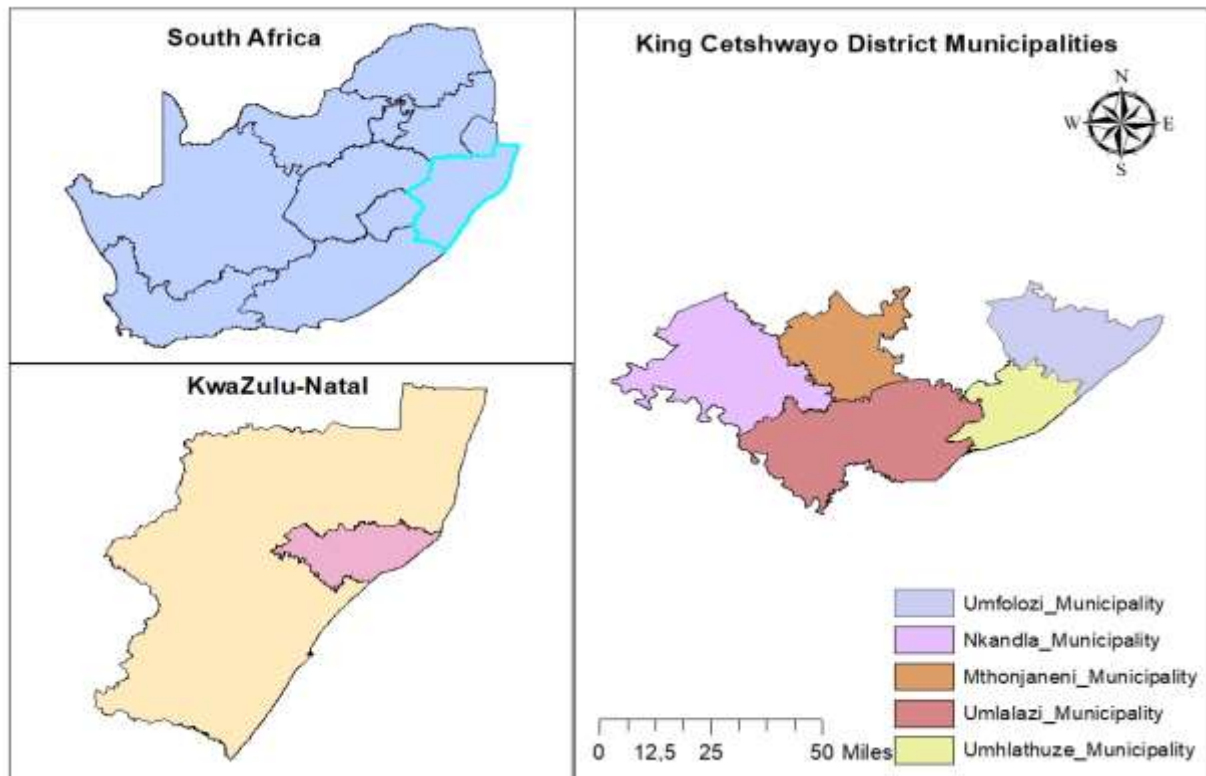
### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides a detailed orientation of the physical setting of the study, which is King Cetshwayo District Municipality (KCDM). The chapter further provides an overview of the contextual description of the King Cetshwayo District Municipality in terms of its land cover, broad land use (including the topography of the study area), land ownership and Local Economic Development (LED).

### **4.2 Contextual Overview of the King Cetshwayo District Municipality.**

King Cetshwayo District Municipality is located in the north-eastern region of KwaZulu-Natal province on the eastern seaboard of South Africa. It covers an area of approximately 8 213 square kilometres, from the agricultural town of Gingindlovu in the south, to the uMfolozi River in the north and inland to the mountainous beauty of rural Nkandla. The district comprises five local municipalities, namely: uMfolozi, uMhlathuze, uMlalazi, uMthonjaneni and Nkandla. Significant economic centres at the district and provincial levels are Richards Bay and Empangeni. Richards Bay, as a harbour and industrial town, attracts people from surrounding towns, rural settlements and beyond the district. Empangeni's role as an industrial, commercial and service centre for the settlements of Esikhaleni, Eshowe, Nkandla and other rural settlements attracts many people to the range of higher order services available in the town (KCDM IDP, 2018/2019). See Figure 4.1 below.

A large proportion of economic performance (48%) in the district is vested in uMhlathuze Local Municipality, its primary urban centres being Richards Bay and Empangeni. This area is the third most important in the province of KwaZulu-Natal in terms of economic production, and contributed 12.3% of the total GGP and 24.6% of total employment (formal and informal) in 2019 (KCDM IDP, 2018/2019). The district has low level of urbanisation, approximately 80% of the people live in the rural areas. In addition, more than 50% of the population is younger than 19 years. The female population is significantly higher than the male population – a phenomenon that can be attributed to inherent migration patterns in the province (KCDM IDP, 2018/2019). It has the third-highest population (with an estimated 971 135 people) in the province after the eThekweni Metro (Durban) and the uMgungundlovu District (Pietermaritzburg and surrounds) (KCDM IDP, 2018/2019).



**Figure 4.1: King Cetshwayo District Map**

The district is characterised by large infrastructure backlogs, particularly in respect of water and sanitation mainly in the rural areas. The implementation of the 2009 King Cetshwayo WSDP (Water Services Development Plan) has reduced the rural backlogs for water supply to RDP standard, from 81% in 2001/02 to 29.4% in 2015/16. The backlogs in rural sanitation to RDP standard have been reduced from 80% to 12% over the same period.

Table 4.1 below outlines the distribution of the population across the King Cetshwayo District and its five municipalities in the period between 2011 and 2016. It indicates the increase in the population of the entire district from the year 2011 to the year 2016, and four out of the five municipalities also increased in population from 2011 to 2016. The only municipality that showed a decline in population in this period was Nkandla.

**Table 4.1: King Cetshwayo District Municipalities**

<b>GEOGRAPHY</b>	<b>POPULATION 2011</b>	<b>POPULATION 2016</b>
uMhlathuze	334 459	410 465
Nkandla	114 416	114 284
uMfolozi	122 889	144 363
uMlalazi	213 601	223 140
Mthonjaneni	47 818	78 883
<b>Total King Cetshwayo</b>	<b>907 519</b>	<b>971 135</b>

**Source:** Census 2011 & Community Survey 2016

King Cetshwayo District's transportation infrastructure is also under pressure. The road network connects the major nodes like Richards Bay and Empangeni to the national network. However, the heavy vehicles servicing the port of Richards Bay and the adjoining industrial areas are placing considerable strain on the infrastructure. Rail is a declining transport sector, with no major commuter networks in place, and limited industrial linkages (with the exception of the coal link from Mpumalanga to the Richards Bay Coal Terminal at the port of Richards Bay).

#### **4.3 KCDM Land cover, broad land use and topography**

According to the IDP (2019-2020) it is evident, that cultivated land and forestry forms the backbone of the rural economy in the King Cetshwayo District. These are situated mostly on both sides of the N2 with large forestry areas evident in the Mthonjaneni municipal area in the north eastern portion of King Cetshwayo. Scattered rural settlements are evident within Nkandla, uMfolozi and uMlalazi municipalities. These areas coincide with the Ingonyama Trust land. Denser settlement patterns are noticeable around the towns of Richards Bay/Empangeni and Eshowe. Subsistence agriculture is very dominant in Nkandla Local Municipality.

The topography of the King Cetshwayo District extends from the flat coastal plains to inland hilly areas and steep valleys. The flat coastal region comprises of the Natal Coastal Belt and Zululand Coastal Plain with altitudes ranging from sea level to 450 metres. Inland adjacent to the coastal belt, the Lowveld of Zululand to the north east and the Eshowe Block to the west are characterized by hilly topography with altitudes increasing to 900 metres (KCDM IDP, 2019/2020). The terrain becomes more extreme towards the north-west, and in places, the area

is characterized by steeply incised valleys with altitudes between 900 and 1 400 metres. The highly variable topography characteristic of the district creates biophysical habitat and micro-climatic conditions, which support a variety of biodiversity. North facing slopes are generally warmer and drier, supporting habitat types such as grasslands. South facing slopes, escarpments and sheltered kloofs on the other hand tend to be cooler and wetter, commonly providing conditions favourable for supporting indigenous forests (EKZNW, 2014).

The broad spatial structure of the district consists of a coastal plain or corridor that is rich in natural and built resources. A 'shadow corridor' comprising of commercial agriculture forms a rim of higher lying land around the coastal plain. The land is characterised by gentle undulating topography containing commercial forestry, rural settlement and small towns. The rest of the district is characterised by high lying dramatic landscape with rural settlements and forestry. The general spatial trend is that access to services and economic opportunities appears to lessen as one advances inland. Also found in the area are a variety of river valleys, the best known being the Tugela River valley on the western boundary of the district. The variety of soils, temperate climate and good annual average rainfall as well as the large water catchments area of the Thukela all combine for added attractiveness (KCDM IDP, 2018/2019).

#### **4.4 KCDM Land ownership**

Large tracts of land in the municipal area are under Ingonyama Trust land that falls under the Traditional Authorities. The two other major categories are privately owned or state land which could either be commercial farm land/forestry or urban land in the Richard Bay/ Empangeni and other nodes (KCDM IDP, 2018/2019).

#### **4.5 Overview of KCDM Local Economic Development**

King Cetshwayo District has unique qualities that set it apart from many other regions in South Africa. The district boasts the largest deep-water port on the African continent, which imports and exports the most bulk cargo of all African ports. It has double the capacity of the Port of Durban to the south and handles in excess of 75 million tons of cargo per annum. The development of the harbour facilities at Richards Bay has promoted the development of the manufacturing sector, such that it is one of the largest economic contributors to the gross geographic product in King Cetshwayo (KCDM IDP, 2019/2020).

King Cetshwayo also offers highly favourable agricultural conditions as it has extremely fertile soils, good rainfall and enjoys an excellent, frost-free climate all year round. A wide variety of

bio-climatic conditions is on offer across the district, from the mountainous area of Nkandla down to the coastline. The agricultural sector is a dual economy, consisting of commercial agriculture on one hand and traditional agriculture on the other. The commercial agricultural economy is based on the sugar, fruit and forestry industries. Traditional subsistence agriculture is practiced on most of the tribal lands in the district and has an enormous potential for growth.

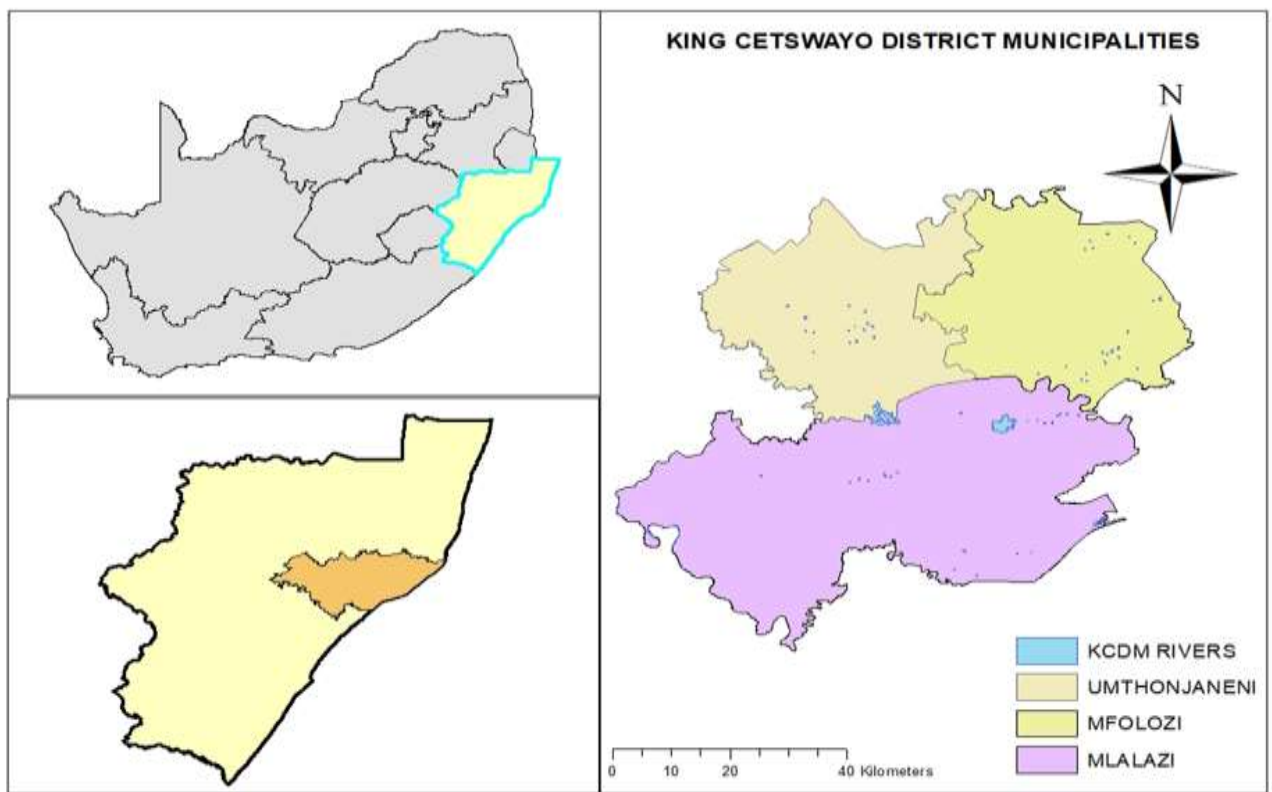
At King Cetshwayo District Municipality took giant steps in initiating skills transfer schemes and on-the-job training for members of the communities in the implementation of the majority of capital infrastructure projects. The Local Economic Development initiatives have also led to job creation and entrepreneurship opportunities for people. Partnerships with the Department of Agriculture and Poultry growers are assisting to develop commercial farmers. There have been further partnerships with IThala Development Finance Corporation for training of SMME's. This is done to maintain a rapid growth of the local economy and transforming rural areas to be the sites of economic generation (KCDM IDP, 2018/2019).

According to the district IDP (2019-2020) King Cetshwayo is among the key economic role players in the province of KZN in terms of GDP contribution. It contributed 6.5 per cent of the total estimated provincial GDP generated in 2016. It is within this context that King Cetshwayo is among the largest contributing districts towards the provincial GDP such as eThekweni and uMgungundlovu at 59.5 per cent, and 11.3 percent respectively. Similar to all other district municipalities, the GDP at King Cetshwayo is generated by local municipalities. The largest contributing local municipalities to the GDP of the district are the City of uMhlathuze at 44.0 per cent followed by uMfolozi at 25.7 per cent and uMlalazi at 21.3 per cent. The City of uMhlathuze constitutes approximately half of the district's GDP, which is driven by various economic activities taking place mainly at Richards Bay. The least contributing local municipalities to the district's GDP are Nkandla and Mthonjaneni at 2.5 per cent and 6.6 percent respectively. The latter local municipalities are located in rural areas where there are no major economic activities that could stimulate economic growth.

#### **4.6 Selected municipalities in KCDM**

This study has selected the three municipalities in KCDM in which the study has been conducted. These local municipalities include the uMthonjaneni, uMlalazi, and uMfolozi municipalities. The selection of these municipalities was based on where commercial farming has been reported to dominate in these municipalities than other municipalities in the district according to the KZN Top Business Portfolio (2019), thereby fitting with the purpose of the

study. This, in terms of sugar cane, forestry, and fruit farming, has therefore made these municipalities suitable for the conduction of this study. See Figure 4.2 below.



**Figure 4.2: Selected municipalities**

Generally, KCDM has a pleasant climate and an abundance of natural resources although severe drought has affected the district negatively in the past two or so years in terms of agricultural productivity. The available arable land is suitable for large scale agricultural initiatives, like the current sugar and forestry as well as specialised and intensive agricultural opportunities like natural oils and fruits cultivation. These agricultural opportunities are mostly found on the three mentioned municipalities in the King Cetshwayo District. The agricultural potential within Mthonjaneni Municipality is very favourable, being determined by factors such as climate, vegetation, soils, water supply and topography (Mthonjaneni SEA, 2007). There is a very large area covering the majority of Ward 2 and part of Ward 1 (south-west of Melmoth) as well as corridors in Wards 3 and 4 (incorporating Inqaba) which have good agricultural potential. There is also a large area of high agricultural potential which stretches from the south-west of Ward 2 into Wards 1, 4, 5 and 6. It incorporates the areas of KwaMagwaza and Ekuthuleni and is in close proximity to Melmoth and Ndundulu (uMthonjaneni IDP, 2019-2020).

According to the Municipal IDP, there are areas of low potential along the northern and eastern boundaries of the Municipality. The south-east boundary has an area of very low potential. There is also restricted potential north of Melmoth and in the southern section of the municipality. The municipality has a large areas of Commercial Crops primarily in the central band running from the north-west to the south-east. These follow transportation corridors and there is a concentration in the area to the north and south of Melmoth. There is a very large portion of this central band that is Commercial Forestry. The agricultural sector boost the economy by creating job opportunities to local people. More than 50% of the population around Mthonjaneni are employed in the agricultural sector (uMthonjaneni IDP, 2019-2020).

According to uMlalazi Municipality IDP (2019-2020) the uMlalazi Area is dominated by a band of commercial farms covering an area from the west of Eshowe and along the R68 to Gingindlovu and northwards along the N2 Motorway to north of Mtunzini. One isolated area of commercial farming is located to the north of the municipal area and straddles the R34, including the Nkwaleni Valley. These areas are characterized by intensive agricultural practices, where land management is of the highest order. Agricultural production is focused on sugar cane, while some timber production and citrus farming occurs in the Nkwaleni Valley. The largest portion of the municipal area is covered by land under the ownership of the Ngonyama Trust and farming activities are extensive. This area is also characterized by poor land management practices and presents a challenge in respect of the unlocking of the agricultural potential that exists. This area also accommodates scattered residential settlements posing considerable pressure in respect of the provision of basic services. The commercial farms around the municipality also provide employment for the surrounding communities at about 60% as per the KZN Top Business Portfolio (2019).

The forestry, sugar and timber sectors are currently the major economic sectors in uMfolozi Local Municipality (KZN Top Business Portfolio, 2019). UMfolozi has a potential for sugarcane and forestry farming as well cultivation of crops. Its climate is hot and humid with a rainfall of 600mm – 1300mm. Sugarcane and Forestry are the main agricultural crops which commercial farmers and emerging farmers concentrate on. However, vegetable gardens are gaining momentum and have a potential market access. Maize is also grown, but on a small scale with no intention of selling or processing for income. Small scale farmers find it difficult to access external markets due to fierce competition from commercial farmers who use economies of scale to their advantage around the uMfolozi Municipality (Mfolozi Municipality IDP, 2019-2020).

## **4.7 Conclusion**

The chapter has provided a descriptive outline of the King Cetshwayo District Municipality. This was achieved by providing the contextual background in terms of the topography, land cover, land use, and the broad local economic development of the district. The chapter also described the three municipalities on which this study focuses. The next chapter discusses the research design and methodology which underpins this study.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter focuses on the research design and methodology that was followed in conducting this study. Detailed description of the research paradigm and research approach is provided in the chapter. The chapter also presents the research methods that have been followed in this research including a description of sampling approaches, instrumentation, data collection and analysis as well as ethical considerations.

### **5.2 Research paradigm**

In research, the term “paradigm” is used to refer to the philosophical assumptions or to the basic set of beliefs that guide the actions and define the worldview of the researcher (Lincolnetal, 2011). Introduced by Thomas Kuhn (1970), the term paradigm was used to discuss the shared generalizations, beliefs, and values of a community of researchers regarding the nature of reality and knowledge. Paradigms are conceptual and practical “tools” that are used to solve specific research problems. In other words, paradigms function as heuristics in social research (Abbott, 2004, p. 42). This study employed pragmatism as a research paradigm. Pragmatism finds its philosophical foundation in the historical contributions of the philosophy of pragmatism and, as such, embraces plurality of methods (Maxcy, 2003).

As a research paradigm, pragmatism is based on the proposition that researchers should use the philosophical and/or methodological approach that works best for the particular research problem being investigated (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). This paradigm is associated with mixed methods research, because it provides a philosophical basis for research that is not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality (Cherryholmes 1992; Morgan 2007; Creswell 2014). This is because its inquirers draw liberally from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions when they engage in their research. Using this paradigm, individual researchers have a freedom of choice. In this way, researchers are free to choose the methods, techniques, and procedures of research that best meet their specific needs and purposes. Pragmatists do not see the world as an absolute unity. In a similar way, mixed methods researchers look to many approaches for collecting and analysing data rather than subscribing to only one way (e.g., quantitative or qualitative). Thus, for the mixed methods researcher, pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2014; Kaushik and Walsh, 2019).

Since this study follows a mixed methods approach, the pragmatism paradigm is employed for its flexibility in the use of any research methods for both the collecting and analysing of data (both qualitative and quantitative) and in understanding better the research problem that this study investigates (Kaushik and Walsh, 2019). This in turn assists this study to achieve its stated aim and objectives. According to Creswell (2014), the researcher bases the inquiry on the assumption that collecting diverse types of data best provides a more complete understanding of a research problem than either quantitative or qualitative data alone.

