

**An Analysis of the Impact of Land Redistribution Projects in  
Modimolle Municipality, Limpopo Province**

**by**

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## DECLARATION

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

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**Buyis M (Mr)**

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**Date**

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## **ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS**

CASP	Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme
CDE	Centre for Development and Enterprise
CPA	Communal Property Association
CRDP	Comprehensive Rural Development Programme
DLA	Department of Land Affairs
DORA	Division of Revenue Act
IGRFA	Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act
LARP	Land and Agrarian Reform
LDC's	Least Develop Countries
LRAD	Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development
MAFISA	Micro Agricultural Finance Institute of South Africa
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
SDC	Sustainable Development Consortium
SIS	Settlement and Implementation Strategy
SLAG	Settlement Land Acquisition Grant

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY**

#### **1.1 Introduction**

This chapter will provide a background to this study. The researcher will also provide the statement of the problem, the aims and objectives of the study, the choice and rationale of the design and the posing of research questions.

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

From the time that white settlers arrived in South Africa black people faced increasing landlessness, poverty, and insecurity on the land due to racial laws. It can therefore be argued that Inequality in land distribution in South Africa is a direct consequence of a colonial legacy that saw land being appropriated from black people. Various pieces of legislation were utilised to dispossess black people of their land, including the Native Land Act of 1936 and the Native Trust and Land Act of 1936. According to Southall (1982) the promulgation of the 1913 Land Act was done in order to secure the interests of white agriculture and instantly resulted in the removals of many black people from their own land as they were now regarded as squatters. Land dispossession in South Africa further contributed to the exclusion of blacks from the economy and made them beggars on white owned land. Apartheid was the final chapter in this history of land dispossession.

Land Reform is considered by many to be a vehicle to redress the injustices of the past and to simultaneously promote sustainable growth and development in South Africa (DLA, 1997) by providing historically marginalized people with tenure and thus a secure base for economic empowerment. In 1994, the South African government committed itself to the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), a policy framework to promote a fundamental transformation of the social, economic and moral foundation of South African Society (African National Congress, 1994). The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) identified land reform as a key component of its programme of meeting basic needs and building the economy (ANC, 1994) RDP further regarded land reform

as a central and driving force of a programme of rural development and set a target of redistributing 30% of agricultural land within five years of democratic Government. (ANC, 1994).

The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform was therefore mandated in terms of the Constitution of the Republic of South African (Act 108 of 1996), Section 25, to conduct land reform based on the following three pillars:

- Redistribution, which responds to various needs and aspirations of people for land, in both rural and urban areas, in an equitable and affordable manner while at the same time contributing to poverty alleviation and national economic growth. Redistribution is conducted in terms of the Provision of Land Assistance Act, No 126 of 1993.
- Restitution, which aims to restore land or provide comparable redress for rights in land which was dispossessed after 19 June 1913. Restitution is done in terms of the Restitution of Land Rights Act, No 22 of 1994 as amended.
- Tenure Reform, which aims to upgrade the different land tenure arrangements currently restricting tenure security for the previously disadvantaged, in both urban and rural areas. Tenure Reform is done in terms of the Extension of Security of Tenure Act, No 62 of 1997 (DLA: 1997).

The collective aim of Land Reform is to ensure the transfer of 30% of all agricultural land to the previously disadvantaged groups by 2014 (DLA: 1997).

The White Paper on South African Land Policy (1997) included in its strategic goals the promotion of economic growth and poverty reduction through land reform (DLA: 1997). Various authors have argued for the integration of land reform with wider developmental activities. Lipton et al. (1996) argues that the success of land reform in its contribution to rural development internationally is rooted in the incorporation of what they call the 'four reforms' in rural development: the distribution of land, agricultural research, rural infrastructure (including education) and markets.

Such a holistic approach to land reform is imperative in order to provide solutions to issues of rural development through access to land. Based on Lipton's 'four reforms' approach, access to land, without other complimentary measures, is unlikely to contribute to development and poverty alleviation. Such thinking is central to the spirit of the South African White Paper on Land Reform (DLA: 1997), in which poverty alleviation and enhancement of peoples' livelihood strategies are given priority in South African land reform.

Kepe and Cousins (2002) argue that provision of complimentary services and investment in both land reform and wider rural development are needed from state and non-state development agencies. Supporting communities engaged in land reform projects cannot be achieved by an individual entity but a more collective effort is required from a variety of role players. Lahiff (2001) argues that a major challenge in restitution as a programme of land reform is inadequate infrastructure development, poor service provision and unrealistic business planning. He further argues that there is no clear linkage with the national, provincial and local Governments programmes of development.

In line with the concepts of sustainable livelihood (SL) which is central to much of contemporary development discourse and poverty alleviation, access to land as an asset, should be complimented by skills of beneficiaries and other resources in order for the beneficiaries to secure a livelihood from the land acquired. A definition of livelihood by Chambers and Conway emphasises that a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living, and it is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base (Chamber and Conway, 1992). The concept of sustainable livelihood extends beyond just production activities. Access to land and provision of other assets, for example, all the five capitals/assets (Human, Social, Financial, Natural and Physical assets). This concept clarifies the context within which poor people live and how they sustain themselves through available resources.

Land Reform should allow for a range of settlements and not only confine new land owners to adopts a status quo of newly acquired farms which are mostly commercially run by individuals. Such commercial farms do not in most cases address the needs of the rural poor who need land for small-scale family farming. Most black rural communities, who are now landowners as a result of settled claims and redistributed projects, were in the past marginalised and excluded from the mainstream economy therefore they lack skills and capacity to run bug commercial farms. Their skill and technology is sufficient for small family farms.

Under current South African land reform policies, beneficiaries are encouraged to use the land provided on large-scale commercial basis. It therefore remains a challenge for new owners, the Government and development agencies in land reform to ensure that beneficiaries of land reform effectively manage and use land productively without compromising the multiple needs and aspirations of the intended beneficiaries.

The South African Constitution (Act 108 of 1996, Section 25) identified the need for land reform to address the legacy of the past Government based racial discrimination. Similarly, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) has identified land reform as a key component of its programme of meeting basic needs and building the economy (ANC, 1994) The White Paper on South African Land Policy (DLA, 1997) articulates cases for land reform and among its aims are to underpin economic development, improve household welfare and alleviate poverty. Academics and land rights activists have raised the question of the absence of post-settlement support as a critical gap in South African land reform. thus undermining the developmental potential of land reform (Lahiff 2001; Hall 2003; Wegerif 2004).

Lahiff (2001) argues that there is no consistent coordination of Government support to new land owners and therefore provision of such post-restoration support by the Government remains a critical question in South African land reform.

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

Secure access to land and its productive resources is widely seen as one of the ways in which the rural poor can improve their livelihood and alleviate poverty. The South African Government's programme of land reform can therefore play a critical role in ensuring access to land by poor people who would not otherwise have it. The success of land reform in impacting positively on the livelihood of the poor is dependent on effective and productive use of the land concerned. Various studies undertaken in South Africa have indicated problems arising during the post-land transfer stage of the project implementation (Deininger and May, 2000).