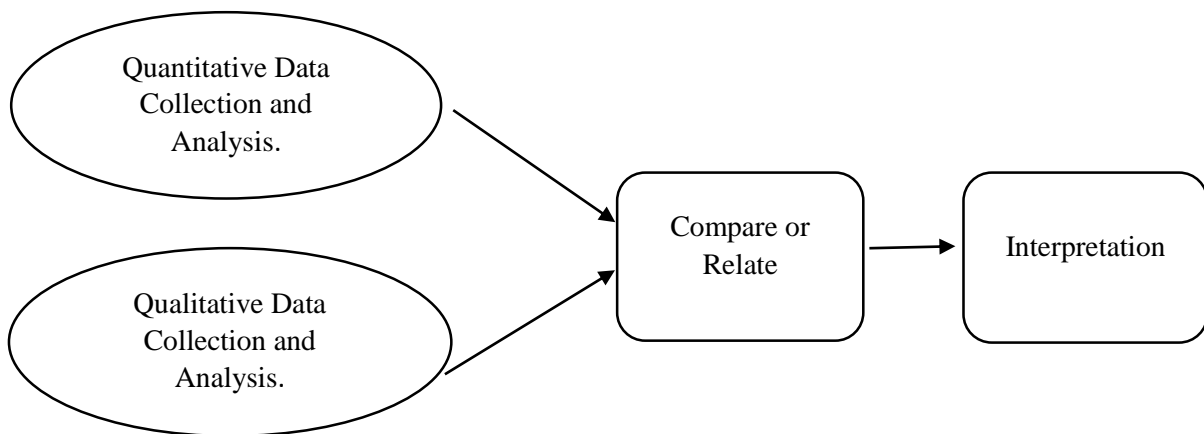
### **5.3 Research design**

Research designs are types of inquiry within qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches that provide specific direction for procedures in a research also known as strategies of inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). This study follows a mixed methods research design. Creswell et al. (2007) states that there are four most useful research designs in mixed method research. They include sequential explanatory design, sequential exploratory design, sequential transformative design, and convergent parallel mixed methods design. This study adopted the convergent parallel mixed methods design.

According to Creswell (2014), in the convergent parallel mixed methods design, a researcher collects both quantitative and qualitative data at the same time, analyses them separately, and then compares the results to see if the findings confirm or disconfirm each other. The key assumption of this approach is that both qualitative and quantitative data provide different types of information often detailed views of participants qualitatively and scores on instruments quantitatively (Creswell 2014). And together they yield comprehensive results around what is being studied. There are three steps which were followed in this respect, according to the convergent parallel mixed methods design. First, quantitative data was collected through survey questionnaires which were made of close-ended questions for the purpose of deriving statistical data from farm workers in the three commercial farms which have been selected as the study area. At the same time, qualitative data was also collected using focus group interviews from the same farm workers for the purpose of deriving their experiences, feelings, and perception with reference to their employment on those commercial farms. In addition to this, structured interviews were conducted with the farm owners/managers so as to understand their perspectives on the issues under investigation. Second, the qualitative data was then compared and merged to the quantitative results to confirm or disconfirm the quantitative results from the close-ended questions found in the questionnaire. Lastly, themes have been

developed from the transcriptions and have been used to provide a further contextual interpretation of the qualitative data.

Figure 5.1 below illustrates the procedure and process which the researcher followed when conducting this research following the convergent parallel Mixed Methods Design.



**Figure 5.1: Convergent Parallel Mixed Methods Design**

Source: Adapted from Creswell (2014, p238)

#### **5.4 Research approaches**

According to Creswell (2014), research approaches are the plans and procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. These approaches include quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods approaches (Creswell, 2014). Informed by the research design, explained in the preceding parts, the following parts explain in detail the quantitative and qualitative approaches which were followed in this study.

##### **5.4.1 Quantitative approach**

The quantitative approach to research is a type of research design which allows the researcher to “assign numeric values to different variables and cases thereby allowing for patterns, ratios or proportions” relating to the target population to be estimated (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2000:38; Casey and Kumar, 1988).

### (a) Sampling

Sampling refers to the selection of a subset from the population to form a sample, whereas a population refers to all the people or the participants from which the sample is drawn (Creswell, 2014). The study area has 20 commercial farms in its five local municipalities. These commercial farms differ in terms of their production. Some focus on forestry (timber), and others on sugarcane and fruits. Some of the five municipalities, such as uMhlatuze, Nkandla and uMfolozi, are also dominated by mining (KZN Top Business Portfolio, 2019).

In this study, three sugarcane and fruit farms were selected from the three municipalities of uMthonjaneni, uMlalazi, and uMfolozi, which are amongst the five that have such farms. The selection of sugarcane and fruit farms in this study was driven by the fact that sugarcane and fruit farming absorbs the majority of labour, rather than timber farming (KZN Top Business Portfolio, 2019). The three farms include the Fowler Farm (Mthonjaneni) with 55 farmworkers, Hullets Farm (uMfolozi) with 47 farmworkers, and Farm Secure (uMlalazi), with 42 farmworkers. The total population on the three farms is 144.

The Cochran formula for calculating the sample size of a known population was used as follows:

$$n = \frac{Z^2 \cdot \rho (1-\rho)}{e^2 / \frac{1+(Z^2 \cdot \rho (1-\rho))}{Z^2 \cdot N}}$$

The sample size was calculated using the above formula with the following data:

*Z-Score = 1.96*

*Confidence level = 95%*

*Margin of error = 10%*

*Population proportion = 50%*

*Population size = 144*

*=58*

Therefore, the quantitative sample is 58

### **(b) Instrumentation and data collection**

For quantitative data collection, the questionnaire was used, and it was designed with a special focus on collecting data which generated descriptive statistical results. Hence, close-ended questions were incorporated in the instrument. Simple random sampling was used to select 58 respondents to the questionnaires. The type of data which was collected using questionnaires included the demographical information of farm workers, data regarding farm workers' livelihood assets in particular human and financial capitals, data regarding their livelihood contexts specifically the provision of services such as basic services like electricity, water, sanitation, shelter, including recreation and health facilities, and also their awareness of labour laws and rights. These questionnaires were drafted in both English and IsiZulu to accommodate all the participants. During the data collection process, the researcher had data collection assistants who assisted the participants to complete the questionnaires in cases where respondents did not understand the questions.

### **(c) Quantitative data analysis**

The raw data collected through survey (questionnaires) was first analysed and coded into categories which respond to the objectives of the study, and then numerical values derived from the analysis were captured onto an Excel spread sheet and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software in order to generate descriptive statistics (Maree, 2016). The second step was to use bar graphs, pie charts and tables to display frequencies (Creswell, 2014). Each presentation of data provided an indication of numerical scores and percentages. The visual presentation of data (tables, charts and graphics) in numbers and percentages enabled the researcher to offer an analytical description and interpretation of data by means of descriptive statistical procedures (Creswell, 2014).

### **(d) Reliability and Validity**

According to Mohajan (2017) in quantitative research, reliability refers to the consistency, stability and repeatability of results. That is, the results of a research are considered reliable if consistent results have been obtained in identical situations but different circumstances. Validity is the extent to which any measuring instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Thatcher, 2010). In this study, to measure validity, the questionnaires used to collect data included questions which directly addressed the issues of farm workers and their livelihoods on commercial farms, hence a pilot study was conducted among the three commercial farms to pick up some of the issues which needed to be thoroughly explored when

formulating questions in the questionnaire. In terms of reliability, a test/retest principle was used also to find out if there is consistency in terms of the data collected from farm workers.

#### **5.4.2 Qualitative approach**

A qualitative approach to research is a type of research approach that allows the researcher to investigate social action from the perspective of the “insider” (Geertz, 1973 cited in Babbie & Mouton, 2008:272). It involves exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The process of research involves merging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the participant’s setting, data analysis inductively building from particular to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data (Creswell, 2014).

##### **(a) Sampling**

The qualitative sampling techniques used in this study were non-probability sampling techniques in the form of convenience and purposive sampling (Creswell, 2014). Convenience sampling technique is a type of non-probability sampling where members of the target population that meet certain practical criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or the willingness to participate are included for the purpose of the study ( Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016). In this study, convenience sampling technique was used to select farm workers who participated in the Focus Group discussions held in the three commercial farms in the King Cetshwayo District. The selection of participants was based on their accessibility, proximity, willingness, and time to take part in the discussions. In each of the three commercial farms, one FGD was held making a total of three FGD sessions in all three farms.

According to Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim (2016), in terms of purposive sampling technique, the researcher decides what needs to be known and sets out to find people who can and are willing to provide the information by virtue of knowledge or experience. This involves identification and selection of individuals or groups of individuals that are proficient and well-informed with the phenomenon of interest. In this study, the use of purposive sampling technique was for the selection of farm owner/managers from the three commercial farms. On each of the three farms, one farm manager was interviewed (structured interview), making a sample of three farm managers. The use of purposive sampling technique for farm managers was motivated by the fact that, by virtue of their position as managers, they were deemed knowledgeable and experienced to provide information about their employees, specifically pertaining to their

livelihoods on each of those farms. In addition, these interviews were used to validate or assist in critically analysing the information obtained from the questionnaires and FGDs.

**Table 5.1: The summary of qualitative sample**

	<b>Fowler Farm</b>	<b>Hulleys Farm</b>	<b>Farm Secure</b>
Population	55	47	42
Sampling Technique	convenient/purposive	Convenient/purposive	convenient/purposive
No. of FGD	01	01	01
No. of Participants for FGDs	08 Farm workers	08 Farm workers	08 Farm workers
No. of Interviews	01	01	01
No. of participants for structured interviews	01 Farm manager	01 Farm manager	01 Farm manager

Source: (Researcher’s compilation, 2020)

The above table provided a summary of qualitative sample in terms of the Focus Group Interviews with the farm workers and also structured interviews with the farm managers which were conducted among the three commercial farms around the King Cetshwayo District Municipality. The Table 5.1 above provided the process which the researcher followed in the gathering the qualitative data in the study area.

**(b) Instrumentation and data collection**

In this study, qualitative data was collected using both in-depth Focus Group Interviews with the farm workers and one-on-one interviews with the farm managers from the three commercial farms. Focus Group Interview is a type of in-depth interview accomplished in a group, whose meetings present characteristics defined with respect to the proposal, size, composition, and interview procedures (Freitas, Oliveira, Jenkins, and Popjoy, 1998). The focus or object of analysis is interaction within the group. The in-depth Focus Group Interview was used as a qualitative data instrument to gather qualitative data from the farm workers. The participants influenced each other through their answers to the ideas and contributions during the discussions. The moderator stimulated discussions with comments or subjects. The

fundamental data produced by this technique are the transcripts of the group discussions and the moderator's reflections and annotations (Freitas, Oliveira, Jenkins, and Popjoy, 1998).

The first part of the visit to each FGD was characterized by information sharing. Here, the participants were informed about the purpose of the study, and given an explanation of the ethical issues involved (such as respect for individual privacy, and the freedom to choose whether or not to participate); and of the informed consent letter to be signed. Focus Group Discussions were conducted among the three selected commercial farms where farm workers were the participants. In all the three farms, the FGDs were held in one of the farm houses where farm meetings are held. A recording device was used to capture the interview process during the FGD sessions, and also field notes were taken to supplement the data recorded. A total of eight farm workers were involved in the FGDs from each farm (Creswell, 2014). On the other hand, one-on-one interviews were conducted with the farm managers from the three commercial farms where a recording device was also used to record and capture all the three one-on-one interview sessions. Notes were taken during the sessions. Semi-structured and structured interview guides were utilised as qualitative tools to collect the data from the farm managers. The interview guide was composed of open-ended questions to find out the in-depth views, perceptions and experiences of farm managers with regard to the livelihoods of their employees. Secondary data in terms of document analysis (journals, municipal IDPs, audio and visual data) was also used to clearly make a constructive argument and to understand the phenomenon under investigation.

The reason for conducting FGDs with the farm workers and one-on-one interviews with the farm managers in this study was informed by the mixed nature of the study. After the numerical data which was collected quantitatively through questionnaires among farm workers, textual data through open-ended questions was needed to supplement and make more sense of the quantitative data. Here, farm worker's views, perceptions, and experiences and that of farm managers with regard to livelihoods on commercial farms were explored. Both the FGDs and one-on-one interviews from the three farms focus on exploring further the issues of livelihood assets of farm workers, the livelihood contexts especially in terms of social relations, issues of gender, power and farm governance. Furthermore, these methods also assisted in acquiring in-depth information with regard to farm workers living and working conditions on these commercial farms. They provided a forum for soliciting ideas and feedback, and the researcher was able to obtain in-depth knowledge by listening to participants as they shared and compared their experiences, feelings and opinions.

### **(c) Data analysis**

The analysis of data from FGDs and one-on-one interviews held in the selected commercial farms was undertaken using the grounded theory method of coding, sorting and analysing. The Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software application (CAQDAS), ATLAS.ti v.8.4, was used in order to make the analysis more versatile. The use of ATLAS.ti v.8.4 as CAQDAS allowed the researcher to invest more mental energy in the analysis rather than in the technicalities and logistics of the research process (Lu and Shulman, 2008). The ATLAS.ti v.8.4 Software made it easier for the researcher during the data analysis stage of this study to examine and interpret the focus group interviews and one-on-one interviews held with farm workers and farm managers. All the transcripts of both the focus group interviews and one-on-one interviews which were collected using both the tape recorders and field notes taken during the FGDs and one-on-one interview sessions were then imported into the ATLAS.ti separately as both primary documents. This was done to preserve the context of each of the design sessions during the data analysis, which assisted the researcher in making sense of comments made by the members of both the focus group and one-on-one interviews.

During the coding phase, the researcher used both the open coding and in-vivo coding in the process of importing each of the transcripts in the ATLAS.ti Software for both the FGDs and one-on-one interviews. In terms of open coding, the researcher created his own phrases emanating from both the FGDs and interviews which acted as themes developed from what the participants said during their discussion. In addition, the exact words used by participants were utilised as themes to group their comments and perceptions presented during the FGDs and interviews, this is known as in-vivo coding (Glaser, 2002). Once this initial labelling had been done, and through a process of constant comparison, codes that contained similar central features or characteristics were grouped together to form more abstract higher-level categories. This type of qualitative data analysis is known as interpretive or thematic analysis (Blanche, Durheim, & Painter, 2006). The following steps were followed in analysing the qualitative data from both the FGDs and one-on-one interviews (Creswell, 2014):

#### **Step 1: Organising and preparing data for analysis**

In this step, the FGD with farm workers and one-on-one interviews with farm managers was transcribed, data from the FGD and interviews was separately scanned, and field notes typed up, all visual material typed up, and the data sorted and ready to be imported to the ATLAS.tiv.8.4 Software for analysis.

## **Step 2: Reading through the data**

Data collected during the FGDs and interviews was read to provide a sense of the information and an opportunity to reflect on its overall meaning. This was done to answer the following questions: What general ideas are participants expressing? What is the tone of the ideas? What is the impression of the overall depth, credibility and use of the information?

## **Step 3: Data coding**

Coding is the process of organising the data by bracketing chunks (or text or image segments), and writing a word representing a category in the margins. It involves taking data or pictures gathered during data collection, segmenting sentences into categories, and labelling those categories with a term. The data from both FGDs and interviews was separately coded using the ATLAS.ti to develop relevant themes which respond to the objectives of the study.

## **Step 4: Using codes to generate a description or theme**

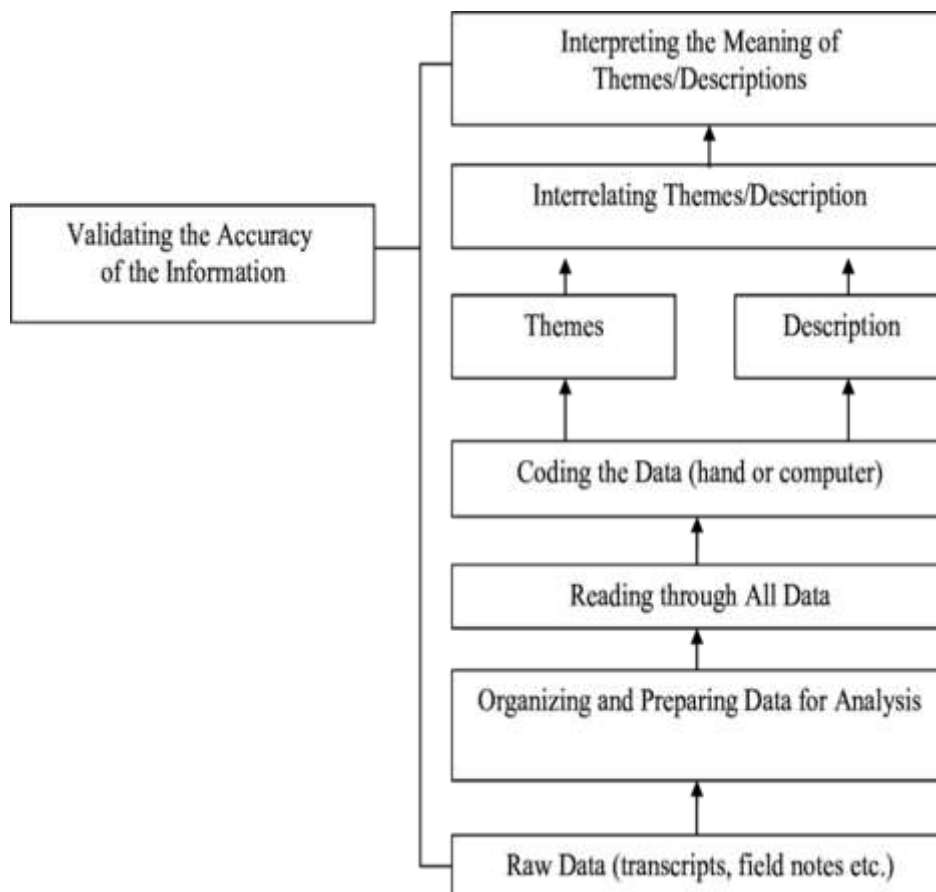
Description involved a detailed rendering of information about people, places, or events in a setting. The themes which were developed during the coding process in the ATLAS.ti were used to fully describe the emotions and perceptions of the farm workers and managers who were interviewed in the study.

## **Step 5: Description and presentation of themes**

This step included the detailed discussion of several themes (complete with subthemes, specific illustrations, multiple perspectives from individuals, and quotations), or interconnecting themes.

## **Step 6: Interpretation of qualitative data**

This step involved the researcher interpreting the findings of the study. This involved linking the themes which emerged from the data to the objectives of the study. These strategies of qualitative data analysis are shown in Figure 5.2 below.

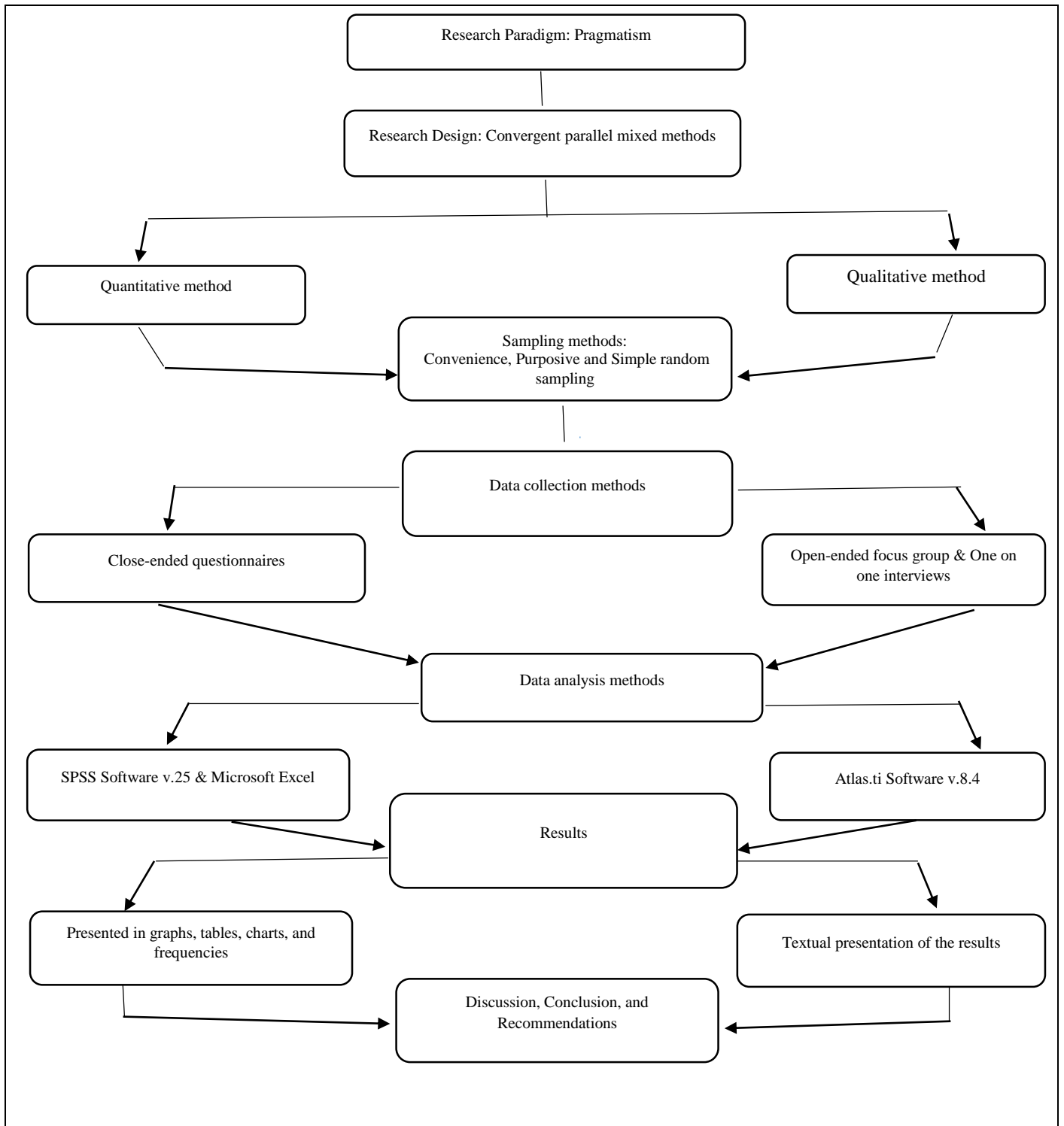


**Figure 5.2: Qualitative data analysis**

Source: Adapted from Creswell (2014, p246)

**(d) Credibility and Transferability**

Credibility refers to a measurement that supplies consistent results with equal values (Blumberg et al., 2005). It measures consistency, precision, repeatability, and trustworthiness of a research (Chakrabartty, 2013), in qualitative research, transferability is when a researcher uses certain procedures to check for the accuracy of the research findings (Creswell, 2014). This study employed triangulation approach, where the researcher used a variety of methods which include Focus Group Interviews, one-on-one interviews, and documents analysis (government documents, commercial farming organisation’s documents, and scholarly writings on commercial farming) and qualitative research techniques to collect and analyse the qualitative data. This was done in order to maintain the trustworthiness of the qualitative results and make sure that other researchers are able to continue with the study based on their own contexts. The diagram below (Figure 5.3) summarises the methodological approach of this study.



**Figure 5.3: Flow chart of the methods and procedures used in the study**

Source: (Researcher's compilation, 2020)

## 5.5 Goal Achievement Matrix

**Table 5.2:** Presentation of the GAM of the study

Research objectives	Data collection methods	Sampling	Analysis and data presentation	Outcomes
1. Assess livelihood assets of farmworkers in the study area.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Questionnaires to farm workers in the three commercial farms.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Simple random (three commercial farms).</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Quantitative data analysis- SPSS and Microsoft Excel, presented in tables, graphs, frequencies and charts.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Different types of livelihood assets of farm workers were identified in the study.</li> </ul>
2. Analyse how employment on commercial farms in the study area affects the livelihood contexts in terms of, among others, the nature of social relations, provision of services, and the governance of farmworkers.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Questionnaires to farm workers in the three commercial farms.</li> <li>Focus Group Interviews (FGI) with farm workers in the three commercial farms.</li> <li>One on one interviews with farm managers.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Simple random (three commercial farms).</li> <li>Convenience Sampling for FGI with farm workers.</li> <li>Purposive Sampling for farm managers.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Quantitative data analysis- SPSS and Microsoft Excel, presented in tables, graphs, frequencies and charts.</li> <li>Qualitative data analysis- ATLAS.ti presented in text.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The study helped to establish how employment of farm workers on commercial farms affect their livelihood context.</li> </ul>
3. Examine the employment and living conditions of farmworkers on commercial farms, and how they cope with them.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Questionnaires to farm workers in the three commercial farms.</li> <li>Focus Group Interviews (FGI) with farm workers in the three commercial farms.</li> <li>One-on-one interviews with farm managers.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Simple random (three commercial farms).</li> <li>Convenience Sampling for FGI with farm workers.</li> <li>Purposive Sampling for farm managers.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Quantitative data analysis- SPSS and Microsoft Excel, presented in tables, graphs, frequencies and charts.</li> <li>Qualitative data analysis- ATLAS.ti presented in text.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The working and living conditions of farm workers on commercial farms were identified.</li> </ul>
4. Evaluate the extent of the farmworkers' awareness of South African labour laws and rights.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Questionnaires to farm workers in the three commercial farms.</li> <li>Focus Group Interviews (FGI) with farm workers in the three commercial farms.</li> <li>One on one interviews with farm managers.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Simple random (three commercial farms).</li> <li>Convenience Sampling for FGI with farm workers.</li> <li>Purposive Sampling for farm managers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Quantitative data analysis- SPSS and Microsoft Excel, presented in tables, graphs, frequencies and charts.</li> <li>Qualitative data analysis- ATLAS .ti presented in text.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The extent to which farm workers understand their labour laws and rights have been established in the study.</li> </ul>

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Source: (Researcher's compilation, 2020)

## **5.6 Ethical and safety issues**

An Ethical Clearance Certificate to conduct this study was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the University of Zululand in fulfilment of the UZ Ethics Policy. The study also adopted the University of Zululand ethical policy on research in such a way that its guiding principles on research was observed. As a result, the principle on confidentiality of participants was observed and no confidential data gathered in the research process was divulged to a third party without appropriate consent. Permission to conduct the study was also obtained from the management of the three commercial farms and farm workers that were directly involved in the study. Written and verbal consent, as well as permission to record the FG interviews, was obtained prior to the initiation of the focus group interviews. The purpose of the study and the expected roles of the participants were explained and recorded prior to each focus group interview. To comply with universally accepted ethical standards for social research and to ensure anonymity, no names, positions, roles, or responsibilities of the participants have been revealed in this study as it would indirectly reveal the identity of the participants. Furthermore, no individual's name has been linked to a particular statement in the focus group discussion. No compensation was paid to any informants for participating in the study. Confidentiality adhered to by the researcher and the anonymity provided to respondents ensured that no participants in the study were harmed because of partaking in the study. The researcher undertook to submit the research findings to all relevant bodies and stakeholders.

## **5.7 Conclusion**

This chapter has provided a detailed description of the research design and methodology which guided the study. The pragmatism research paradigm was explored and then linked to the study. The chapter also explained the Convergent Parallel Mixed Method design which was adopted in this study and justified the use of such a design. The detailed analysis of both quantitative and qualitative approaches used in the study has also been provided in the chapter in terms of sampling, instrumentation and data collection and analysis. The next chapter presents data analysis.

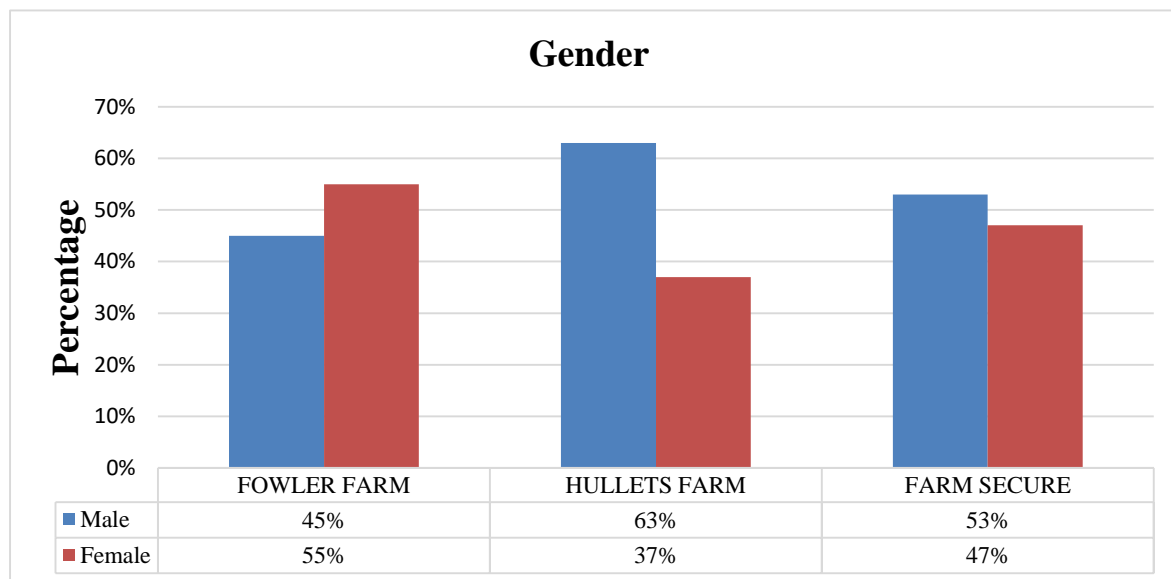
## CHAPTER SIX: DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the analysis, interpretation and discussion of data collected from the farmworkers and farm managers in the three commercial farms around the King Cetshwayo District Municipality regarding the well-being and the state of farmworkers on commercial farms. The aim of the study was to assess the effects of large-scale commercial farming on the livelihoods of farmworkers in King Cetshwayo District Municipality, KwaZulu-Natal Province, South Africa. Livelihood assets and contexts of farm workers, their employment conditions which include living and working conditions, and farmworker's awareness of South African labour laws and rights, were the objectives that guided the study.

### 6.2 Demographic characteristics of respondents

The following discussion is based on gender variations, age, employment status, marital status, family size and the level of education of the farmworkers in the three commercial farms as the primary respondents of the study.



**Figure 6.1: Gender distribution of respondents**

At Fowler Farm, 55% of the respondents were females and most of them were young compared to male respondents, their age ranged from 20 to 40 years. Most of the women had primary and secondary level of education; a few had never been to school. Many of them were not married (55%) with 44% of them in relationships outside marriage. Their family sizes ranged from five

to ten members. Male respondents were relatively older, between 30 and 60 years old, and 56% of them were married, 33% were in relationships outside marriage while 11% reported to be single. Similar to women, most men reported having attained primary and secondary level of education with family sizes of six to twelve members per household. All respondents were South Africans

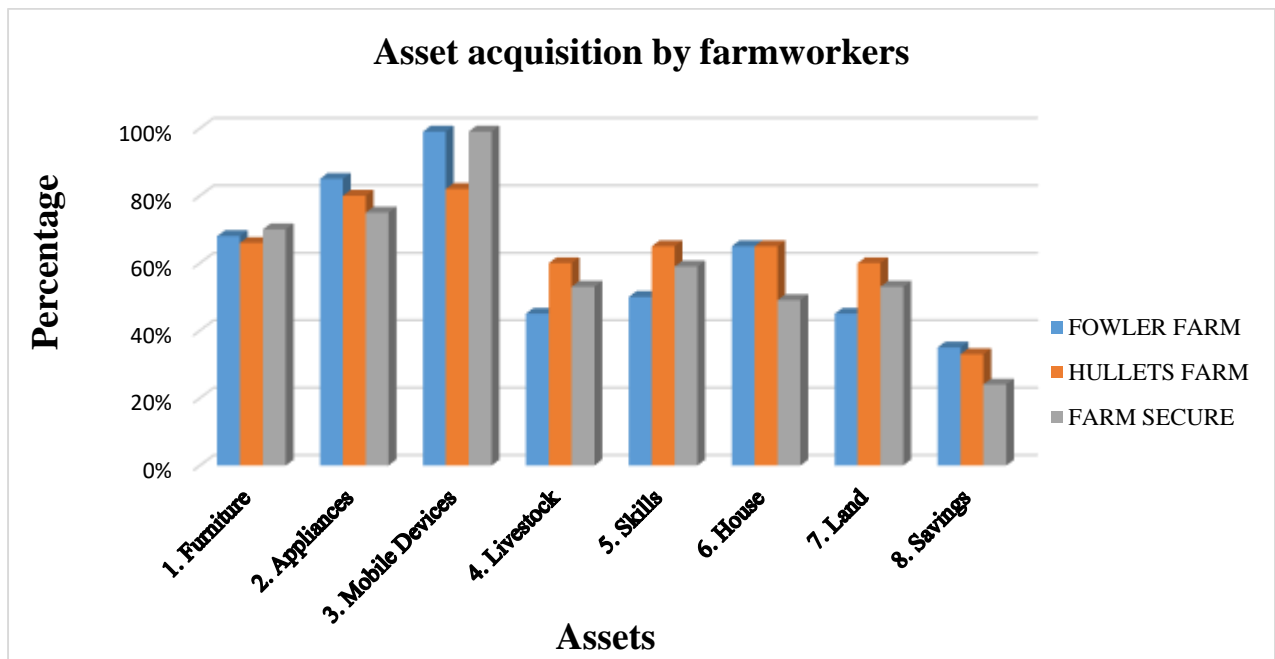
At Hulleys Farm, there were more male respondents (63%) than female. The males were relatively older, with ages ranging between 20 and 40 years. About 42% of them were married and another 42% were in a relationships outside marriage. Only 16% reported to be single, with households of between four to twelve people. Most of them had attained a secondary level of education followed by primary education. Female respondents were few (37%), and reported ages between 20 and 30 years. Most of them had received a secondary school education, and had households of two to seven members. 57% of them were in relationships outside marriage. All respondents were South Africans.

In the case of Farm Secure, about 53% of the total respondents were males, aged between 31 and 50 years, with most of them having attained primary and secondary level of education. About 50% of them are in relationships outside marriage, while about 40% of them are married, only 10% reported being single with household sizes of four to eleven members per household. Female respondents were relatively younger, with ages ranging between 20 to 40 years old, 67% of them reported that they were single and 33% in relationships outside marriage. A majority of them had attained secondary level of education. Women further indicated having family sizes ranging from four to eleven members per household which is the same as their male counterparts. About 89% of all respondents were South Africans while 11% were from Zimbabwe and Mozambique. From these demographic characteristics it can be seen that commercial farming plays an important role in providing jobs for people of different ages and gender. A particular issue to note about this case is that, mostly married men and women used salaries from farm employment to support their families which improved their livelihoods standards and outcomes.

### **6.3 Assess livelihood assets of farmworkers in the study area**

In this study, one of the objectives was to assess livelihood assets of farmworkers in the three commercial farms. In this objective, both the livelihood assets and basic livelihood necessities of farm workers were explored. Chambers & Conway (1991) asserted that the Sustainable Livelihood Framework is built on the belief that people need assets to achieve a positive

livelihood outcome. Also, as outlined by the International Recovery Plan (2010), farm employment is perceived as a livelihood strategy for farmworkers to earn that livelihood outcome. The following livelihood assets in the bar graph below (Figure 6.2.) were identified, as being attained by farmworkers through farm employment. The bar graph below showing assets ownership was constructed using the data which was collected in all three commercial farms, both in surveys and in focus group discussions.



**Figure 6.2: Assets acquired by farmworkers through farm employment**

The bar graph (Figure 6.2) above indicate variations in terms of asset ownership by farmworkers in the three commercial farms in King Cetshwayo District Municipality. In the bar graph, it is visible that the highest percentage of asset ownership relates to mobile device ownership which include the ownership of cell phones, tablets, and laptops. At about 99% of farmworkers in Fowler Farm, 82% in Hulleys farm, and 99% in Farm Secure indicated that they had cell phones which they bought using the salary obtained from the farms. The significantly high percentage of farm workers also indicated that they have acquired a variety of appliances which included fridges, stoves, microwaves, radio systems, television, iron and electric cattle using their salaries. Also a highest percentage is seen in the ownership of furniture by the farmworkers. The farmworkers outlined that they own furniture such as beds and headboards, coffee tables, wardrobes, room dividers, kitchen cabinets, sofas, tables and chairs (Focus Group Discussions, 05 November 2020). In the context of the SLF, all these assets are considered as

physical capital (Department for International Development, 2000) which are tangible assets. According to the SLF, these physical assets assist the farmworkers to attain positive livelihood outcomes in terms of improving their well-being and livelihood standards (DFID, 2000). In terms of livestock, skills, and land assets which are basically (physical, human, and natural) capitals as per the SLF, gender variations in the ownership of these assets has been visible in all the farms. In the graph above (Figure 6.2), it can be seen that the mentioned assets has low percentages of ownership as compared to furniture, mobile devices, and appliances.

In the surveys, livestock as physical capital was largely owned by men at about (95%) than women. When asked about this trend both women and men respondents indicated that in rural areas where these three commercial farms are located, culture and tradition is more prevalent in such a way that women are not supposed to own livestock since they do not have land allocated to them (Focus Group Discussion, 09 November 2020). Only men have the capacity of livestock farming since they are perceived as the owners of the land in the communities as motivated by culture and tradition. Culture and tradition in the domain of the SLF is recognised as the driver of livelihood vulnerability imposed on female farmworkers because of the limited opportunity and empowerment. In the Fowler Farm, one of the female respondent said the following when asked about owning livestock; “culturally, we are marginalised when it comes to livestock ownership in our households, our husbands are the ones who are in charge of livestock since they are also the ones who have all the rights to land, and ours is cultivating the gardens and doing the household chores” (Focus Group Discussion, 9 November 2020).

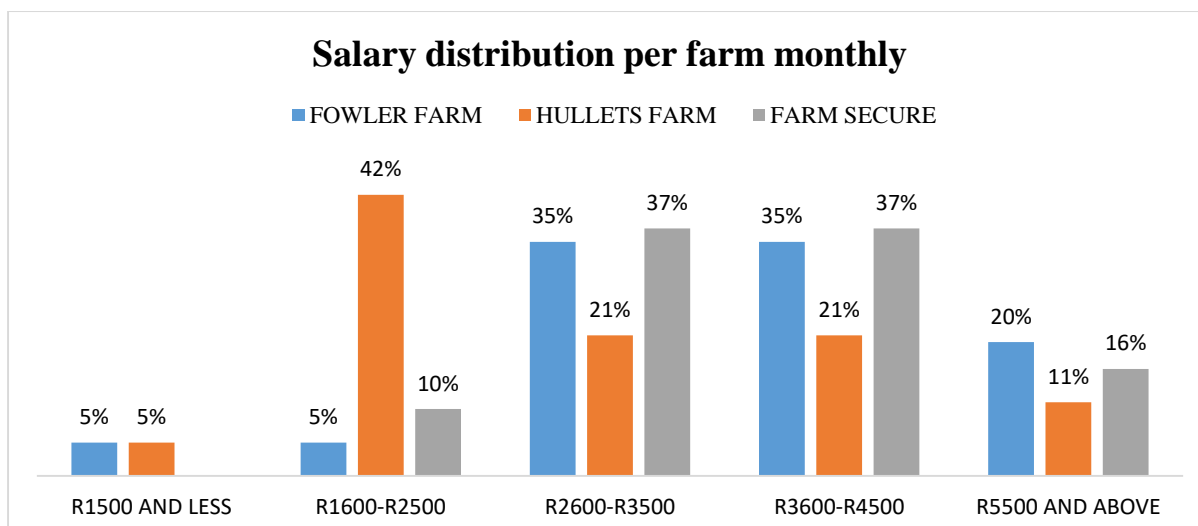
On a similar note in the same focus group discussion, one male respondent stated that livestock are owned by the ancestors because they are the ones who give one blessings to have them. Thus, no woman was entitled to own livestock because they were not heads of the household and thus were not recognised by ancestors. Only the man as the head of the household had the right of livestock ownership and also the one who decided what to do with it. The man further indicated that women were weak to be granted powers over livestock ownership and they were incapable of making good use regarding it (Focus Group Discussion, 09 November 2020). Clearly some of the views of the male respondents about women being powerless are against the law and Constitution which recognises all people as equal. This shows the need to educate men about equal rights.

Skills transfer as human capital to farmworkers has also been influenced by gender imbalances (Eisenstein, 1979). From the survey conducted on the three farms, it has been evident that work

that requires some particular technical skills was given to men over women. Work such as tractor driving, fertilising, supervision, pruning, soil ploughing, and irrigation has been categorised as work for men, they were the one given those skills than women. This also indicates the marginalisation of female farmworkers on commercial farms. This trend resulted in lower percentage of female farmworkers having relevant farming skills since such skills are largely given to male farmworkers. The SLF assist in understanding that the insufficient human capital (skills) given to female farmworkers on commercial farms further perpetuate the marginality and low livelihood standards of women because of reduced financial capital. This is a result of their being paid less as they could not do the so called 'highly in demand' jobs which, in turn affects the attainment of physical assets by women.

In terms of assets acquisition, it has also been evident through data collected both in survey and focus group discussions that those who earn much higher salaries on their farm employment can afford much higher percentages of capital assets, especially financial and physical assets. This includes farmworkers who were employed as supervisors, tractor drivers and irrigators, about 75% of whom were males in all the three farms. Farmworkers who did these jobs on farms reportedly earned a net salary of R5500 and above monthly particularly permanent farmworkers. The remaining 25% of farmworkers were females who were largely employed in low paying jobs on these farms. They were employed in citrus harvesting, gardening, cleaning and fruit packing and earned a net pay of about R3500 and less monthly.

In light of the above findings, the SLF has assisted the researcher to contextualise the value of capital assets in the livelihood outcomes of the farm workers, it is evident in these findings that the human (skills), financial (wages) and physical (mobile devices, furniture & appliances) capitals has indeed assisted the farmworkers in all the three farm to attain positive livelihood outcomes in terms of income, increased well-being and improved food security. The SLF also assisted in understanding that gender imbalances on commercial farm hinder positive livelihood outcomes. This is evident from the findings above that limited access to human capital especially farming skills, physical capital (livestock) and natural capital (land) by female farmworkers has resulted in the women not having enough livelihood assets which presents a vulnerability problem for women farmworkers on commercial farms. This in turn reduces the well-being and social empowerment of women especially in rural areas.