Problems include drops in production, conflicts within the beneficiary institutions and an absence of complimentary services. In order to realise the benefits of land reform, it is therefore essential for the state and other development agencies to support new landowners who were previously dispossessed of their land. Deininger and May (2000) have argued that in order to appreciate the challenges facing the new land owners after acquisition of land, an understanding is essential of both the profound nature of discrimination that resulted from the apartheid policy and the limited capacity of land reform beneficiaries compared to their white farming counterparts.

The purpose of the Land Redistribution Programme is to provide the poor with access to land for residential and productive use to improve their livelihoods. It has been argued that Land reform cannot contribute to equitable growth and development if historically disadvantaged people have to buy land on the open market without subsidized assistance because the purchase price is simply unattainable for the poor in South Africa (DLA: 1997).. To overcome this challenge the government has provided various subsidy methods designed to assist the potential buyers to purchase and develop land and has also designed a number of programmes that seek to provide services and support to new land owners.

In order to maintain public confidence in the land market while redistributing land to the poor, the redistribution programme depends largely on transactions between willing buyers and willing sellers (DLA: 1997). The collective aim of Land Reform is

to ensure the transfer of 30% of all agricultural land to the previously disadvantaged groups by 2014 (DLA: 1997). Up to this point, the Department of Land Affairs has transferred just over 4%. It is clear that there is a huge backlog, which needs the urgent intervention of Government.

#### **1.4 Aim of the Study**

The main aim of the study is to investigate and analyze the impact of Land Reform projects in the Modimolle Local Municipality in order to delineate problems associated with the challenges of Land Reform projects and to determine the causes of these challenges.

#### **1.5 Objectives of the study**

This study attempts to explore the experiences of land reform beneficiaries who have obtained land through the Government land redistribution programme. The objectives of the study are:

- To investigate 10 cases (land reform projects) in the Modimolle Local Municipality;
- To investigate the challenges of these Land Redistribution Projects in terms of productivity;
- To identify whether the following could be contributing to the existing situation found in the case studies
  - Post Settlement Support,
  - Farming implements, equipment, infrastructure and inputs
  - Farming skills, experience and education level,
  - Production finance, markets, water and electricity,
  - Mentoring and advice.

#### **1.6 Choice and Rationale for the design**

The choice of design for this research exercise is Qualitative Research Design. Interactive qualitative research is inquiry in which researchers collect data in face-to-face situations by interacting with selected persons in their settings (field research). Qualitative research describes and analyses people's individual and collective social actions, beliefs, thoughts, and perceptions. The researcher

interprets phenomena in terms of the meanings people ascribe to them. Qualitative studies are important for theory generation, policy development, educational practice improvement, illumination of social issues and action stimulus (McMillan et.al, 2001:395).

The rationale for this design is that qualitative research is primarily concerned with understanding the social phenomena from the participants' perspective. Understanding is acquired by analyzing the many contexts of the participants and by narrating participants' meanings for these situations and events. Participants' meanings include their feelings, beliefs, ideas, thoughts, and actions. (McMillan et.al, 2001:396) Interactive strategies can be used to study participants' perspectives.

### **1.7 Research questions**

The study will come-up with possible answers to the following questions:

1. Are land reform projects productive or unproductive? What causes this state of affairs?
2. What are the challenges faced by land reform beneficiaries and how do these challenges contribute to making their farms unproductive?
3. Does the provision of post settlement support (extension services) to land reform beneficiaries assist in making their farms productive?
4. Do land reform projects improve the lives of beneficiaries in terms of financial income and food security?

### **1.8 Significance of the study**

It is expected that this study will generate and contribute to the general body of knowledge and a better understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of land reform projects. It is also expected that the findings of the study may hold potentials that could influence policy on land reform and may open more questions for further study.

## **1.9 Definition of Concepts**

### **1.9.1 Land Reform**

Land Reform is generally understood as the redistribution of rights in land for the benefit of the landless, tenants and farm labourers (Adams 1995). Ghimire (2001) takes the definition further by stating that it involves a significant change in the agrarian structure resulting in increased access to land by the rural poor and security of land rights and titles.

### **1.9.2 Land Restitution**

Parliament passed the Restitution of Land Rights Act, No 22 of 1994, to restore or compensate people for land rights they lost because of racially discriminatory laws passed since 19 June 1913. The Commission on Restitution of Land Rights established in terms of the Restitution of Land Rights Act, 1994 (Act 22 of 1994), will continue to provide redress to victims of land rights dispossessions as a result of discriminatory laws and practices since June 1913. Restitution is rights-based, and it can mean restoring the land itself or providing alternative land or financial compensation or other relief.

### **1.9.3 Land Redistribution**

The purpose of the Land Redistribution Programme is to provide the poor with access to land for residential and productive use to improve their livelihoods. Land Redistribution is not rights-based and people wanting land must apply for government grants. These are used to acquire farms offered for sale on the market, i.e. from willing sellers.

### **1.9.4 Land and Agrarian Reform Project (LARP)**

The Land and Agrarian Reform Project (LARP) provides a new Framework for delivery and collaboration on land reform and agricultural support to accelerate the rate and sustainability of transformation through aligned and joint action by all involved stakeholders. It creates a delivery paradigm for agricultural and other support services based on the concept of 'One-Stop Shop' service centres located close to farming and rural beneficiaries (MoA 2008)

### **1.9.5 Settlement and Implementation Support (SIS) Strategy**

Settlement and Implementation Support (SIS) Strategy presents a comprehensive strategy for settlement and implementation support for land and agrarian reform in South Africa (SDC 2007)

### **1.9.6 The Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS)**

The Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS) was adopted as official policy in 2006, and saw the state becoming the 'willing buyer' of land for redistribution, by actively using market opportunities where they arise and, in some instances, approaching landowners to sell (Lahiff 2008).

PLAS is therefore a State driven programme where the State pro-actively targets land and matches this with the demand or need for land. PLAS follows an integrated approach and targets land in nodal areas and in identified agricultural corridors and other areas of high agricultural potential. The group (beneficiaries) targeted by PLAS for redistribution purposes is individual emergent or commercial farmers. PLAS does currently not target communities or groups of people (Implementation Plan for the Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy, May 2006).

### **1.9.7 Land Tenure Reform**

Land Tenure Reform refers to the protection of people who live on rural or peri-urban land with the permission of the owner or person in charge of that land. This is achieved through the Extension of Security of Tenure Act, No 62 Of 1997. This Act gives them a secure legal right to live on and use the land.

### **1.9.8 Emerging Farmers**

According to the NDA (2006), 'emerging farmers' is a relatively new term used to define formerly underprivileged farmers who are determined to enter into commercial farming. Such farmers have the potential to expand and are developing into commercial farming, hence, also known as developing farmers (Louw, Madevu, Jordan and Vermeulen, 2007). Although this group of farmers consumes a portion of its produce, it mainly produces for selling. In South Africa,

this group of farmers is comprised of black farmers who were formerly denied the opportunity to farm successfully by apartheid. Emerging farmers are still facing difficulties in penetrating already established markets and have limited resources in production. Kirsten and van Zyl (1998) pointed out that the challenges faced by emerging farmers may persist because the sector is not supported enough. With limited policy support, emerging farmers face difficulties in both production and marketing of agricultural produce.