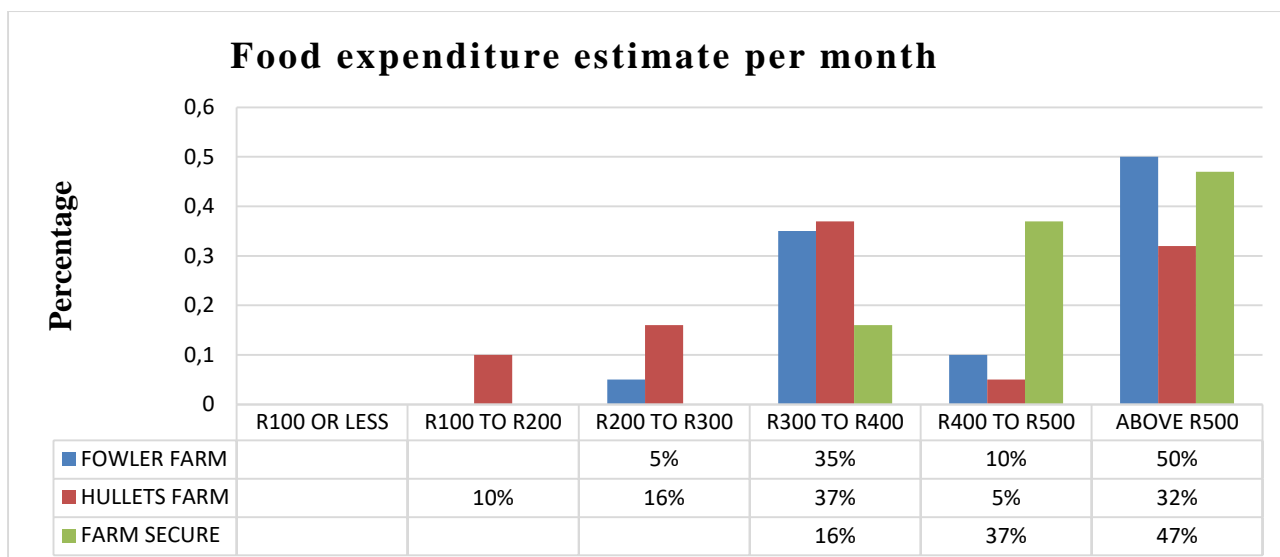


**Figure 6.3: Salaries paid to farmworkers monthly**

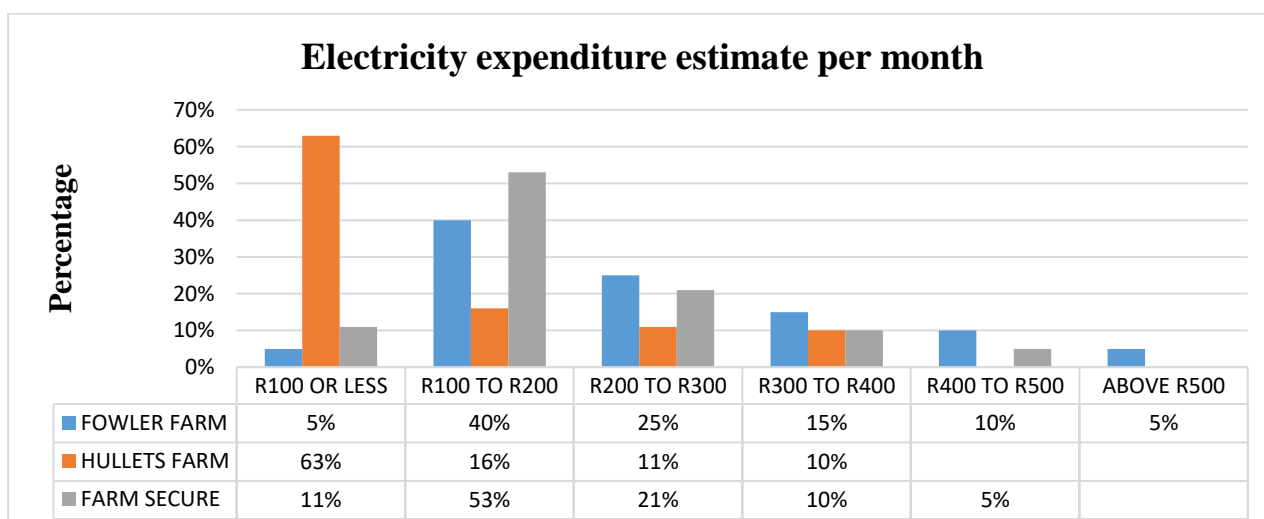
### 6.3.1 Basic necessities acquired using farm employment salaries

Chambers and Conway (1992) outlined that a livelihood comprises of the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. In this study, apart from assets acquisition, farmworkers in the three commercial farms also reported that they also use the income from farm employment to acquire some basic necessities for their households. According to the SLF, these basic necessities are significant in terms of providing favourable livelihood outcome which then improves the state of well-being and the overall livelihood of farmworkers on commercial farms. These basic necessities can be both tangible and intangible, specifically as both the physical capital and the financial capital (International Recovery Plan, 2010). Reduction of poverty and improvement in the standard of living, are the most important goals of the SLF and these basic necessities are aimed at achieving those goals. In this study, these basic necessities include food, electricity, school fees, transport fees, medication, food <sup>1</sup>*stokvel*, insurance, and clothes. The following figures (Figure 6.3 & Figure 6.10) provide monthly expenditure estimates of farmworkers on the mentioned necessities.

<sup>1</sup> Stokvel: this is a savings or investment society to which members regularly contribute an agreed amount and from which they receive a lump sum payment.



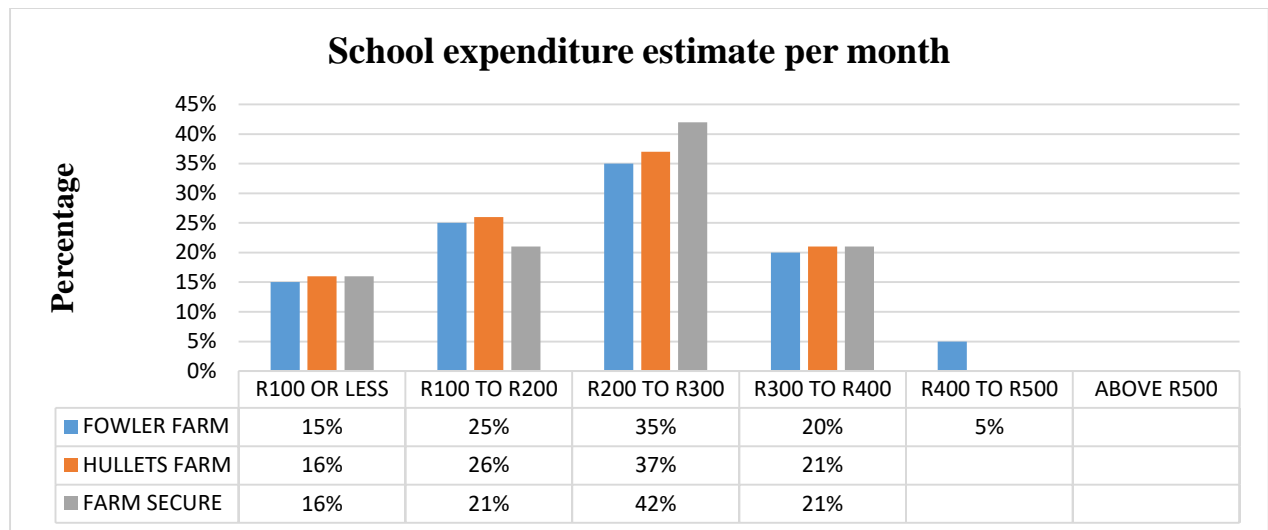
**Figure 6.4: Food Expenditure**



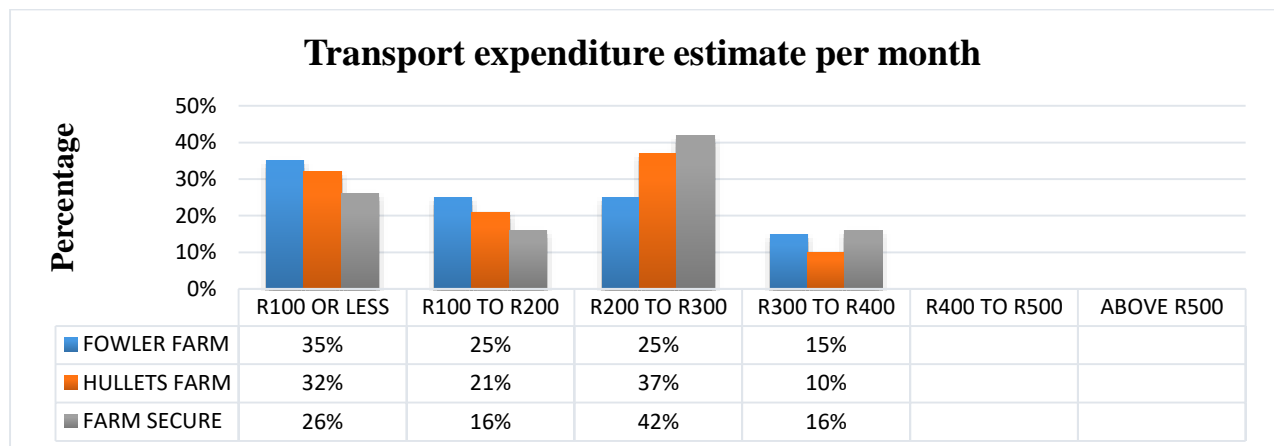
**Figure 6.5: Electricity Expenditure**

In all the three commercial farms, respondents indicated that they spent much of their salaries on food items for their household whom they supported. An amount of R300 to above R500 (Figure 6.3) was reportedly spent on buying food by both male and female respondents. During focus group discussions, respondents also indicated that they supplement their salaries with social grants (these are grants paid by the government of South Africa to people who are vulnerable to poverty and in need of state support, it includes old age pension, disability grant, and child support grant) in order to buy food which lasted them a month because their salaries alone could not provide them with enough food supply. An amount of R200 or less (Figure 6.4) was spent on electricity by the respondents. When asked if the amount was enough for electricity for a whole month, respondents indicated that residing in rural areas saved them a

lot from electricity costs because they relied on fire wood for cooking and water boiling, whereas electricity is only for lighting and operation of few appliances thus saving on electricity.



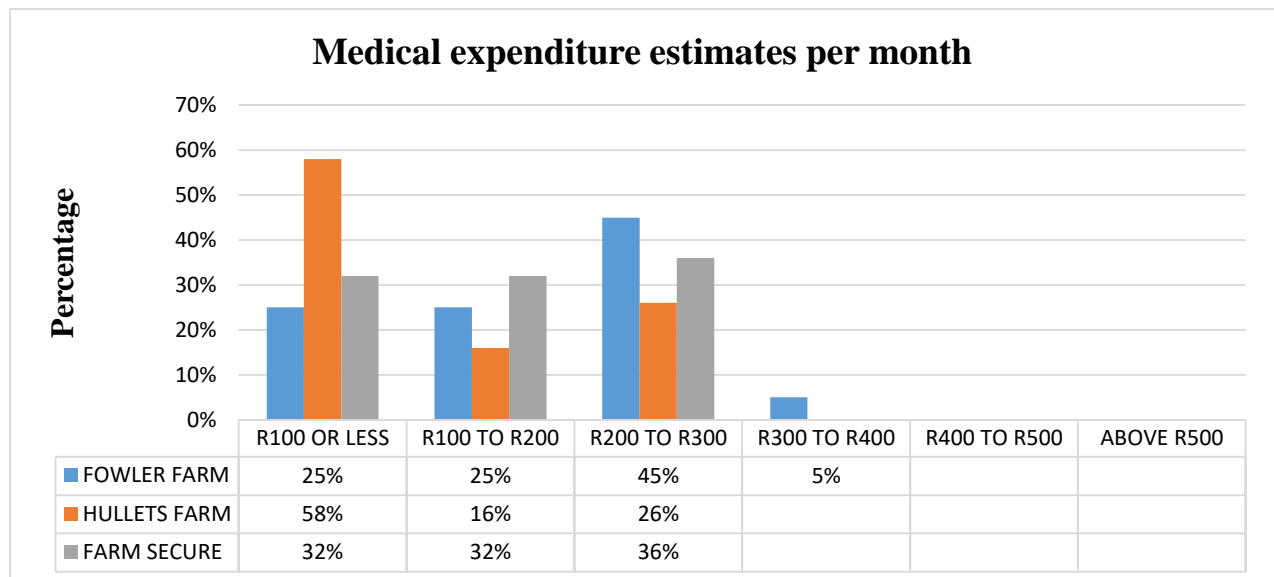
**Figure 6.6: School Expenditure**



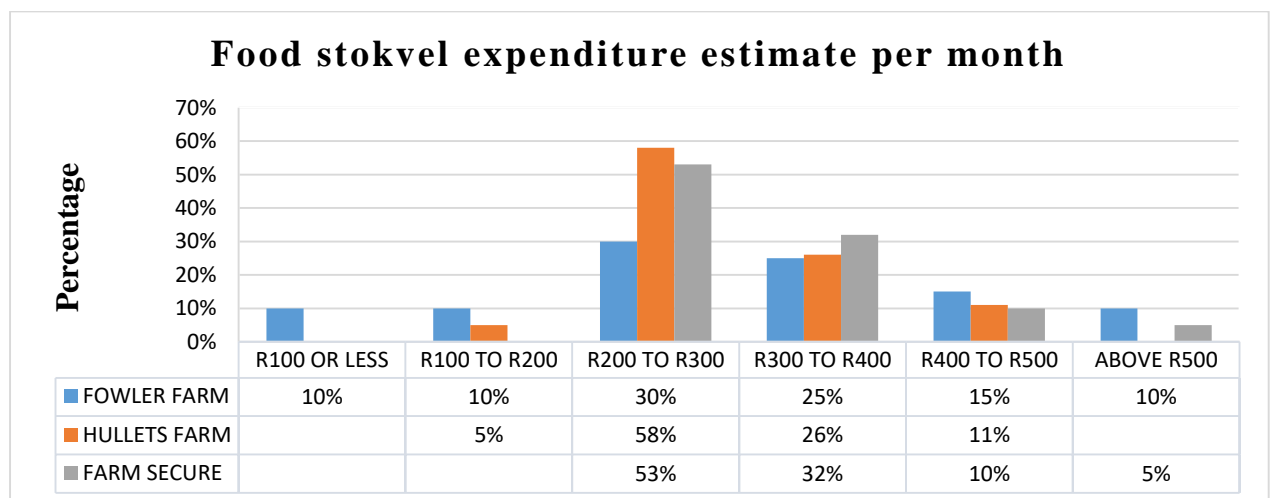
**Figure 6.7: Transport Expenditure**

The graph depicting school expenditure (Figure 6.5) above indicate that most respondents from the three farms spent about R200-R300 of their salaries monthly on school related cost. While the amount they spent seem relatively low for school costs, respondents indicated that most of their children attend public schools which make significant provisions for their children in terms of stationary, feeding scheme, and transport in the form of buses to transport children around schools in King Cetshwayo District. This in turn result in the farmworkers as parents of those children having low school monthly expenditure. Transport costs incurred (Figure 6.6) were reported for a once or twice a month trip to town in order to buy food to last them for the

whole month. When they run short of other food items before month end, they use local tuck-shops to buy those food items.



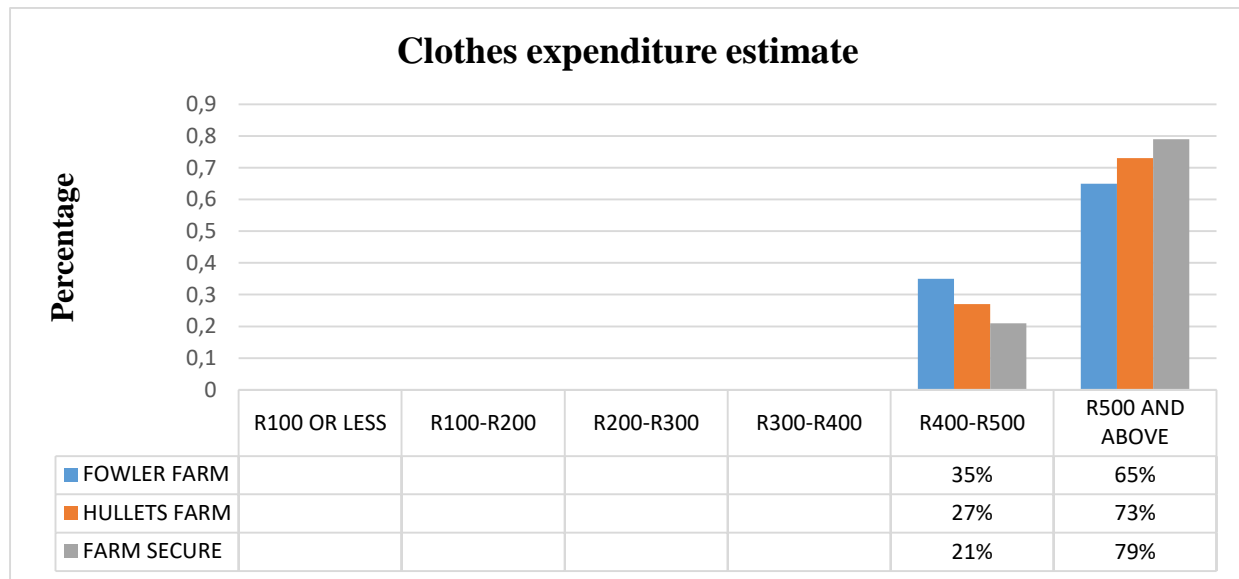
**Figure 6.8: Medical Expenditure**



**Figure 6.9: Food Stokvel Expenditure**

In terms of medical expenditure, farmworkers from the three commercial farms indicated less amount of money spent on medication. As can be seen on the graph (Figure 6.7) above that they spent mostly R300 and less of their salaries on medication. When asked during FGD (Focus Group Discussion, 13 November 2020) why they spent low amounts, respondents outlined that the availability of public clinics and traditional medication which is found within their communities assisted them a lot in fighting against diseases which may affect them. The

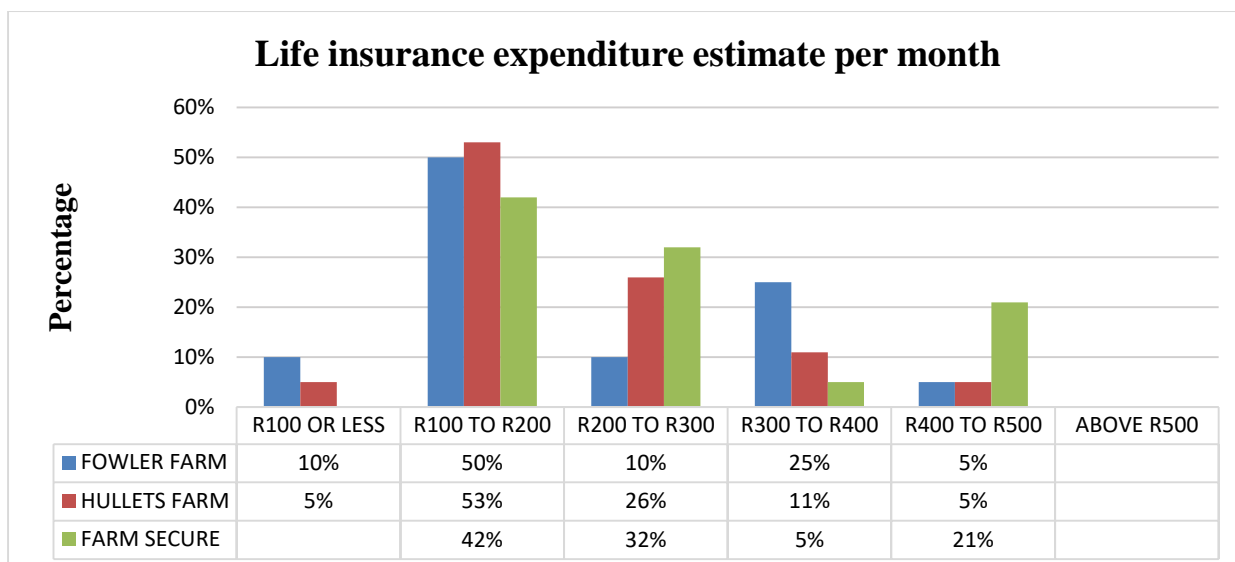
traditional medication (*imbiza*)<sup>2</sup> that respondents use against diseases highlight the power of Indigenous Knowledge Systems (IKS) that people in rural communities engage in to sustain their livelihoods. Another portion of their salaries was spent on food *stokvel* (Figure 6.8) that they engaged in which assisted them to have enough food. The respondents spent between R200 to R300 on *stokvel* in the three farms.



**Figure 6.10: Clothes Expenditure**

Expenditures on clothes (Figure 6.9) was the highest that the farmworkers on all commercial farms incurred. This was because the number of family members including children who required clothing was also high. In line with the SLF, clothes are very important and basic physical assets that are vital for protecting not only farmworkers in all the farms but also their families against harsh and sometimes harmful weather conditions which may cause severe health problems, even affecting their ability to work which then reduces their positive livelihood outcomes. These positive livelihood outcomes maybe in terms of reduced poverty and improvement in the quality of life and the standard of living of people.

<sup>2</sup> Imbiza: This is a Zulu name for any traditional medication made by traditional healers in South Africa.