#### **1.9.9 Post Settlement support / Extension support**

One crucial element of land reform is support to assist the new owners of land to become productive users of such land. This is particularly important for poverty reduction, and to allay fears that land reform will undermine production for local and export markets. Post-settlement support involves credit, farming inputs, water for irrigation, marketing arrangements, information, and training.

#### **1.9.10 Recapitalisation and Development Programme**

The Recapitalisation and Development Programme is primarily aimed at struggling farmers and communities that received land from the State, but had not received the necessary support to sustain production, and for the revitalisation of irrigation schemes in the former homeland areas. Funding will only be granted for agricultural development purposes and not for settlement.

#### **1.9.11 Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP)**

The Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) is the latest manifestation of government attempts to integrate agricultural support, land reform and broader rural development without actually putting more money into rural areas. During 2009/2010, the CRDP was rolled out in eight provinces in the country and over the MTEF period the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform intends to implement this programme in 160 rural wards throughout the country.

## **1.12 Outline of the Thesis**

- Chapter 1 - Introduction to the study
- Chapter 2 - Literature Review
- Chapter 3 - Research Methodology
- Chapter 4 - Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation of Data
- Chapter 5 - Findings, Conclusion and Recommendations

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

Subsequent to the democratic elections of 1994, many South Africans expected the government to do a great deal in terms of redressing the injustices of the previous regime, including land reform (Hall, 2004). The Government after a period of engagement and debates decided on a programme of land reform in which it would play a leading role.

In terms of the White Paper on South African Land Policy (DLA, 1997) land reform aims to contribute to economic development by giving households the opportunity to engage in productive land use and by increasing employment opportunities through encouraging greater investment in the rural economy. Since the commencement of the implementation of the land reform programme, debate has centred on the slow pace of land reform, particularly on settling land claims and securing tenure rights for farm dwellers. To date only a small fraction of the target of 30% of agricultural land has been redistributed (Hall, 2004).

Other issues raised by academics and landless people include the challenge of post-settlement in South African land reform. It is generally acknowledged that there has been acceleration in the transfer of land in the second term of the democratic government (1999-2004). Critical issues raised by academics and critics of land reform include the following; programmes which were limited to the mere transfer of land were generally associated with limited equity. However, major investments in complimentary investment, training, technical assistance, and provision of resources beyond the land transfer are fundamental to attainment of greater equity and efficiency benefits (Deininger 2003; Hall 2003; Lahiff 2001).

It is generally accepted that the post-settlement stage under land reform is a critical one because the success of land reform is not only measured by the number of farms and hectares redistributed, but also by what happens when people are on the land.

## **2.2 The need for Rural Development**

If the migration of people with and without school certificates to the cities of Africa, Asia, and Latin America is proceeding at historically unprecedented rates, a large part of the explanation can be found in the economic stagnation of the outlying rural areas. Over 2.5 billion people in the Developing World grind out a meagre and often inadequate existence in agricultural pursuits (Todaro 2000).

The vast majority (almost 70%) of the world's poorest people are located in rural areas and engaged primarily in subsistence agriculture. Their basic concern is survival. Many hundreds of millions of people have been bypassed by whatever economic progress has been attained. It is estimated that more than 800 million of these people do not have enough food to meet their basic nutritional needs (Todaro 2000). In their daily struggle to subsist, their behaviour may have often seemed irrational to many Western economists who, until recently, had little compensation of the precarious nature of subsistence living and the importance of avoiding risks (Todaro 2000). He maintains that if development is to take place and become self-sustaining the process will have to start in the rural areas in general and the agricultural sector in particular

## **2.3 International Perspectives on Land Reform and Post Settlement**

Generally, land reform is understood as the redistribution of rights in land for the benefit of the landless, tenants and farm labourers (Adams 1995). Ghimire (2001) takes the definition further by stating that it involves a significant change in the agrarian structure resulting in increased access to land by the rural poor and security of land rights and titles. He further includes improvement in production structures example, access to agricultural inputs, markets and services such as extension, training for small farmers, rural workers and other beneficiaries during the post-land reform period as forming a critical part of land reform. Among reasons for advocating land reform and tenure security is that access to land by the rural population should be seen as being an essential human right and showing respect for human dignity, it also provides the rural poor with the possibility of access to shelter, food, employment and improved livelihood.

In the international arena, land reform was propelled on to the development agenda in order to destroy the undemocratic concentrations of power which was based on skewed patterns of land ownership. After the Second World War, land reform in the international setting, particularly Japan, Taiwan and South Korea, was executed in the model of land-to-the-tiller (Bruce, 1993). In this model, tenants became owners of the land that they had previously farmed as tenants. Griffin et al (2002) argue that these countries had a common characteristic of scarcity of land, high incidence of tenancy and unequal distribution of land, therefore land scarcity became the basis for land distribution rather than shunning away from land redistribution. Land reform was based on buying land from those who owned more land than the law entitled one to own.

The examples of China and Vietnam were more radical. The transition from collective to private models of cultivation has been associated with large increases in productivity, as in the cases of China (McMillan et al., 1989; Lin, 1992) AND Vietnam (Que, 1998; Ravallion & van deWalle, 2002). In the period between the 1960s and the 1970s there was a strong move to undo the concentration of land ownership through land reform in the Latin America with the aim to move people off the *latifundia* (large landed estates) (Griffin et al., 2002).

Bernstein (2002) argues that the starting point for land reform is rooted in the exploitation of the peasants or landless workers by the owners of landed property. In mostly cases land reforms were brought about by the actions of social movements and labour organisations leading to upheavals, rebellions and other forms of protest. Examples of struggles that led to fundamental changes in the agrarian property regimes are Russia and Mexico in the early twentieth century; Eastern and South-eastern Europe and China in the interwar period, Bolivia in the 1950s, Vietnam and Algeria in the 1950s and 1960s, Cuba and Peru in the 1960s and Nicaragua in the 1970s and 1980s.

## **2.4 History of Land Acquisition and Use in Zimbabwe**

According to De Villiers (2008) the forceful removal of indigenous people from rural areas in Matabeleland (later Rhodesia and present day Zimbabwe) by the British South African Company under the control of Cecil John Rhodes in the 1890's to make room for white settlers introduced the tension around land access and the use between black and white people (Pakenham, 1996). The British government ruled in 1918 that the seized land should revert to the state, for allocation to white and black use, and the Land Act of 1930 allocated land titles to white farmers and communal rights to blacks in the trust areas. At this stage, government programs supported only large-scale white commercial farming, and one percent of the population settled on 70% of high potential agricultural land (ICG, 2004). As land has direct economic, political and cultural connotations for the rural population, the unequal land allocation between the white minority and the black majority became one of the main grievances for the civil uprising which culminated in the achievement of political independence for the black majority of Zimbabwe in 1980 (Alagiah,2002)

De Villiers (2008) maintains that to end the war, the British government offered to act as peace broker between the warring groups. The Lancaster House Agreement of 1979 provided in addition to a number of political agreements, specific agreements on the access and use of rural land. The British government offered to provide funding for the new independent government to buy underutilized land from white farmers for black settlement. Adjustments to the Land Acquisition Act in 1985 and 1992, changed the spirit of the original agreement from the willing seller principle to the expropriation of white commercial farms. In 1997 the government issued the first list of 1471 white commercial farms to be expropriated (ICG, 2004).