**Figure 6.11: Life Insurance Expenditure**

Overall, the SLF assisted in providing a vital perspective that capital assets are the foundation of improved well-being and the standard of living of farmworkers. All the capital assets are equally necessary as they provide different values in the livelihoods of farmworkers. The SLF highlights that the human capital in terms of skills is important as it advances the opportunities for better employment on commercial farms which will in turn improve chances of earning high salaries that can enable farmworkers to acquire more livelihoods assets and necessities for them and their households. Considering all evidence presented from Figure 6.3 to Figure 6.10, it is evident that to a certain degree, salaries that are earned by respondents from farm employment had a positive role in terms of contributing to livelihoods. Commercial farms mitigate poverty especially in rural communities which are full of underprivileged households who live from hand to mouth.

#### **6.4 Employment creation and livelihood contexts**

This section discusses data analysis in relation to the second objective of the study, which was to analyse how employment on commercial farms in the study area affected the livelihood contexts in terms of, among others, the nature of social relations, provision of services, and the governance of farmworkers. The basis of the livelihood context in this study is provided for by the SLF that good working relationships among people, good governance of institutions, provision of services, proper policies and structures are all vital for favourable livelihood outcome (Chambers and Conway, 1991). This means commercial farms as institutions of work must be properly governed with proper policies to manage and protect the farmworkers. Also

there must be a good working relationship between the farm management and its employees, coupled with adequate provision of basic services for farmworkers. The provision of the mentioned livelihood contexts on commercial farms will then allow for a favourable livelihood outcomes for farmworkers. In the case of the relationship between farm managers and farmworkers, about 78% of the farmworkers in the three commercial farms indicated to have slightly good relationships with their employers. According to the farmworkers, this relationship that they have with their employers is built on the principle of mutual respect that they show towards each other. About 22% of the farmworkers reported that they did not have a good relationship with their employers. This 22 % of farmworkers are those who outlined that they have had some conflicts with their employers with regard to the issues of misconduct, perceived injustices and language barrier which hinders effective communication amongst them.

During the Focus Group Discussion, which was held at Fowler Farm with the farmworkers, it was evident that farmworkers and the management of the farm were on good terms. One of the respondents said, “we usually happy with the manner in which the farm manager here treats us, we feel respected and valued because we have never been treated unfairly by our employer instead when we are having challenges, he is always available to assist where he can without expecting something in return” (Focus Group Discussion, 9 November 2020).

The farm manager at Fowler Farm commenting on the remarks by his workers, expressed that he believes the farm is nothing without the farmworkers, so having a good relationship with his farm workers was something that he took very seriously (Interview, 10 November 2020). He outlined that the management approach that he adopted was that his workers were top priority because they are the ones who do all the work on the farm. He even pointed out that in case of a dispute and misunderstandings occurring on the farm, there was a workers committee that was appointed to represent the workers on the management structure which makes sure that all decisions taken on the farm are just and fair with limited biasness. This further assisted in having such a good relationship with his workers. This strategy has been reported by other farm managers from the other farms that cooperation and team work are key in sustaining good relationship with farmworkers in the farms. The good relationship that existed between the farm managers and workers assisted in making sure that farmworkers enjoy their work. Even though the work is hard, but with good working environment, it become little bit lighter and bearable. This suggests good governance of the farms and in terms of the SLF, this exemplifies

social capital which speaks on good social relations among different people engaged in a particular livelihood strategy (Chambers and Conway, 1991).

Table 6.1 below summarises the relationship between farmworkers with each other and also the relationship that they have with the surrounding communities. Table 6.1 indicate variations in terms of livelihood contexts of the male and female farmworkers on all the three farms. About 65 % of the female farmworkers indicated that culture affected their jobs especially on the matter of high paying ones. They indicated that, according to their culture a woman could not get a high paying job on a farm than men and this limited the opportunities for women. One of the female respondent in the FGD held in Farm Secure voiced that the issue of culture and cultural barriers results in women being undermined and exploited in commercial farms. She stated that women felt inferior and violated (Focus Group Discussion, 13 November 2020). In light of the SLF, this poses some livelihood vulnerability towards women because without being eligible for high paying jobs, they cannot afford to get all the necessities and assets that they require for a sustainable and favourable livelihood outcome.

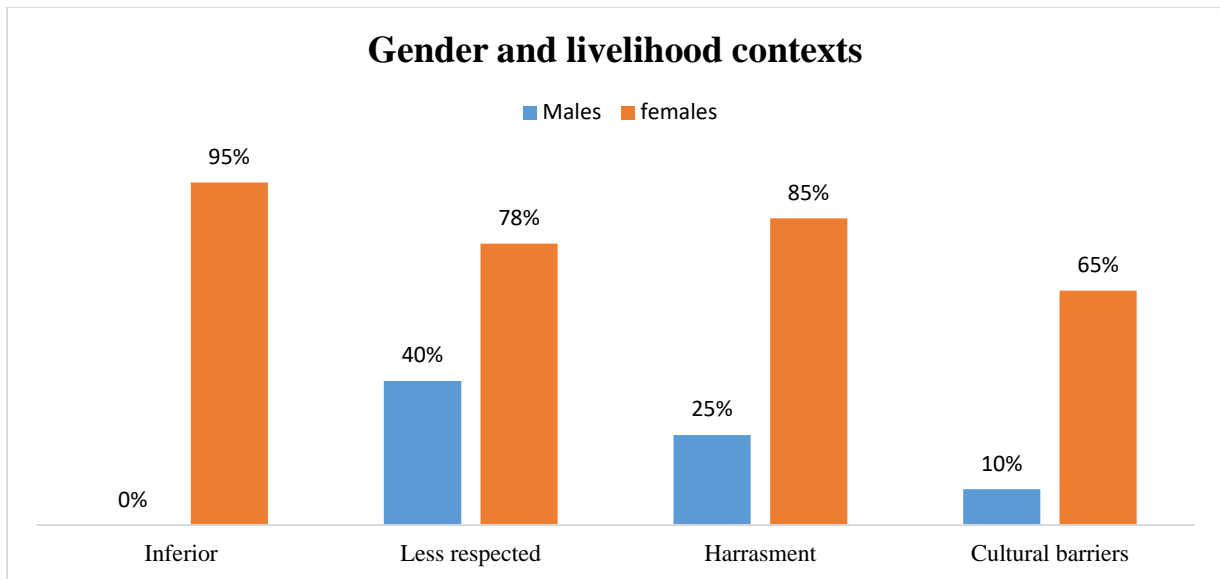
**Table 6.1: Livelihood context of farmworkers**

	MALES		FEMALES	
	YES	NO	YES	NO
1. Do you have clear sense of your ethnic background?	100%	–	100%	–
2. Does your ethnic and culture affect your job?	10%	90%	65%	35%
3. Do you ever feel inferior because of your gender?	–	100%	95%	5%
4. Have you been treated with less respect than others?	40%	60%	78%	22%
5. Have you ever received poor services because of your ethnicity?	10%	90%	–	100%
6. Have you been called names because of your ethnicity?	10%	90%	–	100%
7. Have you ever been threatened or harassed by your colleagues?	25%	75%	85	15%
8. Do you feel welcomed in the community where you work?	10%	90%	100%	–

Another aspect on worker to worker relationships on commercial farms is the issue of lack of respect towards farmworkers which in turn affects their working conditions (Figure 6.11). This

was particularly the case with women (78%), who felt that they were disrespected and this highlights patriarchy and masculinity in commercial farms. Patriarchy and masculinity fuelled bad relationships on the farms in which people were not working cooperatively which sometimes resulted in conflicts amongst them. Patriarchy and masculinity led to tendencies of harassment and threats against females, 85% of whom reported to have suffered this. The harassment reported by female respondents in the FGD in all the farms is not dominantly physical, even though there are instances reported which indicate physical harassment, but the issue is emotional harassment which is coupled with underestimation of women capabilities in the farms (Focus Group Discussion, 05 November 2020). This undermines the rights of women on farms.

The other respondents who reported harassment on commercial farms are the two male respondents who were migrant labours from Zimbabwe and Mozambique working in Farm Secure. These respondent reported that they found it difficult to be in good terms with South African farmworkers since they are always despised by them and they do not want to accommodate them as co-workers. They outlined that they are called names and subjected to harsh treatment by their fellow colleagues. This was denied by the South African workers who stated that they have no problem with foreign workers it just happens that they do not agree with them in other matters (Focus Group Discussion, 13 November 2020). One of those other matters is that migrant labours are easily manipulated by farmers and which in turn give them preference by farmers when it comes to farm employment because they do not complain much. Overall, these findings indicate that livelihood contexts are seen mostly affecting women on farms in a negative way as compared to men, with higher percentages of women living and working under extremely bad livelihood contexts on commercial farms. This also include migrant farmworkers who are also mistreated by the South African farmworkers thus, affecting their overall livelihoods.



**Figure 6.12: Gender and livelihood contexts**

Farm managers and farmworkers in all the farms reported that they also have good relationships with the communities surrounding their farms. Farm managers in all the farms indicated they seriously considered the issue of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) as the driving force of their good relationship with the surrounding communities. Fowler farm management reported that they have a good relationship with the Bedlane community where the farm is operating from. The management reported that they assist the community in a number of ways which include the supply of water in times of water shortages, timber for fire wood, and also books to the local schools. In addition, the Fowler Farm also reported to have assisted in building a house for a poor widow who resided in the community who was living under unpleasant conditions. The other two farms, Hullets and Farm Secure, reported to have provided the surrounding communities with food supplies during the trying time of Covid-19. The food supply was given to their workers as well as the traditional authorities of Entembeni and Obuka to distribute among their people, especially the poor to have something to eat.

Despite the good gestures that the management of the farms show to the surrounding communities, but about 99% of them reported some challenges with regards to the manner in which those communities treat them. These challenges include theft and also people allowing their cattle to graze on the farm lands which sometimes destroys the crops under cultivation. Their concern is that even if they report the matter to the community, they are not taken seriously or addressed and instead of these challenges to be resolved, they go on forever. In terms of theft, electric cables and other farming equipment also get stolen by people from the

communities which in turn makes it difficult for the farms to continue with their daily operations.

It is clear that in terms of the work place relationships, there is mostly good relationship between farm managers and farmworkers. This good relationship signifies the cooperation and good interaction between the managers and farmworkers, based on this, farmworkers in all the farms feel accommodated and valued which improves their work performance and their freedom. In terms of worker to worker relationships, females are still vulnerable due to the ill treatment given to them by their fellow male co-workers. In the context of the SLF, this stereotypical behaviour of men towards women directly translate to the lowering of the positive livelihood outcomes for women since some women may feel not welcomed on the farms and end up quitting their jobs because of the abuse by male farmworkers. The good relationship between the farms and the surrounding communities also signifies the important role of agriculture in the livelihoods of neighbouring communities. This means that it is not only farmworkers who are benefiting from commercial agriculture, but the rural communities are also benefiting from those commercial farms in terms of alleviating poverty and improving their livelihoods. It is also important to highlight that in some cases, there are members of the community who engage in some criminal activities on the farms which occasionally disturbs good relationships between the farms and the communities, and in turn affect the overall livelihood of the communities and the entire farms.

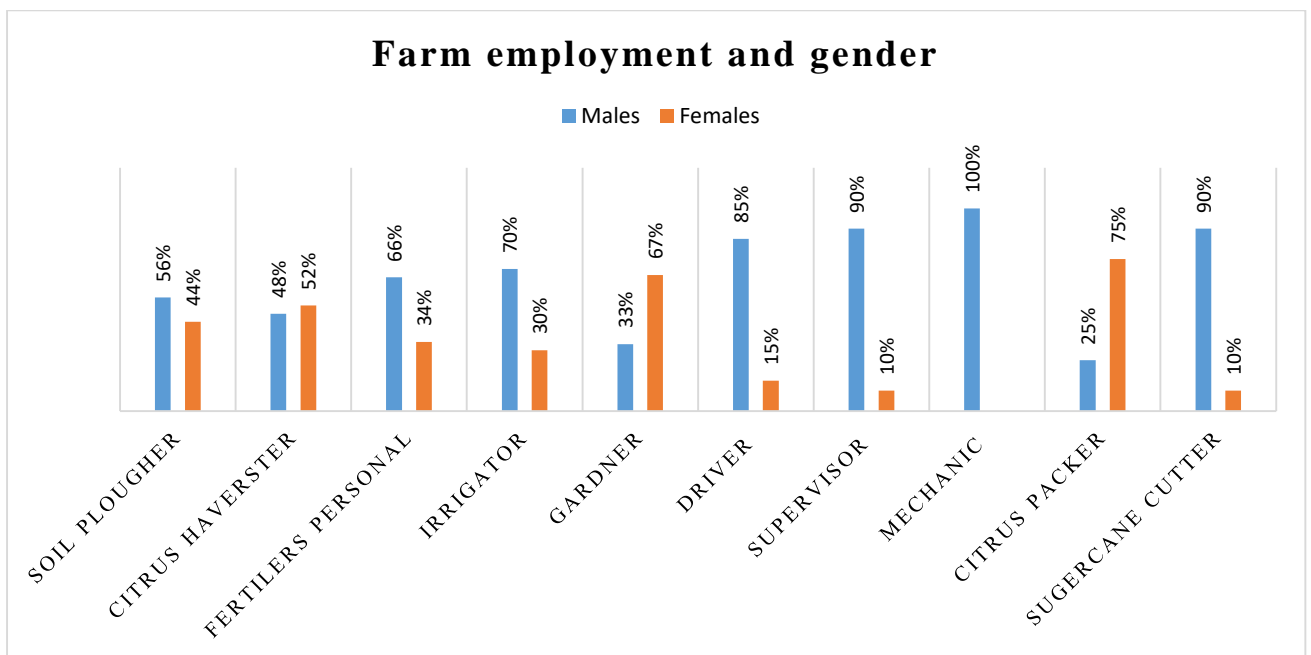
## **6.5 Employment and living conditions of farmworkers: Coping strategies.**

The third objective of the study sought to examine the employment and living conditions of farmworkers on commercial farms, and how they coped with these.

### **6.5.1 Employment and working conditions of farmworkers**

In the context of the SLF, the employment and working conditions of farmworkers are very significant for the attainment of the positive livelihood outcomes. This means that the employment of farmworkers on commercial farms contribute significantly to their financial capital which is crucial in eradicating poverty. At the same time, working conditions are also important for the health and safety of farmworkers on these farms. The findings indicate that there were variations in all the farms in terms of the types of jobs. The data indicates that there are jobs on the farms which are dominated by a men than women because of the perception that women were incapable of doing certain jobs (Figure 6.12). In the graph below (Figure 6.12), it is evident that jobs such as gardeners, citrus harvesters, and citrus packers are

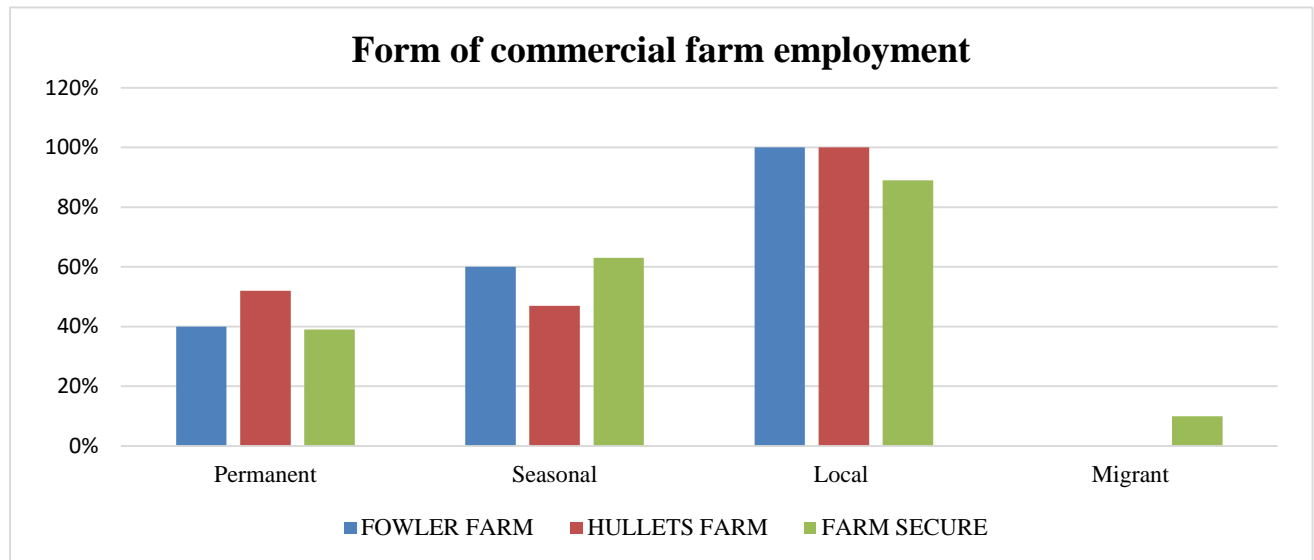
dominated by women on commercial farms than men. About 75% of fruit packers on commercial farms were women. These jobs which are highly dominated by women on commercial farms were however, reported to pay low wages or salaries to female farmworkers. This resulted in women earning significantly low salaries than their fellow male farmworkers. Gardeners, fruit harvesters, and packers receive lower salaries, with a maximum of R2600. On the other hand supervisors, irrigators, mechanics, drivers, and fertiliser personnel's receive relatively higher salaries with a maximum of R7000 from such jobs and mostly male workers are employed. These gender differences in terms of employment indicate a state where women on commercial farms are overlooked and exploited simply because they were seen incapable of yielding good results if employed in these high paying jobs. In terms of the SLF, this means that the human capital focus on commercial farms is highly directed to males than females. This is shown by the fact that in all three farms, the highest degree of male respondents were employed in high skilled jobs which also pays more money than other jobs dominated by females.



**Figure 6.13: Farm employment and gender**

The issue of minimum wage amongst the farmworkers on commercial farms is a problem (Bureau for Food and Agricultural Policy, 2018). Although the farm managers indicated that they adhered to minimum wage regulations, farmworkers have no idea of what a minimum wage is and whether they were getting paid in accordance with it or not. About 85% of them outlined that they have no idea of a minimum wage. The only thing that they were sure of is

the additional relief grant fund that was paid on top of their salaries as per the directive of the President of the Republic of South Africa, Mr Cyril Ramaphosa, during the covid-19 pandemic. In all the three farms, farmworkers reported that they received the relief fund from their employers.



**Figure 6.14: Form of commercial farm employment**

In both the Fowler farm and Farm Secure, it is evident from the sampled data that the permanent workers are relatively few as compared to seasonal farmworkers, whereas in Hulleys Farm the permanent workers were relatively more than seasonal workers. Fowler Farm and Hulleys Farm employed only South African citizens (Figure 6.13). In an interview with the Hulleys Farm Manager, he outlined that when they employ the workers on the farm, they prioritise employing people from the community where the farm is located because they know the struggles of people in rural communities, so they give them jobs. They also employ people from the other surrounding communities so that they will also fight poverty and support their families. He further outlined that it is unreasonable to employ people from other countries to work on the farms where there are so many South African needing jobs and living in absolute poverty. Less migrant labour (about 10%) is employed in Farm Secure. The higher number of seasonal farmworkers employed in Fowler and Hulleys farms was for the purposes of citrus harvesting (Images1-3). After citrus harvesting, the employment of those workers ended, indicating seasonality of their employment. It has been indicated that seasonal farmworker’s employment lasted for a few months up to five years whereas permanent workers reported seven years to more than a decade of employment on the farm. It is also important to note that the seasonality

of farm employment also poses some livelihood vulnerability to those farmworkers who were employed seasonally. This is because their employment did not last long, which in turn affected their livelihoods since most of these farmworkers regarded income from farm employment as their primary source of livelihood, especially in rural areas.



**Image 1:** FF citrus (Researcher: October 2020)



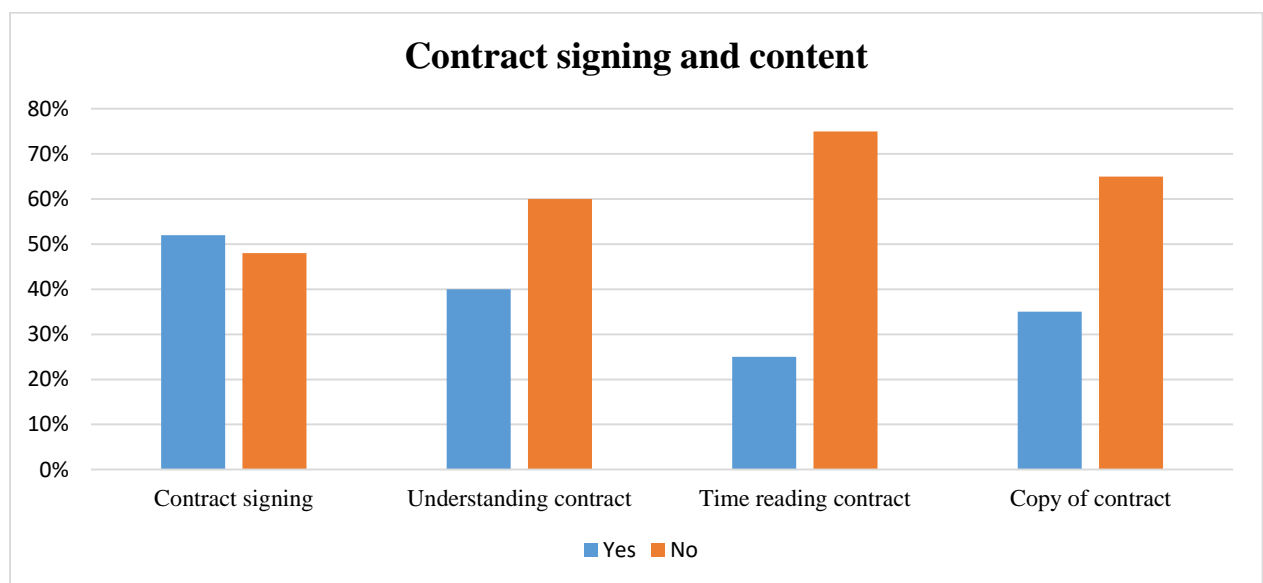
**Image2:** HF citrus (Researcher: October 2020)



**Image 3:** FS citrus harvesters (Researcher: October 2020)

In this regard, the SLF assists in the understanding that policies and regulations on the work place directly linked to the livelihood context of workers, seem to pose a challenge to farmworkers (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010). In this study, the contract of employment was not clearly understood by farmworkers in all the three commercial farms (Figure 6.14). During the survey (Survey, from 27 October to 2 November) conducted on the three farms, 52% of farmworkers indicated that they signed the contract, whereas 48% have not signed it. During the FGD, when farmworkers are asked to describe how the employment contract look like as well as its content, 78% of them had no idea, this indicated that they do not have a clue of what

it is, which raises concern whether they signed the contract as they claim to have or it was some other documents which required their signatures. Some, particularly seasonal workers indicated that, they were told verbally that they are employed for a particular period and after that period employment will be terminated. Understanding the employment contract, having a copy of the contract and finding enough time to go through the document has been reported by most farmworkers as something which they did not do or get a chance to do when they were employed on the farms (Prince, 2004; Devereux, 2019). What has been described in this part contradicts government regulation requiring that “when the farmworker starts work, an employer must supply a farm worker, with the following particulars in writing, a brief description of the work for which the farm worker is employed, the farm worker’s ordinary hours of work, the farm worker’s wage, and any deductions to be made from the farm worker’s wages,” (Republic of South Africa 2006, para. 9(1)).

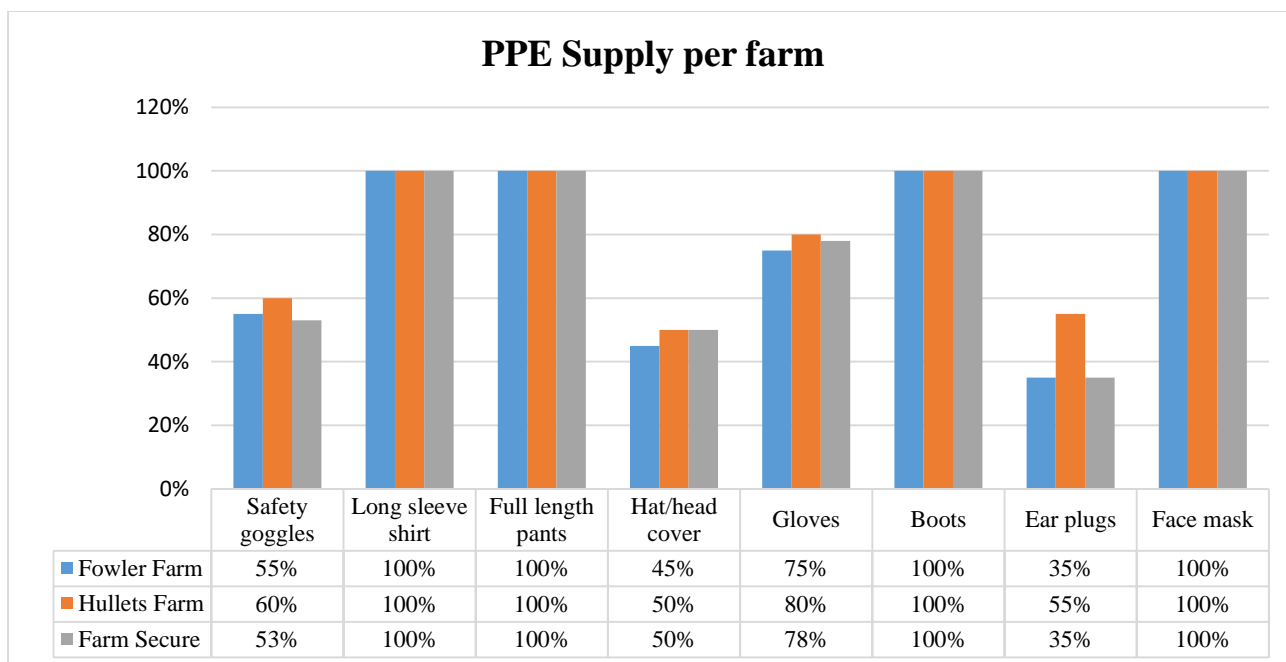


**Figure 6.15: Understanding of contract and its content**

During the interviews held with the farm managers of the three commercial farms, they were asked about the issue of employment contract and how they execute it with their workers, they indicated the challenge of illiteracy amongst some of their workers made it even harder for those workers to understand the content of the contract. They outlined that most of the time they prefer to verbally engage with their employees when it comes to explaining contracts and their content, because in that way it is easy to interpret the content of the contract and the stipulations in the contract that they needed to adhere to. By so doing, farmworkers then get an

idea of what they are signing for. This revelation made sense of the report by farm workers that they are verbally told about contract and do not actually go through it themselves alone. A similar scenario was evident in the study by (Devereux, 2019) who found that the supervisor or farmer in the Western Cape simply read the contract to the workers and ordered them to sign it immediately ('you don't get the contract to take home'). According to farm managers, some of the stipulations made on the employment contract include hours of work, deductions, leave days and holidays. In terms of working hours, farmworkers per week reported that they worked for a maximum of 46 hours, with a paid leave of about 21 days including holidays. The farmworkers reported that the only deductions taken out of their salaries every month is UIF (Devereux, 2019).

The graph below (Figure 6.15) provides information on the provision of Personal Protective Clothes (PPEs) to farmworkers on the three commercial farms. The first thing to note on the provision of PPEs on commercial farms is that the farm managers indicated during one-on-one interviews held in all three farms that each job on the farm requires a particular PPE. This in turn result in them providing PPEs as per specific job and not for all the workers on the farms. The Occupational Health and Safety Act (OHSA) affirms that: 'every employer shall provide and maintain, as far as is reasonably practicable, a working environment that is safe and without risk to the health of his [sic] employees' (Republic of South Africa 1993a, para. 8(1)). The provision of the PPEs on the farms are aimed at making sure that the health and safety of farmworkers is maintained. This is why in the graph below some PPEs are provided at a lower percentage because they were targeting only those who require such PPEs.



**Figure 6.16: Supply of PPEs to farmworkers**

For instance, safety eye glasses were only provided to citrus harvesters, soil tillers, fertiliser personnel, and tractor drivers which accounts for the lower percentage of provision. The same goes for head covers, gloves, and ear plugs which are most useful for tractor drivers to protect their ears from tractor noise. Some PPEs were supplied to all the farmworkers regardless of the jobs that they do on the farms. According to the farm managers, long sleeve coat, full length pants, and face mask were provided for all the farm workers on the farms. The issue of face mask provision has been fuelled by the outbreak of the Covid-19 which challenge practices on the work places for the protection of the workers. The managers pointed out that in farming, people who initially required face masks were people who worked with fertilisers and chemicals, but since Covid-19 started, they made it their full responsibility that every worker on the farms is provided with a face mask so to be safe from the corona virus. According to all the farm managers, these PPEs are provided to farmworkers free of charge without them paying any fee or deductions on their salaries. However, in case a farmworker loses the PPE provided before a certain stipulated period, the worker has to buy that PPE at their own expense.

Another important aspect of farmworkers' working conditions on commercial farms is the issue of safety practises in the fields where they are working and also the degree of commitment that farm managers put in place for the protection of the workers against harmful working environments. Table 6.2 summarises data collected on the three commercial farms on the safety of farmworkers during their work on the farm fields. The table displays the farmworkers

perceptions in terms of the maintenance of safety practices on the commercial farms that they were working for. This is done through the satisfactory model where farmworkers indicated in terms of strongly agreeing or strongly disagreeing with the manner in which safety practices are implemented and maintained on the farms.

**Table 6.2: Safety practices in the workplace**

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
1. Worker's safety practices are very important to management.	–	–	85%	15%
2. Workers are regularly made aware of dangerous working practices or conditions.	–	35%	40%	25%
3. Workers are regularly praised for safe conduct.	–	20%	66%	14%
4. Workers receive safety instructions/training when they are hired	–	–	88%	18%
5. Employer has regular job safety meetings/talks.	15%	33%	40%	12%
6. Proper safety equipment is always available.	–	–	90%	10%
7. Workers have almost total control over personal safety.	–	10%	78%	12%
8. Taking risks is not part of the job.	–	–	85%	15%

This satisfaction model was used to trace the manner in which the farm management dealt with the issues of safety of workers within their farms, this was done through close-ended questions asked about the management of the farm.

The data presented on the (Table 6.2) above indicate that farmworkers in all the farms mostly agree that indeed safety measures are put in place by the farm managers to protect the workers from harmful working environments in all the types of jobs that they do. Even though there were some farmworkers who indicated that they were not satisfied with the manner in which

safety practices are executed on the farms, but a significant percentage of farmworkers indicated that they are satisfied with the manner in which safety practices are maintained on the farms. About 88% of farmworkers in all the three farms indicated that workers receive safety instructions and training when they are hired in a particular job and that they are regularly praised for safe conduct (66%). In the interviews with the farm managers, the safety of their workers was regarded with high priority, they all outlined that farmworkers are the backbone of the farms, without them the farms will collapse, so the protection of their health and implementation of farm safety practices is of paramount importance. This is done through verbal meeting that the managers hold with their workers on safety working practices and also training in terms of handling different farming equipment and chemicals or fertilisers.

The health of farmworkers in commercial farms is another component that is affected by the working environment in which farmworkers are exposed to. Farmworkers on the three commercial farms were asked to indicate the level of danger that they feel their current job possess to their health. It was evident through the data collected that the farmworkers who felt that their jobs were dangerous to their health include about 85% of farmworkers who work with pesticides, citrus harvesters 76% (Image 6), and citrus tree pruners 80% (Table 6.3). Other farmworkers from other sectors on the farm indicated little or no danger posed by their farm employment.

The Occupational Health and Safety Act instructs employers to take steps ‘to eliminate or mitigate any hazard or potential hazard to the safety or health of employees’ (Republic of South Africa 1993a, para. 8(2b)). In Table 6.3 below, 78% of the workers who worked with pesticide in all the three farms indicated that they were aware of the side effects that can be imposed by such pesticides to their health. This was in line with the safety practices that all the farms are said to maintain in terms of training the workers specifically in their field of work and also constantly holding meetings to remind the workforce on the safety measures to be followed so as to protect their health. Farmworkers also indicated that when they get sick on duty on the fields or after work, the farm supervisors and managers swiftly sought medical attention for them by taking them to medical clinic in the surrounding areas. During the period of sickness, they were paid sick leave. The same applied to workers who got injured on the farm who are mostly citrus harvesters. During the FGDs farm workers indicated that injury occurred as a result of tree scratches, falling from the ladder among others. When this happened, they are taken to the nearby clinics and hospitals to receive medical treatment for their injuries. The Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Act (COIDA) affirms that employees

who suffer an occupational injury or disability at work are entitled to compensation from the Compensation Fund (Devereux, 2019). According to the findings of this study, most of farmworkers who got injured on duty were not getting compensated. This means they were not getting paid until they recovered and reported back to work.

**Table 6.3: Health and safety in the workplace.**

<b>HEALTH AND SAFETY</b>	<b>YES %</b>	<b>NO %</b>
1. Do you work with pesticides or chemicals?	45%	55%
2. Are you aware of the side effects of those chemicals?	78%	22%
3. Does the farmer allow you to go to your local clinic?	100%	–
4. If you go to clinic does the farmer pay your day wage?	75%	25%
5. Do you know anyone who has been injured while on duty?	60%	40%
6. Are people compensated their injuries?	25%	75%
7. Are you familiar with the Health and Safety Act?	25%	75%
8. Do you have toilets where you work?	100%	–
9. Do you have wash facilities where you work?	100%	–

About 75% of farmworkers in all the three farms who indicated lack knowledge on the Health and Safety Act which protect their health on commercial farms, also did not know proper channels to follow after negligence has been identified on the part of managers. This jeopardised the health of the farm workers, but in terms of hygiene all workers in all the farms indicated the availability of toilets (Image 1 and 2) and wash facilities in their places of work which was also good for their health.



**Image 4:** Toilet (Researcher: October 2020)



**Image 5:** Toilet (Researcher: October 2020)



**Image 6:** Citrus PPE (Researcher: October 2020)

Based on these findings, it is important to highlight that human capital especially in terms of the ability to work is very important for workers in all the work places since it translates to them being able to get paid. In terms of the working conditions of farmworkers on farms, the findings of this study indicate that in all the farms good working practices were maintained, safety measures were put in place and relevant provision of the PPEs to all farmworkers. This indicate a state where the safety and health of farmworkers were being prioritised on farms.

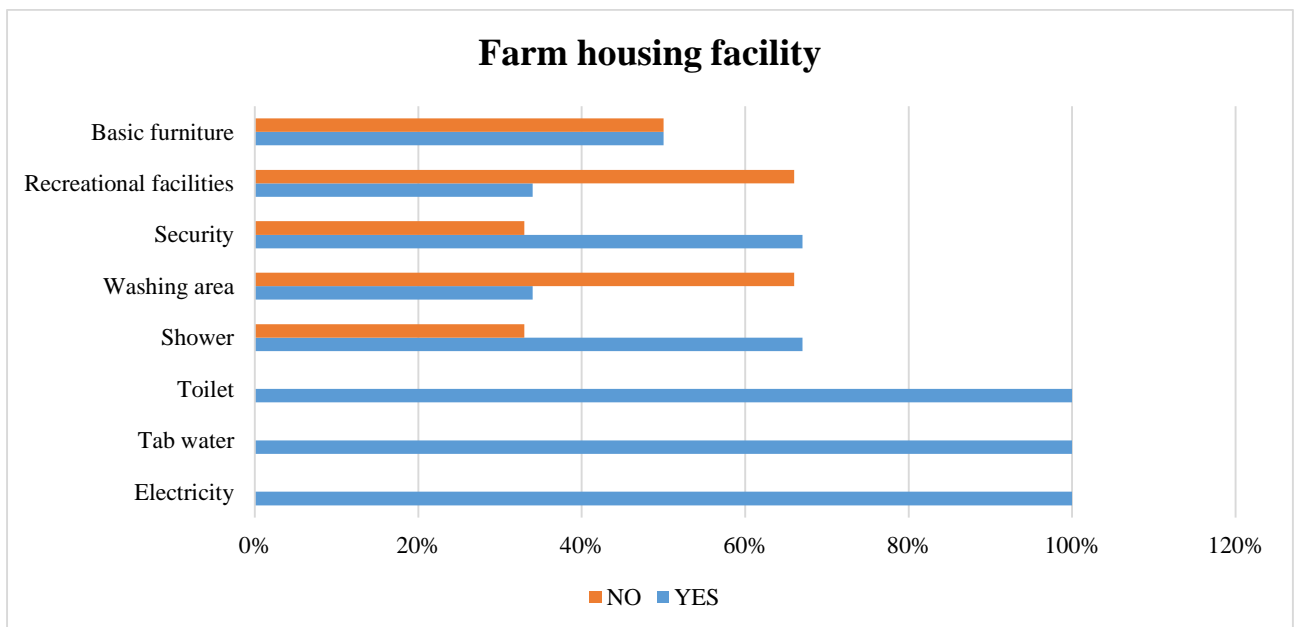
### **6.5.3 Living conditions on commercial farms**

According to the Sustainability Initiative of South Africa also known as SIZA (2020), there are housing standards that farmers should follow to allow for safe and well maintained accommodation of farmworkers. This includes the provision of housing which has a roof that is durable and waterproofed, glass windows that can be opened, electricity inside the house, safe water inside or close to the house, a flush toilet or pit latrine in or in close proximity to the house and the house must not be less than 30 m<sup>2</sup> in size (SIZA, 2020:26). According to the interviews conducted with the farm managers in the three commercial farms, it has been indicated by the farm managers that very few permanent workers live on the farms since they employ mostly people from the surrounding communities. The survey done amongst the farmworkers in all the farms indicated that about 33% of permanent farmworkers live on the farms which is in line with what farm managers reported during the interviews.

Farm managers also outlined that the highest number of farmworkers living on the farms is seen during citrus harvesting where they employ seasonal workers and provide them with temporal accommodation for that period. This is because during citrus harvesting period, people from very distant communities come to seek employment and it is not easy for them to commute to their homes every day. In terms of data collected, 85% of seasonal farmworkers

require temporal accommodation during their employment period. In the context of the SLF, the farm management in all the farms provided physical capital for those workers who live on the farms specifically in terms of accommodation which is coupled with viable sanitary measures. This in turn assist those farm workers to have a comfortable, safe, and healthy stay on the farms which also plays a very big role in favour for the positive livelihood outcomes.

Figure 6.16 below illustrates the housing conditions reported by farmworkers who lived on farm houses in terms of availability and unavailability of some basic and important housing amenities required to make their living conditions better on commercial farms. These housing amenities include electricity, tap water, showers, toilets and washing basins, and basic housing furniture.



**Figure 6.17: Housing conditions on commercial farms**

According to Figure 6.16 above, all farmworkers in all the three commercial farms indicated having in their farm houses (Image 7) three basic facilities namely electricity, tab water, and toilets. These farmworkers include both the permanent and temporal workers who live on farm houses. These basic facilities are one of the many which are gazetted in the Sectoral Determination 13 for Farmworkers under (Section 8). The provision of the three basic facilities was confirmed by farmworkers during the FGDs which was held in all the farms where they reported that such provision of these housing facilities make their living condition little bit better on the farms. In terms of showers or bathrooms, about 67% of farmworkers reported having them as part of their housing facilities, these are the workers from both Fowler and

Hulleys farms, whereas Farm Secure workers reported using the bath basins since showers are currently not working.

About 66% of farmworkers reported that they were not provided with wash facilities for doing their laundry, these are workers from Hulleys and Farm Secure, only Fowler farm workers reported to have a demarcated room with wash basins where they do their laundry. In addition, 66% of farmworkers reported to have no access to recreational facilities on the farms. The only farm which indicated the presence of least a sport ground where male farmworkers go to engage in soccer practice after work is the Fowler Farm. This sport ground is also used by the Bedlane community to host some events and tournaments. The information provided on working and living conditions on commercial farms indicate that the three commercial farms seem to put the health and livelihood of farm workers at high priority, even though the state of commitment vary with farms but more good things are reported than bad things with regard to working and living conditions of farmworkers on these farms. Overall, the findings indicate a state where farmworkers are working and living on the environments which are not harmful to their health and safety. It reduces vulnerability of farmworkers and creates an environment that fosters favourable livelihood outcomes for the farmworkers. In this study, a favourable livelihood outcome is that which assist farmworkers to alleviate poverty and improve their food security.



**Image7:** Farm housing (Researcher: October 2020)

## **6.6 The extent of the farmworker's awareness of South African labour laws and rights.**

This fourth objective of the study was to evaluate the extent of farmworkers knowledge of labour laws, rights, and unionisation on commercial farms (Devereux, 2019). Accordingly, farmworkers were asked to indicate their knowledge on labour laws and unionisation through surveys which were held in the three farms and also during the FGDs in the farms the same question was asked. The intention was to hear different perceptions and understanding of the above by the farmworkers. During the interviews with the farm managers in all the three farms, the same questions were asked on the measures that the farms put in place to make sure that farm workers know their rights coupled with responsibilities on the farm. Different responses were given by the farm managers regarding this.

### **6.6.1 Labour Acts, Laws and Rights on commercial farms**

Nelson Mandela once said, “We condemn the lack of legal protection for farmworkers and the gross exploitation which exists on many farms. We demand that farm workers be allowed full trade union rights. We speak directly to the magistrates in the courts in all the rural areas. Today, we are drawing your attention to the terrible miscarriage of justice which have gone on for decades” (Davies, 1990: 16). According to the data collected in all the three commercial farms, what the late former president Nelson Mandela said with regard to the lack of protection of farmworkers rights on commercial farms in South Africa is still prevalent on all the three farms investigated in this study. In a study by Devereux, Levendal & Yde (2017), it was found that recent policy changes have served the interests of commercial farmers rather than farmworkers. This study found that about 65% of the farmworkers (Figure 6.17) have no clear understanding of their rights as farmworkers.



**Figure 6.18: Farmworker’s knowledge of labour laws and rights**

Since farm workers do not know some of the rights and Acts that protect them as farmworkers in South Africa, this means they may not be aware even when their rights on commercial farms are being violated. In the context of the SLF by Chambers and Conway (1991) the lack of knowledge concerning relevant Acts and workers’ rights becomes a huge issue when it comes to the protection of these farm workers and human capital. In turn this lack of knowledge then affects the livelihood outcomes of the farmworkers, especially concerning the violations and injustices that they are exposed to unknowingly, resulting in negative livelihood outcomes.