The original target of settling 162 000 black farmers was not achieved. Inadequate planning and support for small-scale black farmers, linked to the allocation of farms to politicians and senior officials, resulted in a drastic fall in agricultural production. Only 72 000 black farmers were settled on 12 ha plots in terms of the family farm model by 2000. The British government withdrew its support for the land reform program, after only spending 3% of the original agreed funding (ICG, 2004).

According to De Villiers (2008) the inability of the land reform program to make a meaningful contribution towards land redistribution and economic development, increased the tensions. In early 2001 “war veterans” invaded white commercial farms. The action was tacitly supported by government, as it ignored court orders to stop the invasions. The resulting fall in agricultural production had a dramatic negative impact on the economy. The break down of law and order encouraged the flight of foreign investments. Less than 300 from the original 4500 white commercial farmers from 1980 are today left in Zimbabwe, (De Villiers, 2008). The new land users have not been able to maintain agricultural production and the subsequent collapse of commercial farming undermined the total economy.

De Villiers (2008) says that today a once stable economy is plagued by famine, poverty and political instability. What started as a land access and use problem developed through ill-conceived and executed rural land reform policies and strategies has led to an economic crisis affecting the whole nation and its neighbours in the region.

## **2.5 Lessons from Zimbabwe**

According to De Villiers (2008), South Africa share a number of characteristics with Zimbabwe, both being countries where white minority rule was exchanged for black majority rule, and where an artificial skewed rural land redistribution served as one of the important motivations to change the political landscape.

What lessons can South Africa learn from the results of the land redistribution experiences in Zimbabwe?

- It must be recognized that the total demand for rural land settlement and farming from previous excluded people cannot be fully satisfied. Authorities must be careful not to create unrealistic expectations for land settlement and farming which cannot be met. It is of specific importance to differentiate between rural land for settlement only, and land required for commercial farming (De Villiers, 2008).

- A successful land redistribution program requires a starting and end date, and must be implemented at a rapid pace to regain a new stable position. Bureaucratic inertia, with legal and financial constraints, which slows down progress, will allow for organizing of opposition to retard and scuttle the land reform program (De Villiers, 2008).
- The success of concluding a land redistribution programme is dependent on political commitment, supported by financial resources and management skills. Wide consultation among all interest groups is necessary to ensure buy in and transparent policies and strategies can assist legitimacy.
- An authoritarian approach by government towards existing land owners, through land expropriation, will have negative economic consequences. If land ownership rights are not respected through law, confidence in the economy from investors evaporates, resulting in disinvestments. Disapproval from the international community can also be expected in the form of trade boycotts and other economic punishments (De Villiers, 2008).
- Rural land redistribution will only be successful if the new land users are able to maintain commercial farming production. It is thus of the utmost importance to link rural land redistribution to appropriate support strategies in technical production assistance, funding, and marketing.

## **2.6 Land Reform in South Africa**

De Villiers (2008) argues that in addition to the basic common points found in South Africa and Zimbabwe providing motivation for land reform, it must be recognized that the countries differ in important aspects. South Africa has a more developed industrialized economy less dependent on the agricultural sector, with an average of only a 3% contribution to the gross domestic product (World Bank, 2003). South Africa has passed the agricultural phase, and a break down in commercial farming will have a less severe impact than in the case of Zimbabwe. The rural land issue nevertheless remains a political sensitive point on the agenda, specifically as rural land allocation was one of the cornerstones of the apartheid policy. When apartheid ended in 1994, 87% of the rural land was controlled by 50,000 white commercial farmers, with the total rural black population dependent

on the balance of land within the former homelands (RSA, 1997). With the exception of a few agricultural projects managed by public development corporations, the majority of the farming households in the homelands were producing mainly for own subsistence. At this point in time, the contribution from agriculture to economic development in South Africa came almost exclusively from the white commercial farming sector (De Villiers (2008).

In addition to the political imperative for rural land redistribution, a number of economic motivations can also be identified to support agricultural restructuring in South Africa (De Villiers, 2000):

- The economic benefits from commercial farming were concentrated outside the former homelands, leaving these areas in depressed economic status. Without commercial farming these areas lacked the economic stimulus to move through the agricultural phase to a higher level industrialized development level.
- Although the commercial farming sector achieved a high level of national food security, and made an important foreign exchange contribution through exports, the homelands did not achieve full household food security and deep levels of poverty with a high degree of dependence on social welfare assistance existed.
- South Africa is experiencing a high level of structural unemployment. Commercial farming and its forward and backward linkages make an important contribution for direct and indirect employment. A further stimulus for employment must come from small-scale labour intensive commercial farming.

## **2.7 Land Redistribution and Agricultural Development in South Africa**

The South African Rural Land Reform Policy of 1997 is based on three main focus areas (RSA, 1997). The first focus is the restitution of land rights for communities who were forcibly relocated in terms of the Land Acts of 1913 and 1936. Affected people were invited to submit claims for the restoration of land rights or for financial compensation. More than 80 000 claims were submitted. (ICG, 2004). The slow process in concluding on claims results in political tension between

claimants, government and land owners, and impacts negatively on production investments.

The second focus of the rural land reform policy is on the redistribution of agricultural land from white to black ownership and use. The redistribution target was set at 30% of farm land by 2014 (RSA, 1997). To date only a 5% transfer has been affected, and realism of the target is questioned in terms of financial resources, support structures and management skills (ICG, 2004). The redistribution of rural land in South Africa is based on the willing seller willing buyer principle guided by market forces.

The third focus of rural land reform in South Africa is on tenure reform of communal land in the former homelands (RSA, 1997). The lack of security on lands rights in the former homelands has been identified as one of the main stumbling blocks to support funding and investments required for commercial farm production. Limited progress has been made on this score, mainly due to the political sensitivity of the land rights linked to the power base of traditional leaders.

Because rural land reform in South Africa is rooted in the rule of law and based on economic market considerations, it has not alienated land owners and investors. The execution of the rural land reform program in South Africa is not without points of tension and disagreement between organized agriculture and government, specifically on the slow process of land restitution, settlement rights of farm workers and the production results on the transferred farms (De Villiers, 2008).

Rural land redistribution in South Africa has not sparked agricultural development. According to De Villiers (2008), new land users have not been able to maintain production at the same level as the original land owners and users. The basic questions that can be posed are: Can newcomers into commercial farming continue at the same production level? And: What actions are required to enable newcomers to become commercial farmers?

An argument often heard from white commercial farmers in South Africa is that small-scale black farmers are not efficient producers, and therefore the transfer of

productive farms from white to black ownership will result in a fall in production and thus have a negative impact on economic growth and development. This view is understandable if the results of Communal Property Associations (CPA's) as farming ventures are considered (De Villiers, 2008).