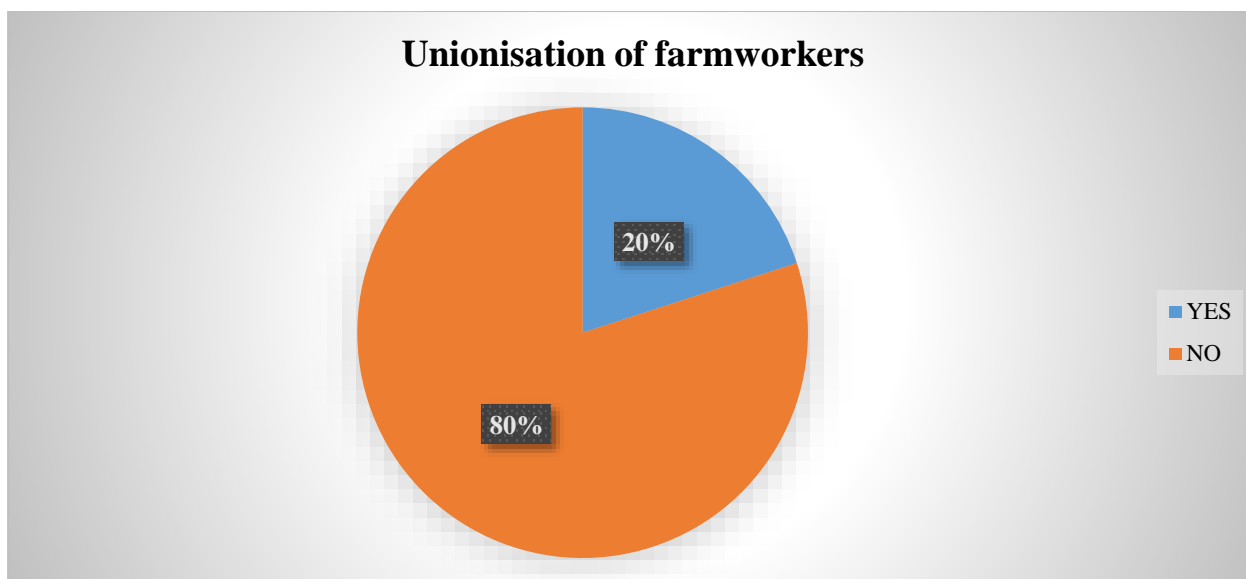
In the surveys as well as FGDs conducted in all the farms, farmworkers were asked about their knowledge of Acts such as Sectoral Determination 13 for Farm Workers of 2006, Labour Relations Act of 1995, Basic Conditions of Employment Act of 1983, Occupational Health and Safety Act, and Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Act (Devereux, Levendal & Yde, 2017; South African Human Rights Commission, 2011). A whopping 65% of the farmworkers in all the farms indicated that they had no understanding of the above Acts which aimed at protecting their rights on commercial farms. During the Focus Group Discussion held at Farm Secure farmworkers were asked about labour laws and right. One of the male respondent said, “most of us farmworkers especially the older ones have never been to school. So, having an understanding of labour laws and rights is a luxury for us since we hardly manage to sign or even write our names when we are asked to. When it comes to reading it’s a huge problem, so we listen to what we are told by the farmers and we adhere to that without complaining or asking questions about workers’ rights” (FGD, 13 November 2020).

This points to a great degree of illiteracy amongst farmworkers which hinders their understanding and conceptualisation of labour laws and their rights.

In response to the crisis faced by farmworkers on commercial farms, the researcher enquired about the measures that farm managers in all the farms put in place to ensure the protection of farmworker's rights. The Fowler Farm manager reported that as a farm they have appointed a group amongst farmworkers who represent the farmworkers on the farm, one of the many tasks of this group is to oversee the day to day proceedings on the farms and identify issues pertaining to the exploitation and injustices directed to farmworkers. If this committee gets complains or reports from the farmworkers about issues of violations or any kind of injustice, a meeting is then called with the management of the farm to discuss such issues in order for those issues to be resolved and a common ground found. After the meeting with the farm management, disciplinary action is then taken against whosoever is found at fault, whether it is the member of the farm management or the farmworkers themselves. This farmworkers committee is made up of the 35% of farmworkers who have some knowledge of labour laws and rights. There are also additional farmworkers who were able to acquire secondary education hence they are able to read and write. This establishment of worker's committees by farm managers act as a strategy employed to oversee the protection of farmworker's rights on commercial farms which will in turn, assist in reducing vulnerability in caused by exploitation and injustices directed to most farmworkers in most commercial farms.

### **6.6.2 Unionisation of farmworkers on commercial farms**

The unionisation of farmworkers on commercial farms in South Africa is still a challenge (Devereux, 2019). Section 23 of the Constitution upholds the right of workers to join and participate in a trade union and the right to strike. In a survey study conducted by (Devereux, 2019) it was found that trade union membership is low among farm workers in South Africa, and stands at only 12%. In the data collected from all three commercial farms which participated in this study, similar findings were observed where it was also evident that the majority of farmworkers are not part of any farm labour unions which are established in South Africa to protect and reduce injustices, violations, and exploitation of farmworkers on commercial farms (Figure 6.18).



**Figure 6.19: Farmworkers as members of labour unions**

In all the commercial farms selected in the study, about 80% of the farmworkers indicated that they are not part of any labour unions and they have never even been visited by one on the farms to talk to them. During the FGDs held in all the farms, respondents added that in rural areas organisations such as labour unions and other government organisation hardly visit. Studies have highlighted that one reason for this is the geographical isolation and inaccessibility of commercial farms, which makes awareness raising and recruitment challenging for farm labour unions especially in rural areas. The rural nature of the commercial farms drives the lack of participation and knowledge of unions which represent farmworkers since those unions never set foot on most rural commercial farms.

Illiteracy levels amongst farmworkers is also another component which fuels the lack of understanding information aimed at protecting them from exploitations. During the FGDs in the farms, it is evident that those farmworkers who are literate understand what labour unions are and what their role is on commercial farms. The only problem they had is that those labour unions never visited them on the farms and they do not know how to get in touch with them since they did not have their contact details. The issue of labour unions was further extended to farm managers during one-on-one interviews with them on their feelings and perceptions with regard to farmworkers being part of farm labour unions. What was gathered from all the interviews is that farm managers understood the importance of labour unions on farms since they make sure that farmworkers were treated fairly and just with no exploitation and violations of their rights. These findings contradict findings by Devereux (2019) who found that in most cases lack of membership in labour unions by farmworkers is a result of farmers who does not

allow unions on their farms. In this study the problem that farm managers outlined with regard to the issue of labour unions is that they do not avail themselves to farms located in rural areas.

A manager of one of the farms even outlined that for over the 10 years that he has been on the farm he was never approached by any farm labour unions seeking audience with his farmworkers. In response to that need, representatives were selected amongst the farmworkers to deal directly with the issues of farmworkers in terms of exploitation and violations of their rights. Only 20% of farmworkers indicated to be part of farm labour unions and mostly are supervisors and other farmworkers who took a decision to go in search of the unions and took membership individually without being recruited. As a result, more needs to be done with regard to farmworkers and labour unions. More information and presentations about labour unions must be given to farmworkers especially those who work on farms located in rural areas. Labour unions also need to avail themselves and make sure that rural farmworkers' rights are protected and respected in order for them to sustain positive livelihood outcome.

## **6.7 Discussion of results**

This section of data analysis is aimed at discussing key research findings which has been identified as per the objectives of the study. This sections explores those finding of the study in contrast with other findings from other studies to establish whether the findings of this study diverge or converge with findings from other similar studies.

### **6.7.1 Livelihood assets of farmworkers in the study area**

In Southern Africa, most households draw on a diverse portfolio of activities and livelihoods that not only enhance household income, but also food security, health, social networks and savings and that furthermore bridge the rural-urban divide (Mazonde, 2000; Shackleton et al. 2000). In this study, farm employment is seen as a livelihood activity or strategy employed by farmworkers to improve their livelihoods. According to IMF (2012) agriculture employs more than half of the total labour force and within the rural population, provides a livelihood for multitudes of families. Given its role in confronting the challenge of eradicating hunger and improving food security, commercial farming is continuing to act as a tool for improving and sustaining the livelihoods of a number of people especially in African countries including South Africa (IMF, 2018). The findings of two studies conducted by the IMF concur with the findings of this study specifically in terms of the livelihood assets of the farmworkers. It has been evident in this study that there is a noticeable value of commercial farming in the acquisition of assets and affordability of livelihood necessities by the farmworkers in all the farms.

According to the SLF, financial capital (salary) is provided for by farm employment which in turn helps the farm workers to attain physical capital to meet their needs (Scoones, 2009). As the results of the study show, physical capital has been reported to be the most capital that farmworkers partake in, this capital is in the form of mobile devices, furniture, and appliances.

It was also evident that the acquisition of assets and affordability of household necessities by farmworkers largely depended on the salaries that they earned. Those farmworkers who earned monthly salaries above R4000 owned many assets and also could afford to buy enough household necessities. This means farmworkers who were employed in high paying jobs were able to attain higher financial capital which in turn allowed them to have access to diverse capitals especially physical and financial (savings). The majority of male farmworkers in all the three commercial farms earned higher salaries than female farmworkers because they had higher paying jobs on the farms compared to females. The results of this study on livelihood assets of farmworkers reveals great inequality in terms of asset acquisition by farmworkers.

The employment of women in low paying jobs does not enable them to acquire and own enough basic assets for themselves. Some women indicated that with the salaries they get from the farms alone they cannot afford to acquire all the household necessities that they need for their survival. The vulnerability context as stipulated by the SLF is seen here, where female farmworkers are faced with a challenge of not earning much from their jobs which in turn limits them from attaining more positive livelihood. In this instance, women indicated that they used social grants from government as their coping strategy to supplement their salaries so to have some extra financial support for their families. The issues of gender in this study converge with the study conducted by Rutherford & Addison (2007) in Zimbabwe who found that many of the low paying farming jobs were reserved for women, with seasonal jobs in citrus pack sheds, for example, being given mainly to women while seasonal citrus-picking was reserved mainly for men.

The issue of land as an asset has also been seen favouring men over women on commercial farms, since all the farms are located in rural communities. Land ownership in rural areas has always been in favour of men over women. Almost 90% of male farmworkers indicated that they owned a piece of land which was a total opposite for female farmworkers who indicated that they hardly own land due to some traditional customs of the community which do not allow women to own land in rural areas. This issue of land indicate the high levels of exploitation and marginalisation of women not only on the commercial farms where they are

working in, but also in the rural communities that they are residing in (Rutherford & Addison, 2007; Hall et al., 2013). The challenges faced by women on commercial farms especially in terms of marginalisation and underestimation indicate a state where farm employment is proving not to be sustainable venture for women farmworkers (IRP, 2010).

### **6.7.2 Employment and livelihood contexts**

As indicated by IRP (2010), livelihood contexts are said to be situations or actions that a particular worker is exposed to which may result in obstacles or opportunities towards gaining a favourable livelihood outcomes. In this study, the results indicate that in terms of the livelihood contexts of farmworkers on the three commercial farms, there is rather fair articulation of the issues pertaining to the nature of social relations, provision of services, and the overall farm governance. Contextualising these results in the SLF, there is an indication of a stable value of social capital especially in the cases of social relations amongst the farmworkers and the farm management and also with satisfying farm governance. In all the three commercial farms, the nature of relationships between farmworkers and the farm managers is considered fair. In all the farms, farmworkers reported to have good relationships with the farm managers, despite misunderstanding and conflicts which arise from time to time, but the overall relationship is rated as good.

As part of deepening trends towards labour casualization, migrant labour has (often undocumented) become increasingly central to commercial agriculture (Crush, 2000; Landau, 2005). Undocumented migrants are attractive to farmers because they are easily accessible and disposable virtually on demand (especially for farms in border areas or along migration routes) and are therefore, vulnerable to a wide-range of abuse and exploitation (HRW, 2006). As the case of Zimbabwean and Mozambican migrants confirms, the employment of migrants has enabled many farms to adapt to the more competitive environment ushered in by sectoral restructuring. In this study, not much migrant labour was employed in all the three commercial farms, only 10% of them which are found in Farm Secure. As is evident in the study conducted by (HRW, 2006) that most of the time migrant labour is found on commercial farms near borders, this explains why in this study there are few migrant labour because all the farms are not close to the national borders or migration routes.

It has also been noticeable through the results of the study that there is still a serious issue when it comes to South African farmworkers and migrant workers. The two migrant workers from the Farm Secure indicated that they do not have a good relationship with their fellow South

African farmworkers. Ill treatment, insults, and discrimination are the top scenarios that the migrant farmworkers are exposed to on commercial farms (Vallejos et al., 2011). The ill treatment of migrant labour by South African farmworkers exposed them to vulnerability which in turn affect their livelihood outcomes (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010). This indicates that there is great deal of marginality and violation of migrant farmworkers on South African commercial farms as they are perceived by South African farmworkers as people who came to steal employment from them because they agree to earn less salaries which in turn makes farmers to prefer employing them (Landau, 2008).

The results indicated further that all the three commercial farms are providing basic services for their farmworkers, and temporal accommodation for workers who reside in areas far from the farms. The accommodation comes with electricity, running water, and sanitation. There are also bathrooms which have been provided specifically for farmworkers as part of their accommodation services. The provision of these services outline the stable nature of the physical capital in these farms which assists in making the livelihoods of the farmworkers favourable (IRP, 2010). The provision of services by the farms is even said to be extended to the communities that the farmworkers reside in. The farm managers reported that they also support the communities where their farmworkers are coming from in time of need, such as through the provision of water, firewood, or even food for people who live from hand to mouth in those communities. This is done by farm managers to create a very conducive environment where they are in good terms with the communities and also with their farmworkers.

### **6.7.3 Employment and living conditions of farmworkers**

According to Yeboah and Jayne (2015) the agricultural sector plays a pivotal role in employment in Sub-Saharan Africa, employing more than half of the total workforce. While its importance to the rural population is well documented, recent surveys suggest that agriculture is also the primary source of livelihood for 10% to 25% of urban households. However, Botes, van der Westhuizen, and Alpaslan (2014) found that worldwide, there is an increased violation and abuse of farmworkers, inhuman living environment characterised by housing that is not safe for the lives and health of farmworkers is still visible on a number of commercial farms. Their findings diverge with the findings of this study which indicated that in all the three farms the employment conditions of farmworkers are said to be fairly prioritised by the farm management. It has been evident in this study that all the farms made it their priority that they provide relevant Personal Protective Equipment (PPEs) for their workers specific to

the type of employment that they are doing on the farms. This means that the safety and health of the farmworkers in all the three commercial farms is of paramount importance to the farm managers and farm management at large.

Farmworkers who were found working on the fields harvesting citrus were found wearing long sleeve T-shirts, long trousers, gloves, boots and some wearing safety eye glasses to protect themselves from harm which may occur as they are engaging in harvesting. Those who work with pesticides were also found wearing chemical protective gear to avoid the exposure of their bodies to harmful chemicals. The most interesting part amongst all the three farms is that regardless of the employment type that farmworkers were doing on the farms, they were all provided with face mask since all countries globally, including South Africa are suffering from the Covid-19 pandemic which has already claimed lots of human life. Sanitization of the workers when they enter or leave the farms was visible and in the fields the same intensive health protocol was observed. Toilets and washing areas were also seen on the fields for farmworkers to utilise while they are still doing their stipulated farm duties (Losch, 2012; IMF, 2015).

In terms of the living conditions of farmworkers on commercial farms, it was noticeable that all the three farms do not have permanent residents of farmworkers who reside on the farms because most of their workers come from the surrounding communities and they commute to the farms from their respective homes. All the farms are said to provide temporal accommodation for those farmworkers who are not residing in nearby communities. This include the migrant workers who were found in the Farm Secure. In a study conducted by Botes, van der Westhuizen, Alpaslan (2014), it was evident that worldwide violations and abuse of farmworkers, inhuman living environment characterised by shelters that are not safe for the lives and health of farm workers were still visible on a number of commercial farms. However, in terms of the living conditions of farmworkers in this study, it was evident that in all the farms the accommodation provided for farmworkers was in hospitable condition with electricity and running water as well as with no on-farm abuse. There is also a provision of toilets and bathrooms for the farmworkers to use after heavy work from the farm fields, some of the farms have even a demarcated washing areas where the farmworkers residing on the farms are able to use for their laundry.

#### **6.7.4 The extent of the farmworker's awareness of South African labour laws and rights**

According to the South African Human Rights Commission (2011), the Constitution provides that everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law. No person, including the State or private companies, may unfairly discriminate, directly or indirectly against any person on any ground. In addition, everyone has the right to have their dignity respected and protected. These rights and privileges also apply to farmworkers who work tirelessly on commercial farms. Martin (2016) asserts that agriculture provides jobs and wages for workers who cannot find better jobs, both local and foreign. However, protecting the local and foreign workers employed in seasonal agriculture is challenging. Workers are dispersed across farms and may not know their rights. Even if they are aware of their workplace rights, local workers may not complain because they see their jobs as short-term means to earn extra money rather than careers, while guest workers may not complain for fear of being blacklisted and unable to return next season (Martin, 2016). These findings by Martin are in line with the results of this study where it has been evident that in all the three commercial farms, most farmworkers have no clear understanding of their rights which make them to be vulnerable to exploitation and marginalisation.

There is more that needs to be done in terms of labour laws and rights of farmworkers on commercial farms. The highest degree of illiteracy amongst farmworkers is seen as the biggest contributor to the ill awareness and understanding of labour laws and rights of farmworkers on commercial farms. At about 90% of all the farm workers in the three commercial farms have little or no idea of the laws and rights that protect them as farmworkers on commercial farms. This lack of comprehension of labour laws and rights by farmworkers on commercial farms fuels the exploitation and marginalisation and high degrees of injustices that some of the farmworkers on commercial farms are exposed to because when that happens, they have no idea of the laws and rights that can protect them (Visser and Ferrer, 2015).

According to Martin (2016) government policies toward hired farmworkers are not consistent. Many governments enact protective labour laws after particular incidents involving farmworker protests or injuries, but few have policies to encourage farm employers to abide by these laws and raise labour standards and productivity over time so that agriculture provides higher-wage and safer jobs for more skilled workers. Instead, many governments tolerate unauthorized workers and do not adequately protect temporal workers, leading to substandard housing and other deficiencies. Some argue that forcing costly labour changes on farmers

would drive them out of business, increase food imports, and eliminate “good nonfarm jobs” for local workers in upstream or downstream industries (Martin, 2016).

Farm labour unions in rural commercial farms are not available. In all the farms in this study, farmworkers reported that they have never been approached or visited by any farm labour union representative. The lack of farm labour unions availing themselves on commercial farms also accelerates the rate of exploitation and marginality of farmworkers on commercial farms. This is because they do not have a body which represent them as workers if they are faced with unpleasant situations and conditions on commercial farms. This indicate the tremendous need of farm labour unions to put more efforts on visiting the farms and doing presentations so that farmworkers will know that they are not alone and they should not suffer from any kind of injustices on those farms (Hall et al., 2013).

## **6.8 Conclusion**

This chapter has provided a detailed analysis of data collected for the study. The analysis of data directly responded to the four objectives of this study which were to assess livelihood assets of farmworkers in the study area, to analyse how employment on commercial farms in the study area affects the livelihood contexts in terms of, among others, the nature of social relations, provision of services, and the governance of farmworkers, to examine the employment and living conditions of farmworkers on commercial farms, and how they cope with them, and to evaluate the extent of the farmworker's awareness of South African labour laws and rights. The next and last chapter, provides a conclusion and recommendations for the whole study.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **7.1 Introduction**

This study consisted of seven chapters. Chapter one provided the orientation of the study in terms of the study background and the objectives that the study aimed to achieve. Chapter two explored the contextual and theoretical perspectives on the study. Chapter three reviewed relevant literature thus contextualising the study. Chapter four presented the physical setting of the study. In terms of the physical setting of the study, the study was conducted in the three municipalities under the King Cetswayo District Municipality, namely Umthonjaneni, Umlalazi, and Umfolozi. Three commercial farms were selected, one farm per the mentioned municipalities which are Fowler Farm, Farm Secure, and Hullets Farm. Chapter five described the research design and methodology that was followed in conducting this study. Chapter six presented data analysis and discussion or interpretation on the results. This chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations based on the findings of the study and in response to the objectives of the study, in which the following issues emerged.

### **7.2 Livelihood assets of farmworkers in the study area**

Livelihood assets are considered as very important elements which add significant value in the livelihoods of so many people, especially the poorest of the poor mostly located in rural areas (Grub, 2005). Farmworkers are amongst the poorest people in South Africa and the poorest formal sector employees (Hall, Kleinbooi & Mvambu 2001). In the context of the above narrative, farm employment is used by a number of poor people to reduce their vulnerability to poverty and to improve their livelihoods. Farm employment is regarded as a livelihood strategy which enables farmworkers to acquire some basic assets and also livelihood necessities to alleviate poverty and improve their livelihood standards. In this study it was found that farm employment played a significant role in the livelihoods of all farmworkers in the three commercial farms. This is because farm employment enabled farm workers to acquire some basic livelihood assets mostly in the form of physical assets and also basic necessities using salaries that they obtain from farm employment. In the light of this, it can be stated that the first objective of this research which was to assess livelihood assets of farmworkers in the study area has been achieved.