The perception on low agricultural productivity is based on the view that small-scale farming equals production inefficiency, while large-scale commercial farming equals production efficiency. This conclusion ignores the correlation between technical and economic efficiency in agricultural production (Ghatak and Ingersent, 1984). Empirical research in a number of LDC's demonstrated that small-scale farmers often operate at technically inefficient production levels due to the absence of specific inputs, such as fertilizers, insecticides and herbicides, which are not included in the production process due to affordability and / or lack of knowledge (Van Zyl, 1996). The same small-scale farmers have been shown to combine the available inputs at economically efficient production levels (Van Zyl, 1996). The implication is that if constraints for small-scale farmers are lifted, these farmers would be able to operate at higher levels of production efficiency (Singini and Van Rooyen, 1995). A number of farm production studies in South Africa confirmed this hypothesis: If support programmes are in place to address the specific constraints facing small-scale farmers, their level of production efficiency can be on par with that of large-scale commercial farmers. Such an example was found with small-scale farmers linked to the Sapekoe Tea Estate in the then Northern Province (Van Zyl, 1996).

It is argued by some that the economic success of a rural land redistribution program is thus largely dependent on the design and implementation of functional farmer support programs (De Villiers and Kwaw, 1999; Mtethwa, 2000). Empirical results in South Africa with farmer support at homeland agricultural projects and with Communal Property Associations (CPA's) have been mixed, from inadequate to reasonably successful (De Villiers and Kwaw, 1999; Mtethwa, 2000). It has been shown that a well-designed farmer support programme including inputs of information, funding, marketing, training, mixed with financial incentives, can result in increasing levels of production efficiency (Singini and Van Rooyen, 1995).

## **2.8 Post-settlement support in South Africa**

Inadequate support to the beneficiaries of land reform has been a recurring complaint almost since the inception of the land reform programme. Various studies have shown that beneficiaries experience severe problems accessing services such as credit, training, extension advice, transport and ploughing services, veterinary services, and access to input and produce markets (HSRC 2003; Hall 2004b; Wegerif 2004; Bradstock 2005; Lahiff 2007a; SDC 2007). Of late, attention has also focused on the lack of support to institutions such as CPAs and trusts charged with managing the affairs of group projects (SDC 2007; CASE 2006; CSIR 2005).

Services that are available to land reform beneficiaries tend to be supplied by provincial departments of agriculture and a small number of NGOs, but the available evidence would suggest that these serve only a minority of projects. In November 2005, the Minister of Agriculture and Land Affairs told Parliament that 70% of x many land reform projects in the Limpopo Province were dysfunctional, which she attributed to poor design, negative dynamics within groups and lack of post-settlement support (Lahiff, 2008).

Central to the problems surrounding post-settlement support are a lack of co-ordination and communication between the key departments of agriculture and land affairs, and other institutions such as the Department of Housing, the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry and local government structures. The well-developed (private) agri-business sector that services large-scale commercial agriculture has shown no more than a token interest in extending its operations to new farmers, who in most cases would be incapable of paying for such services anyway. The assumption that the private sector would somehow 'respond' to demand from land reform beneficiaries with very different needs to the established commercial farmers has not been demonstrated by recent experience. The principle explanation for this, of course, is that land reform beneficiaries are, on the whole, so cash-strapped that they are not in a position to exert any effective demand for the services on offer, even if these services were geared to their specific needs (Lahiff, 2008).

Recognition of the need for additional support for land reform beneficiaries led to the introduction, in 2004, of the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP), with a total of R750 million allocated over five years, and the formations of the Micro Agricultural Finance Institute of South Africa (MAFISA), which is intended to provide small loans to farmers. Widespread problems have been reported, however, with the disbursement of CASP grants. In September 2006, the DLA reported to parliament that nearly R60 million of the first year's allocation of R200 million had been rolled over to the next year, R250 million was allocated, and another R43 million was rolled over. According to DLA, however, even this estimate of actual expenditure may be overstated, as department officials had discovered that money counted as having been spent was merely 'parked' in a bank account to wait for tenders or other bureaucratic measures to be completed. Further problems are highlighted in the LARP concept Document which states that "the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) which was instituted as a conditional grant to provincial Departments of Agriculture for support under six pillars was not synchronized with LRAD. The implementation of CASP initially focused on only one pillar, namely on and off farm infrastructure and thus support under CASP was not comprehensive" (DoA 2008:17).

In 2006, the DLA, with support from Belgian Technical Co-operation, commissioned the Sustainable Development Consortium to develop a strategy for post-settlement support (SDC 2007). The resulting strategy, known as Settlement and Implementation Support (SIS) Strategy, was officially launched by the Minister of Agriculture and Land Affairs in February 2008. The proposals contained in the SIS strategy provide a comprehensive template for a thorough overhaul of support services in the coming years (Lahiff, 2008).

According to Lahiff (2008) an alternative vision is presented by LARP, which includes 'comprehensive agricultural support' as one of its core activities. Among the reforms proposed are that CASP be 're-branded' from its previous Division of Revenue Act (DORA) conditional grant character to a comprehensive support programme that will address 'the LARP universal access priority'. In the area of

extension, LARP suggests that South Africa has approximately one-third of the number of extension officers required to meet its development targets and that 80% of the current extension staff are not adequately trained. It proposes a joint Extension Recovery Plan between the national and provincial departments of agriculture, which will extent over a number of years and for which funding has been approved by National Treasury. It also proposes that two or three key commodities be identified and promoted in each province, linking agricultural production, processing activities, input suppliers, consumer interests and local and international markets (Lahiff, 2008).

According to Lahiff (2008), the integration of products and services from national, provincial, local government and the private sector is seen as crucial to the success and sustainability of those projects and the achievement of LARP objectives. The central proposal of LARP is, therefore, the concept of the 'one-stop shop' that will facilitate the integrated delivery of information and support services by various state and non-state agencies.

LARP will facilitate alignment and coordination of agricultural support services available at national, provincial and local level and in the private sector. A One-Stop Shop concept is envisaged to be developed under LARP which consists of service delivery and information centres close to the beneficiaries where initially all financing options and services, both grants and loans, private and public, will be made available to new farmers and where a farm business planning service can be accessed. Other social and economic services to farmers will be added to the service portfolio (MoA 2008:23).

Lahiff (2008) maintains that lack of support for productive activities is compounded by a general lack of external support for collective landholding institutions such as CPAs and trusts. Recurring problems include a failure to define clear criteria for membership of the CPA or the rights and responsibilities of members, a lack of capacity for dealing with business and administrative issues, and a lack of democracy both in procedural matters and in terms of access to benefits. These problems tend to be greatly compounded where the CPA is involved in commercial

or productive activities on behalf of its members, in addition to the usual activities of land administration.

Comprehensive support for both agricultural production and group administration is a critical requirement of most land reform projects and, in the absence of affordable alternatives, it is likely that such services will have to be provided primarily by the state for the foreseeable future. The emergence of new strategies such as LARP and SIS suggests that the relevant departments at national level have grasped the importance of comprehensive and coordinated support and are open to innovative solutions. The challenge now is to overcome the multiple bureaucratic obstacles that exist at local and provincial levels in order to ensure that support services are appropriate to the requirements on the ground and actually reach the people that need them most. Support to CPAs has been debated widely in recent years, but is not directly addressed in the recent wave of policy reforms (Lahiff, 2008).

## **2.9 Settlement and Implementation Support (SIS) Strategy**

SIS presents a comprehensive strategy for settlement and implementation support for land and agrarian reform in South Africa.

Key elements of the conceptual framework are:

- Reframing land reform as a joint programme of government with the active involvement of land reform participants, civil society and the private sector;
- Measures to secure effective alignment of government actors in different spheres using the Ministry for Provincial and Local Governments' draft guidelines for managing joint programmes in terms of the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act (IGRFA);
- Utilizing area based plans to locate planning and support needs in a clear spatial and fiscal framework within municipal IDPs;
- Measures to determine, secure and manage land rights and ensure ongoing land rights management support from the state;

- measures to provide appropriate project-based training and learning, and strengthen capacity and institutional development;
- measures to improve access to social development benefits – health care, education, reasonable levels of service, and mitigate impacts of HIV/Aids;
- measures to ensure integrated natural resource management and sustainable human settlements; and
- comprehensive ‘front-end’ services to enhance individual household livelihoods, develop enterprises, and ensure access to finance, technical and business support.

These and other functions are to be facilitated and enabled by the formation of dedicated SIS entities at local and district municipal scales, interacting with local associations representing the interests of land reform beneficiaries (SDC, 2007).

SIS also proposes the formation of a new Chief Directorate of Settlement and Implementation Support within the Department of Land Affairs, with the responsibility of managing a joint programme of government in partnership with national and provincial departments of agriculture and putting in place the systems and procedures to enable the effective functioning of district and local support entities. It also proposes the establishment of an Inter-ministerial Forum in Terms of IGRFA chaired by the Presidency to monitor the proposed joint programme. In addition, the SIS Strategy proposes measures to improve the alignment of the regional offices of the CRLR and DLA and suggests how provincial land rights offices (DLA) could be restructured to ensure that responsibility for managing provincial joint programmes and coordinating the provision of SIS services are appropriately located (SDC, 2007).

## 2.10 Role of Agriculture in Economic Development

According to De Villiers (2008) there is wide agreement among development practitioners on the key role of agriculture in the development of less developed countries (LDC's). In fact, it is generally agreed and supported with evidence from a number of case studies that most LDC's must progress through an agricultural phase towards an industrialized developed country (DC) status. The exceptions being LDC's with limited agricultural resources in land and climate, and dependent for economic growth on other resources and positive factors. The potential role of agriculture in economic development can be classified into five groups, namely: the product factor, market, employment, and fiscal contributions (Meier, 1995)

The **product contribution** from agriculture in the economy comes from the production of food to meet the food security requirements of the nation. A country that has achieved full food security, at the national, regional, and household level, will not be dependent on food imports. The fall in food production in Zimbabwe resulted in famine, with four million people dependent on food aid last year (World Bank, 2006). In the absence of food aid assistance LDC's with inadequate food security are compelled to import food, at a heavy cost on scarce foreign exchange. The imbalance between the supply and demand for food directly affects prices. The hyper level of inflation in Zimbabwe is largely the result of inadequate food supplies and fast rising food prices. The sharp increase in food prices has a more dramatic impact on low-income households compared to high income households, due to the higher percentage of total income spent on food purchases by low-income households (Lele, 1995).

The **market contribution** from agriculture in the economy comes from the export of surplus agricultural production, earning foreign exchange to fund imports. During the white commercial farming era in Zimbabwe, large volumes of tobacco, cotton, maize, and beef were exported, earning 40% of total export earnings (ICG, 2004) The dramatic fall in foreign exchange earnings in Zimbabwe after 1980 is largely attributed to the fall in commercial agricultural production and exports. One of the areas where the lack of foreign exchange is most visible is the inability of the

Zimbabwe government to pay and secure adequate fuel and electricity imports. (De Villiers, 2008)

The **factor contribution** of agriculture for economic development stems from the forward and backward linkages between agriculture and industry. Agriculture produces a number of food and fibre items, for example, fruit, cotton, tobacco, and wool used in further processing and value adding by the industrial sector. In addition, agriculture is an important end user of a number of industrial products such as fuel, fertilizer, insecticides, and herbicides used in agricultural production, as well as support services from banking and finance, accounting, and advisory services. It has been estimated that the collapse of commercial farming in Zimbabwe resulted in a 40% decrease in business turnover in rural towns in 2002, directly impacting on the general welfare and level of services in these towns (Hawkins, 2002).

The commercial agricultural sector makes an important **employment contribution** in the economy. During the pre-land reform era, commercial agriculture in Zimbabwe was a major employer, both in direct employment on farms as well as indirect employment in agricultural oriented industries and services. It is estimated that some 350 000 farm workers with their dependents (possibly 2,1 million people) were left destitute after the collapse of commercial farming in Zimbabwe (Nofal, 2002). The sharp influx of unemployed people and the increase of squatter settlements around cities are attributed to the demise of commercial farming in Zimbabwe (Reuters Foundation, 2005).

Commercial agriculture makes an important **fiscal contribution** in the economy, through collection of income -, business – and sales tax used for funding public services in health, education, and physical infrastructure. This contribution cannot be made by subsistence agricultural production without a market surplus. The collapse of commercial farming in Zimbabwe within a relatively short period impacted negatively on the level and maintenance of public services and infrastructure, due to falling fiscal collections from one of the key sectors in the

economy. The situation was worsened by the dramatic increase in the inflation rate (De Villiers, 2008).

According to De Villiers (2008), the above analysis illustrates the broad based contribution required from agriculture for the economic development of a less-developed or developing economy. A sound basis in subsistence agricultural production can contribute positively towards rural household food security, but commercial agricultural production is required to ensure the full range of product, factor, market, employment, and fiscal contributions required for economic growth and development. The wide based collapse of the economy in Zimbabwe can be attributed to the fall in commercial agricultural production, impacting on other sectors of the economy. The fast and dramatic collapse of the economy is explained by the relatively high percentage contribution of agriculture to the gross domestic product of Zimbabwe, ranging around 20% contribution (World Bank, 1990: World Bank 2003). Although the agricultural production fell both in terms of volume and value, its contribution to the shrinking economy, estimate at a fall of 35% over the past four years, remained stable (De Villiers, 2008).

### **2.11 Collective Entrepreneurship as a means for sustainable community**

According to Van der Walt (2006), land reform and the support of emerging entrepreneurs is a key element of South Africa's overall development strategy. Its success will influence the extent to which rural incomes, currently only twenty percent on average of urban incomes, will increase, and the extent to which food security and political stability will be ensured.

Van der Walt (2006) maintains that much emphasis is often placed on the agricultural and small business sector to create jobs and alleviate poverty in rural, areas. These two sectors can undoubtedly contribute to economic development as long as obstacles in its way are bridged and the many difficulties faced by entrepreneurs are limited or addressed effectively. One way to do this is for entrepreneurs to form cooperative alliances. Many entrepreneurs in the same industry have been forced by these difficulties to organize and to form cooperatives. Not only does this strengthen the position of small businesses to

compete with big businesses and survive, but it also contributes to community development. Earnings produced by cooperatives are returned to the member/owner and the result is that this wealth is kept largely within the community. Thereby the goal of job creation and uplifting the communities could be reached.