### **7.3 Employment on commercial farms and livelihood contexts**

The IRP (2010) explains that livelihoods are formed within social, economic, environmental and political contexts. Institutions, processes and policies, such as markets, social norms, and ownership of land policies affect the ability to access and use assets for a favourable outcome. The changes in these contexts create livelihood obstacles or opportunities. Livelihood contexts include social relations, social and political organisation, governance, and service delivery (IRP, 2010). As it is indicated in the Sustainable Livelihood Framework, livelihood context can result into constrains or opportunities towards the livelihoods of people (Chambers and Conway, 1999). A number of studies indicate that farmworkers worldwide are exposed to tremendous challenges in commercial farms which expose them to vulnerability and exploitation, these challenges include cycle of poverty, which is not only financial poverty, but is also expressed by lack of access to services, inadequate housing and sanitation facilities and a high illiteracy rate (Hall, Kleinbooi & Mvambu 2001; Borat et al. 2001; Kritzinger, 2002; South African Human Rights Commission, 2011; Kerr, 2017; Grub, 2005).

However, in this study it was evident that most livelihood constrains were facing women and migrant farmworkers in all the three commercial farms. The issue of women being underestimated and exploited is prevalent on commercial farms. Most women on commercial farms are employed in low paying jobs, and most of them are employed on contractual basis which indicate that for women, the farm employment is hardly sustainable. Abuses of women and migrant farmworkers are also prevalent on some of the farms. The abuse of women was due to patriarchy. In addition, ill treatment was also directed to migrant farmworkers by the South African co-workers especially men. They mistreat and abuse the migrants based on the perception that the migrants stole their jobs on the farms. These constrains faced by women and migrant workers on commercial farms therefore expose them to livelihood vulnerability which limit them from obtaining a positive livelihood outcome. Most South African male farmworkers on commercial farms are exposed to better livelihood contexts, this include their employment in high paying jobs which increases their financial capital, and also their chances of permanent employment on the farms. They are also advanced when it comes to human capital because of the skill and knowledge that they are given by farmers which in turn increases their capital base. In response to the second objective, it can be stated that livelihood contexts plays a vital role towards livelihood outcomes of farmworkers, this is due to the fact that they can result in both favourable and unfavourable livelihood outcomes based on the opportunities and constrains in the working environment.

#### **7.4 Employment and living conditions of farmworkers**

In this study, it was evident that in all the three farms, the employment or working conditions of farmworkers are significantly better. It has been reported in the study that in all the three farms, farmworkers were provided with relevant Personal Protective Clothing which was specific to the type of employment that they are doing. Farmworkers in citrus harvesting in all the farms were provided with long-sleeve T-shirts, trousers, hand gloves, eye protective glasses, and face masks, furthermore those who were tractor drivers were provided with ear plugs to protect themselves from the noise pollution produced by the tractor, fertiliser personnel were provided with protective gear to protect their health against harmful chemicals. Hygiene on the fields was also maintained where all the farms provided toilets and wash areas on the fields to be utilised by farmworkers as they were busy working. Overall, in terms of working conditions of farmworkers in all the farms, this study found a tremendous role played by farmers in the protection of the lives and health of their workers. The protection of the health of farmworkers on the farms reduces vulnerability especially in terms of human capital where the ability of workers to work increases their financial capital which can even lead to them attaining capital assets to improve their livelihood standards and fight against poverty and food insecurity.

According to SIZA (2020; 19), “it is the responsibility of the employer to ensure that health and safety management systems are developed and implemented to ensure the safety and wellbeing of all housing occupants. The employer should provide adequate resources to ensure that all facilities are kept in a good condition and that health and safety systems are in place which will ensure the safety and health of all housing occupants”. This has been a priority of the farmers in all the farms and the study established that, farmers made sure that farm houses were in good condition to be occupied even by the temporal farmworkers. Most of the basic services that are required as per the standards of SIZA (2020) were provided for in the farm housing. Water and sanitation were provided in all the farm houses, electricity, bathrooms and washing areas also were reported to be existing in all the farms. The provision of safety housing to farmworkers on commercial farms protect their health and allow them to have a safe and healthy living environment. In response to the third objective of the study, it can be stated that although the living conditions of farmworkers on commercial farms cannot be described as excellent, they generally meet the barest minimum standards. It is accepted that there are challenges faced by farmworkers on the farms, but there is a significant role that farmers play in making sure that farmworkers are living under good conditions. In other words, farm owners

try to provide conditions which are not harmful toward the health of farm workers; this in turn advances the human capital of farmworkers and adds value to the financial capital of farmworkers.

### **7.5 The extent of the farmworker's awareness of South African labour laws and rights.**

The South African Constitution provides rights for every South African whether young or old. These rights also extend to farmworkers on South African commercial farms in terms of Acts and Laws which guide the manner in which commercial farms should operate (SAHRC, 2011; Grub, 2005). In this study, the farmworkers' awareness to South African labour laws and rights was almost non-existent. The farmworkers did not have enough knowledge about their rights as farmworkers on commercial farms. This challenge is indicated to be highly motivated by the fact that the illiteracy rate amongst farmworkers in South African commercial farms is exceedingly high, and it prevents a significant number of farmworkers to have a clear comprehension of labour laws which protect farmworkers rights on commercial farms (duToit 1992 and Atkinson 2007). However, it has also been evident in this study that the absence and/or non-visibility of farmworkers unions on commercial farms compounds this problem. This indicates a huge challenge that is faced by farmworkers on commercial farms in rural areas and this leads to their vulnerability and marginality which negatively impacts on the attainment of a favourable livelihood outcome.

## **7.6 RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **7.6.1 Recommendations to the farmworkers**

Based on the findings of this study, it is evident that farmworkers on commercial farms are struggling when it comes to social relation issues on the farms in which women and migrant workers are not fairly treated. Based on these issues, this study recommends the following;

(a) South Africans are well known as a nation which subscribes to <sup>3</sup>*Ubuntu* which promotes togetherness and cooperation amongst the people. All farmworkers should recognise this value for them to live and work together in an environment which does not discriminate nor provide stereotypes against other people.

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<sup>3</sup> Ubuntu: A Zulu phrase which literally mean a person is a person through other people, its advocates for humanity.

### **7.6.2 Recommendations to the King Cetshwayo District Municipality**

King Cetshwayo District is a district that serves a number of rural communities which are largely dominated by the commercial farms which provide employment for a significant number of people from those rural areas. Based on this, this study recommends that;

(a) All commercial farms around the district must be held accountable for the manner in which they treat their employees and the communities that they are operating in. Corporate Social Responsibility must be provided for by all the farms in the district. All the farms should assist to develop the communities that they are operating in through providing services to improve the livelihood of rural communities.

(b) King Cetshwayo District Municipality intensify the visibility of the Department of Labour and also do random visits on commercial farms operating in the district to make sure that they comply with all the labour regulation and also to make sure that the rights of farmworkers are protected.

### **7.6.3 Recommendations to the labour unions**

According to Section 23 of the Constitution, workers have the right to join and participate in a trade union and the right to strike. Devereux (2019) asserted that trade union membership is low among farm workers in South Africa, and stands at only 12% in our survey. Therefore, it is the rights of all farmworkers to be part of any labour unions that they want to join as part of their employment on commercial farms (SAHRC, 2011). Farm labour unions provide protection for the workers to make sure that their rights are not violated and that injustices and exploitations on work places are not prevalent. It due to these reasons that this study recommends that;

(a) Farm labour unions should shift their focus to commercial farms that are largely located in rural communities. This is where there is lack or even absence of farmworkers who are members or have knowledge of labour unions who deal specifically with the issues pertaining farmworkers on commercial farms. This requires urgent attention by the farm labour unions because their absence on commercial farms in rural areas results in farmworkers being exploited and subjected to a number of injustices and ill treatment on the farms since the majority of them are not educated and cannot even comprehend some of their rights.

#### **7.6.4 Recommendation to the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies, University of Zululand.**

The University of Zululand is one of the South African universities which are located in rural communities. Based on this, the university serves a number of students who come from those rural communities which are largely dominated by commercial farming and most of the relatives of the students derives their employment on those commercial farms to improve their livelihoods. There are also students who are being educated by parents using the income they derived from farm employment. It is recommended that;

(a) More students in Department of Geography and Environmental Studies are encouraged to undertake studies around commercial agriculture and livelihoods. By so doing more information on the value, contribution and problems facing commercial farm workers will be available. This will further broaden the understanding of the challenges in the commercial farming sector and how different stakeholders need to intervene so as to improve the conditions of farmworkers in general and other relevant issues.

#### **7.6.5 Suggestions for further research**

This study was delimited to a particular scope and therefore other elements encountered during the study fell outside of the study's intended investigation. For these reasons, the following are suggested as possible areas for further research;

(a) Women are underestimated on commercial farms and largely employed on low paying jobs as compared to their fellow men workers. It is suggested that a study aimed at assessing the effects of patriarchy and masculinity in the livelihoods of female farmworkers on commercial farms be done.

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**ANNEXURE A**  
**PARTICIPANT INFORMED CONSENT DECLARATION**  
**INFORMED CONSENT DECLARATION**  
**(Participant)**

Project Title: Assessing the effects of large-scale commercial farming on the livelihoods of farmworkers in King Cetshwayo District Municipality, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

Lindokuhle Nene from the Department of Geography, University of Zululand has requested my permission to participate in the above-mentioned research project.

The nature and the purpose of the research project and of this informed consent declaration have been explained to me in a language that I understand.

I am aware that:

1. The purpose of the research project is \_\_\_\_\_
2. The University of Zululand has given ethical clearance to this research project, and I have seen/may request to see the clearance certificate.
3. By participating in this research project I shall be contributing towards:
  - a) The understanding of farmworkers livelihoods on commercial farms of South Africa.
  - b) Outlining the state of living and working conditions of farmworkers in commercial farms.
  - c) Share knowledge on the issues around farmworkers and their awareness to labour laws and rights.
- 4 I shall participate in the project by answering questions relating to the research project and overarching research questions.
5. My participation is entirely voluntary. Should I at any stage wish to withdraw my participation, I may do so without any negative consequences.
6. I shall not be compensated for participating in the research, but my out-of-pocket expenses will be reimbursed.
7. There may be risks associated with my participation in the project. I am aware that
  - a) The following risk is associated with my participation: divulging of personal information.
  - b) The following steps have been taken to prevent the risks: Confidentiality clauses
  - c) There is a 0% chance of the risk materialising.
8. The researcher intends publishing the research results in the form of a dissertation and research journals. However, confidentiality and anonymity of records will be maintained and my name and identity will not be revealed to anyone who has not been involved in the conduct of the research.



## ANNEXURE B

### QUESTIONS FOR FARMWORKERS

#### INSTRUCTIONS

This work is for my Master's research project. Please indicate your answers as honestly as possible. The work focuses on the impact of commercial farming on the livelihoods of farmworkers in the King Cetshwayo District Municipality. The questionnaire is divided into four sections. These are both structured and semi-structured. I do not expect you to write your name anywhere on this questionnaire. Use **X** to indicate your answer where necessary. Your contribution will be highly appreciated.

#### SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

**Farm Name:** .....

**Farm Location:** .....

##### 1. Gender

Male	Female

##### 2. Age

20-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	Above 70

##### 3. Race

African	Coloured	Indian	White	Other (specify)

##### 4. Country of Origin

South Africa	Zimbabwe	Mozambique	Nigeria	Ghana	Other (specify)

##### 5. Marital Status

Single	Married	Widow	Cohabiting (staying together)	Other (specify)

## 6. Education

Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	No Schooling	Other (specify)

## 7. Household Size

Number of Children	Number of Adults	Total Household Size

## 8. Are you the only bread winner in your household?

Yes	No

## 9. How long have you been a farmworker?

1-5 Years	6-10 Years	11-15 Years	16 + Years

## 10. Type of worker (Please indicate 2, e.g. Permanent, Local)

Permanent	Seasonal	Local	Migrant

## 11. Where do you work on the farm?

Ploughing	Harvesting	Fencing	Pumping water	Gardening	Driver	Supervisor	Mechanic	Other(specify)

## 12. Do you live on the farm or not? (Please circle):

**YES**

**NO**

## SECTION B: EMPLOYMENT, HEALTH AND SAFETY CONDITIONS

### 1. CONTRACT AND WAGE

1.1 Did you sign a contract (please circle)? **YES** **NO**

1.2 Did you understand the content of the contract? **YES** **NO**

1.3 Did you get enough time to go through the contract? **YES** **NO**

1.4 Did you get a copy of the contract? **YES** **NO**

1.5 Do you know what a minimum wage is? **YES** **NO**

1.6 Do you get paid a minimum wage? **YES** **NO** **NOT SURE**

1.7 What is the cash wage you received this last month? (Using the minimum wage of R146 per day, it is calculated that on average R3 169 will be a monthly cash wage).

Less than R3 169	
R3 169	
More than R3 169	

1.8 How many hours do you work per week?

5-15hrs	16-31hr	31-61hr	61-90hr	Above 91

1.9 Do you work on public holidays? **YES** **NO**

1.10 How many hours do you work on public holidays?  
.....

1.11 Do you receive any leave days? **YES** **NO**

1.12 How many days is your leave? .....

1.13 How do you get paid, and do you get a pay slip?

Brown envelope	Cash-in-hand	Bank	Pro-card	Pay slip	
				Yes	No

1.14 Are there any deductions from your wage? **YES** **NO**

Please indicate type of reduction.

Rent	
Electricity	
Loans from farmer	
Transport to or from work	
Work clothes	
UIF	
Policies	
Other? Please specify	

## 2. HEALTH AND SAFETY CONDITIONS

2.1 How dangerous do you feel your job is?

Not at all dangerous	Little bit dangerous	Dangerous	Very dangerous

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
2.2 Worker's safety practices are very important to management				
2.3. Workers are regularly made aware of dangerous working practices or conditions.				
2.4. Workers are regularly praised for safe conduct.				
2.5 Workers receive safety instructions/training when they are hired				

2.6 Employer has regular job safety meetings/talks				
2.7 Proper safety equipment is always available.				
2.8 Workers have almost total control over personal safety				
2.9 Taking risks is not part of the job.				

2.10 How much do supervisors seem to care about your safety?

They do as much as possible to make the job safe.

They could do more to make the job safe.

They are only interested in doing the job fast and cheaply.

2.11 Does your employer provide any type of personal protective equipment (PPE) to you for your job? **YES** **NO**

2.12 If yes, what types of personal protective equipment (PPE) are provided by your employer? Please check all that apply.

Sun protection/sunscreen lotion	
Safety goggles	
Long-sleeve shirt	
Full-length pants	
Hat/head cover	
Gloves	
Boots	
Ear plugs/hearing protection	
Face mask/respirator	

Other (Please specify)

\_\_\_\_\_

2.13 Do you work with pesticides or chemicals? **YES** **NO**

2.14 Are you aware of the side effects of those chemicals? **YES** **NO**

2.14 Does the farmer allow you to go to your local clinic? **YES** **NO**

2.15 If you go to clinic does the farmer pay your day's wage? **YES** **NO**

2.16 Do you know anyone who has been injured while on duty? **YES** **NO**

2.17 Was the person compensated for his/her injury? **YES** **NO**

2.18 Are you familiar with the Health and Safety Act? **YES** **NO**

2.19 Do you have toilets where you work? **YES** **NO**

2.20 Do you have wash facilities where you work? **YES** **NO**

2.21 If you don't have toilets, what do you use all day while on duty?

.....

2.22 How does this make you feel?

.....

## SECTION C: LIVELIHOOD ASSETS AND CONTEXT

### 1. LIVELIHOOD ASSETS

1.1 What is your work on the farm?

.....

1.2 What is your estimated wage from your work?

R1 500 or less	R1 600-R2 500	R2 600-R3 500	R3 600-R4 500	R5 500 or above

1.3 What is the contribution of your job to your household?

EXPENDITURE	< R100	R100-200	R200-300	R300-400	R400-500	>R500
Food						
Electricity						
School Fees						
Transport						
Gas/Paraffin						
Medication						
Airtime						
Stokvel						
Insurance						
Clothes						
Crop Seeds						
Fertilisers						
Entertainment						
Petty Cash						
Other						

1.4 What other assets have you acquired using the wage from your farm employment?

Furniture	Appliances	Livestock	Investments	Other (specify)

### 2. LIVELIHOOD CONTEXTS

- |   |            |           |
|---|------------|-----------|
| 2.1 Do you have a clear sense of your ethnic background?            | <b>YES</b> | <b>NO</b> |
| 2.2 Do you have a strong sense of belonging to your ethnic group?   | <b>YES</b> | <b>NO</b> |
| 2.3 Does your ethnic group and culture affect your job?             | <b>YES</b> | <b>NO</b> |
| 2.4 Do you ever feel inferior because of your gender?               | <b>YES</b> | <b>NO</b> |
| 2.5 Have you been treated with less respect than others?            | <b>YES</b> | <b>NO</b> |
| 2.6 Have you ever received poor services because of your ethnicity? | <b>YES</b> | <b>NO</b> |
| 2.7 Have you been called names because of your ethnicity?           | <b>YES</b> | <b>NO</b> |
| 2.8 Have you ever been threatened or harassed by your colleagues?   | <b>YES</b> | <b>NO</b> |
| 2.9 Do you feel welcomed in the community where you work?           | <b>YES</b> | <b>NO</b> |
| 2.10 Do you have access to government services?                     | <b>YES</b> | <b>NO</b> |

**SECTION D: LIVING CONDITIONS AND LABOUR LAWS AND RIGHTS**

**1. FARM WORKER’S LIVING CONDITIONS**

1.1 What kind of housing do you live in on your farm?

Brick house	Iron shack	Rondavel	Caravan	Other(specify)

- 1.2 Does your house have electricity? **YES** **NO**
- 1.3 Does your house have tap water? **YES** **NO**
- 1.4 Does your house have a toilet? **YES** **NO**
- 1.5 Do you have access to bathing and washing facilities? **YES** **NO**
- 1.6 Do you have security in your residences? **YES** **NO**
- 1.8 Do you have access to recreational facilities on the farm? **YES** **NO**
- 1.7 Does your house have basic furniture? **YES** **NO**

**2. LABOUR LAWS AND RIGHTS**

2.1 Are you familiar with Sectoral Determination for Farmworkers? **YES** **NO**

2.2 If yes, where did you get to know about it?

Government	Trade Union	NGO	Farmer	Other worker

2.3 Are you familiar with the Basic Conditions of Employment Act? **YES** **NO**

2.4 If yes, where did you get to know about the Act?

Government	Trade Union	NGO	Farmer	Other worker

2.5 Are you a member of any trade union? **YES** **NO**

2.6 If NO, why are you not a member?

.....

.....

2.7 If NO, have you been approached by any union? **YES** **NO**

2.8 Does the owner of the farm allow union representatives on the farm? **YES** **NO**

2.9 Does the owner of the farm allow you to attend union meetings in other places? **YES** **NO**

2.10 Do you feel free to talk about issues on the farm to your fellow workers? **YES** **NO**

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!**

## ANNEXURE C

### INTERVIEW GUIDE

#### QUESTIONS FOR FARM MANAGERS

#### INSTRUCTIONS

This work is for my Master's research project. Please kindly respond to the questions as honestly as possible. The work focuses on the impact of commercial farming in the livelihoods of farmworkers in the King Cetshwayo District municipalities. This interview guide is made up of both closed- and open-ended questions. Your contribution will be highly appreciated.

#### INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is your age?
2. When did you or your family acquire this land?
3. How long have you farmed here?
4. Do you have any other source of income?
5. What is your highest level of education?
6. Have you worked elsewhere or have you always worked on the farms?
7. Do your workers on this farm have land which they have the right to cultivate?
8. Does the farmworker get a payslip showing deductions when he is paid?
9. Is the money paid the amount left after all deductions have been made?
10. If so, what were these deductions for?

	YES	NO
For goods bought from the farm		
To pay back a loan from the farmer		
As rent for housing		
To pay for a pension fund		
Any other deductions		

11. Do you lend money from time to time to the worker?

12. How would you respond to the legal requirement for a minimum wage of R146 per day?
13. What would be your response to the government's law forbidding child labour for all children under the age of 15, and restricting what sort of work may be done by those aged 15 to 18?
14. Under the labour tenancy legislation, farmers may be forced to sell parts of their farm to labour tenants. Some farmers have raised concerns that under this legislation they will refuse to help such tenants in the ways they do now. Do you feel that such reactions are justifiable?
15. How would you describe your relationship with your workers? Please explain this relationship.
16. How many families illegally occupy part of the farm?
17. The Land Reform Programme is often considered to be a source of tension between farmers and labour tenants, and sometimes farmworkers. Do you think that we should encourage white farmers to leave for neighbouring countries?
18. Who do you think should receive priority from land reform and the transfer of land ownership from white to black?
19. If land needs to be transferred from white ownership to black ownership, is it better for whole farms to be placed in black hands, and run on the same basis as now, or would it be better to subdivide the land into many smaller pieces so that more people can each have a small piece of land?
20. What is your take on farm labour unions? Do you allow your workers to have contact with trade unions?
21. What are the health and safety measures that you as the management put in place to make sure that farmworkers are protected at all times?
22. Can you outline the services that you provide to your workers to make sure that their livelihoods are improved?
23. How do you deal with gender imbalances, discrimination and stereotypes among your farmworkers?

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!**