## **2.12 The slow pace of land reform**

The findings of a report on Land Reform released by the Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE, 2008) contradict the Department of Land Affairs' assertion that market forces are holding back land reform, that white farmers are holding back land reform and that it needs extraordinary new powers of expropriation to speed up land reform. The CDE has found that land prices have not risen overall in areas experiencing restitution; nor did it find any evidence for the department's assertions about markets or established farmers. The report concludes that very little progress is being made on land reform issues and that the future of key components of South African agriculture is now at stake. The report quotes the director-general of Land Affairs as having said the 50% of projects have been abject failures and that beneficiaries are not better off than they were before and that assets are dying in the hands of the poor (CDE, 2008).

The report makes the following recommendations:

- It proposes a new, public-private partnership because there is no appropriate action-oriented body at the most senior leadership levels focused on land reform issues;
- Many department need to be involved in land reform issues;
- Parts of the restitution process should be outsourced to independent professionals to settle the remaining claims, buy land efficiently and cost effectively, and manage successful projects;
- The institutionalization of private sector participation in a way that reflects their needs and concerns as well as those of government;

- Partnership will be achieved when both parties feel free to express their concerns and both participate in defining agenda items and the frequency and purpose of meetings. (Centre for Development and Enterprise, 2008).

Kurt Sartorius (2008) argues that the land reform process has stagnated and that pessimists indicate that it could take up to 150 years at the current rate of transfer. He says that the early optimism of the Land Reform programme has increasingly been replaced by anger and frustration and it has been suggested that the failure rate of LRAD projects has been as high as 50%.

Sartorius (2008) has highlighted the following as the problems retarding the process:

- Only farmers who consistently produce large volumes of high quality food commodities can survive because the days of farmer subsidies and protection are gone but the risks remain the same, namely volatile world prices, erratic weather patterns, global warming and a staggering increase in the cost of inputs.
- Land Reform has failed because it is an engineering exercise that contradicts economic reality. Its basic aims are to replace the owners of white commercial farms with large numbers of black farmers or, alternatively, to split up successful large farm operations into a series of small or medium-sized farms.
- The creation of a small-medium farm sector defies economic reality of modern farming because the industrialization of farming in other countries has been accompanied by an increase in farm size.
- Smaller farmers simply cannot afford the high cost of capital inputs in relation to the size of their farms. It is, therefore, more expensive for small farmers to operate than larger farmers and their produce is also more expensive because of increased transaction costs for the buyer.
- The Land Reform programme focused only on the transfer of land to the bewildered recipients. It neglected to ensure that recipients have the necessary skills, assets, and finance to engage in commercial agriculture.

- Government does not have the administrative capacity to manage this enormously complicated exercise, and it is unable to coordinate the activities of its various ministries involved.

According to Sartorius (2008), the only player capable of making a difference at the moment would appear to be the South African food manufacturing industry, collectively often referred to as the agribusiness sector.

- The agribusiness sector is enormously powerful and contributes approximately R124-billion to South Africa's annual gross domestic product. About 2230 companies are involved in the manufacture of food and beverages. These companies have the financial muscle, technology, management skills and intimate knowledge of a wide range of commodities.
- The agribusiness sector could significantly expand black farming in over 23 different food and fibre chains, as well as contribute significantly to the success of the Land Reform programme.
- The institutional arrangement it would employ to expand black supply would be some form of contract farming, which has expanded rapidly throughout the world and is an adequate response the modernization of agriculture. Farmers or groups of farmers enter into contracts with a processor or supermarket to supply a food commodity. In return, the agribusiness company often provides a range of support, inputs and technology to the farmers, who are guaranteed a market for their produce.
- Each project is guided by the direct management skills and inputs of a specific company with respect to a specific food or fibre commodity.

Many contract-farming projects will require land and the agribusiness company concerned can facilitate this acquisition by providing the accompanying the business plan to the finance institution. This business plan will be backed by a long-term contract. Each land reform deal, therefore, would be underwritten, in a way, by the agri-business company, which would also ensure a wide range of post-land transfer benefits. Land Reform projects would be linked to contract-farming opportunities to ensure that each project is viable.

Sartorius (2008) agrees that it would be naïve to expect that the land reform debacle, as well as the lack of transformation, can be put right by the rather simplistic explanations offered in his article. The suggestion of the role of agribusiness, as well as contract farming, is just one of the possible answers to some of the problems of land reform and transformation.

### **2.13 Project Design and Land Use**

While land reform in South Africa has given rise to a variety of forms of land use a few characteristics stand out, particularly the preservation of existing farm boundaries and an emphasis on production for the market. This has led, in turn, to 'collective' dimension to many land reform projects, especially those involving relatively poor members, those implemented under Settlement Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG) programmes and large, community-based restitution settlements. A high proportion of land reform beneficiaries are members of some sort of collective (or communal) structure, typically organized as a Communal Property Association (CPA) or a Trust, and many of these not only own land in common but are involved in some form of collective production. (Lahiff, 2008).

According to Lahiff (2008), collective ownership of land and collective agricultural production are not in themselves problematic, and are undoubtedly favoured by many people. The trouble – and there is widespread agreement that many of these collective institutions are in trouble – is that they are effectively imposed on people by the land reform programme with little consideration of their appropriateness in particular circumstances, the actual wishes of participants and possible alternatives. Groups typically struggle to make use of available resources and rarely receive the external support they require to function effectively. While collective (or communal) ownership of land has been actively promoted in official land reform policy, the collective forms of production that tend to accompany it have not, and appear to be an unintended consequence of the model of landholding.

While collective ownership of land is driven by a range of factors, including the desire of many people, especially relatively poor people, for the solidarity and

protection of a group enterprise, and African custom, the most important factor is the refusal of state agencies to contemplate the subdivision of existing agricultural units (Lahiff 2008). An official insistence on collective production then emerges as a 'solution' to the challenge of managing large farming units in a way that resembles the practice of previous owner-occupiers. This is reinforced by the imposition of 'business plans' based on conventional commercial farming models and often questionable financial assumptions, with little reference to the needs and resources of the actual participants (Wegerif 2008). Some better-off participants have been able to get around the collective model by amassing sufficient grants, loans and resources of their own to buy entire farms, either individually or as small family-based groups. For poorer participants in the redistribution programme, however, faced with grants that fall far short of typical farm prices, there has been little choice but to join together with other applicants, often in groups of upwards of one hundred members. Similar forms of group ownership have arisen as part of large community-based restitution settlements. While the problems associated with large group schemes have been recognized almost from the beginning of the land reform programme, it is notable that new projects with large group sizes continue to be implemented in provinces such as Kwazulu-Natal, Mpumalanga, Limpopo and the Western Cape (Lahiff 2008).

The official response to the problems of large group projects, especially under LRAD, has effectively been limited to targeting better-off individuals who qualify for larger grants (and loans) and thereby can purchase, either as individuals or in small groups, the relatively large landholdings that typically come on the market. Under the 'willing buyer, willing seller' policy, intended beneficiaries have been limited to the land parcels that come on the market and, because land is not purchased directly by the state (in the sense that ownership passes directly from the seller to the intended beneficiaries), the state has not been in a strong position to subdivide land after purchase. With moves towards proactive land acquisition and expropriation, it should be possible for the state to acquire a greater variety of land parcels to meet specific needs, without being restricted to what comes on the market. Moreover, because the state may acquire direct ownership of land under both these approaches it would, in theory, be in a much stronger position to

subdivide land prior to its allocation to beneficiaries, if it were inclined to do so (Lahiff 2008).

Recent policy developments suggest that state departments are aware of the problems of what effectively has been obligatory collectivization, and are open to greater variety of forms of landholding and land use. As in the past, however, the solutions proposed under LARP tend towards promoting fewer, better-resourced and commercially oriented individuals on larger holdings, with little in the way of new or innovative thinking about how to meet the needs of poor people wishing to obtain smaller plots of land primarily for food production (Lahiff 2008).

PLAS also makes provision for land reform beneficiaries to lease land from the state (which itself implies to access to cash resources) prior to transfer of ownership, but the context suggests leasing of whole properties to groups, with no reference to subdivision (DLA 2006:18) LARP makes only passing reference to the possibility of subdivision. While the LARP Concept Document promotes individualization, this does not in itself suggest any commitment to subdivision or other restructuring of existing large-scale farming enterprises, and appears to offer nothing specifically to relatively small and less commercially oriented producers.

The agricultural or agri-business enterprises that are to be created and /or supported under LARP include farms and agri-businesses that can be held by individuals or groups, however, based on the evident difficulties experienced by groups in sustainable management of enterprises, preference will be given to structures where individual management decisions can be taken. (MoA 2008:41)

## **2.15 Conclusion**

Land reform and the support of emerging black farmers is regarded as a key element of South Africa's overall development strategy and is envisaged as the driving force for rural development. The goal is to create healthy and sustainable farming enterprises and local economies that provide jobs and opportunities and increase rural income. However, the lack of post-settlement support, lack of production skills, insufficient production inputs, lack of funding and the lack of entrepreneurial skills are very often major stumbling blocks to achieve this goal.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter will start off by stating the research method and the design of the study. The instruments used to collect data will be explained and discussed. The chapter will also discuss what the researcher learnt during the process and the difficulties that were encountered during the research. At the end a conclusion will be discussed which will enable the researcher to proceed to chapter four of this study.

Research methodology refers to a research process and the kind of tools and procedures to be used (Mouton, 2001:75). For the purpose of the envisaged study, the qualitative approach will be employed as this will bring out the people's individual and collective social actions, beliefs, thoughts, and perceptions about the sustainability of LRAD Land Reform projects in the Modimolle Municipality of the Limpopo Province.

#### **3.2 Research design**

Creswell (1994:1) says the design of a research starts with a topic and a paradigm selection and he defines methodology as a process of research within a paradigm. A research design is a strategic framework for action (organized inquiry according to Anderson 1990) that serves a bridge between research questions and the execution of the research (Durrheien, 1999: Merriam, 2001:45). Good research follows a strategic framework developed from prior theory and research or by thought and rational deduction (Anderson, 1990) and this strategic framework serves to clarify the problem and help determine the best approach to this solution.

#### **3.3 Area of the study**

The Modimolle Municipality is situated in the Waterberg District of the Limpopo Province. Modimolle Town is the larger of two towns in the municipality and lies approximately 150 kilometers south of Polokwane and approximately 110

kilometers north of Pretoria. The Modimolle Municipality has 26 settlements with an estimated population of 290 000 inhabitants. There are about 890 farms in this municipal area. White farmers own the vast majority of these farms due to the racially skewed land policies of the previous apartheid government that denied blacks access to land ownership. The area enjoys hot summers and moderate winters and has an annual rainfall of around 700 millimetres. The vast majority of the inhabitants are Tswana speaking black South Africans and the areas in which they live are largely under developed settlements and townships such as Phagameng outside Modimolle Town, and Mabatlane outside Vaalwater. The research will focus on the impact and sustainability of Land Reform projects on the lives of the land reform beneficiaries in this municipality.

### **3.4 Population**

According to McMillan & Schumacher, a population is a group of elements or cases, whether individuals, objects, or events, that conform to specific criteria and to which we intend to generalize the results of the research. This group is also referred to as the target population or universe. The target population is often different from the list of elements from which the sample is actually selected, which is termed the survey population or sampling frame (McMillan & Schumacher 2001:169). The population for the envisaged study will be one half (50 %) of all the projects that have benefited from the LRAD Land Reform programme. It will also include the other main stakeholder in the land reform programme which is the Department of Agriculture (Modimolle Extension Office). All eight (8) extension officers in the Modimolle Extension Office will form part of the study.

### **3.5 Sample selection method and size**

Usually the populations that interest human behavioural scientists are so large that, from a practical point of view, it is simply impossible to conduct research on all of them. Consequently, researchers have to obtain data from only a sample of these populations and then extrapolate the findings out to the larger population. Before they draw a sample of the population for analysis, researchers should obtain clarity about the population, or units of analysis, to which their research topic or hypothesis apply. (Welman et.al. 2001:47)

For this study, the researcher will make use of **Systematic Sampling** under **Probability Sampling**. According to McMillan & Schumacher (2001:170), in probability sampling subjects are drawn from a larger population in such a way that the probability of selecting each member of the population is known, though probabilities are not necessarily equal. This type of sampling is conducted to efficiently provide estimates of what is true for a population from a smaller group of subjects (sample). That is, what is described in a sample will also be true, with some degree of error, for the population. When probability sampling is done correctly, a very small percentage of the population can be selected. This saves time and money without sacrificing accuracy. In fact, in most social science and educational research it is both impractical and unnecessary to measure all elements of the population of interest.

In **Systematic Sampling**, every *n*th element is selected from a list of all elements in the population, beginning with a randomly selected element. In this study the researcher decided to draw a 50% sample from a population of 20. A number from 1 to 20 was randomly selected as the starting point, and that number was 2. Because 2 was selected, every second project was selected: 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18 and 20. This approach was used because the researcher had a sequential list of all the subjects in the population.

A list of all LRAD (Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development) land reform projects in the Modimolle Municipality was drawn up. The total number of LRAD projects came to twenty, which meant that the population was twenty. It was decided that half (50%) of the population was going to be sampled. Starting from the randomly selected number 2, every second project was selected up to number 20. The ten projects selected from the population of twenty projects would therefore be the sample from which the data would be obtained.

### **3.6 Data collection methods and procedures**

Data collection methods basically refer to the tools to be used in collecting information from the respondents (Bless and Smith, 2004:103). In this research, questionnaires will be used in order to gather get an incisive understanding of the situations and meanings for those involved in the LRAD land reform programme in the Modimolle Municipality of the Limpopo Province. According to McMillan & Schumacher (2001:443), questionnaires are open-response questions to obtain data of participant meanings – how individuals conceive of their world and how they explain or “make sense” of the important events in their lives. The researcher will make use of questionnaires.

### **3.7 Data analysis and interpretation**

Qualitative researchers integrate the operations of organizing, analyzing, and interpreting data and call the entire process “data analysis.” Qualitative data analysis is primarily an inductive process of organizing the data into categories and identifying patterns (relationships) among the categories. (McMillan & Schumacher 2001: 461). In the envisaged study, the categories and patterns will emerge from the data, rather than being imposed on the data prior to data collection. Data will be divided into small units of meaning which will then be systematically named per unit, that is, coded according to what a unit of meaning signifies for the researcher. Coding is therefore the process of dividing data into parts by a classification system.

This researcher will develop a classification system by using one of the following three strategies:

- Segmenting the data into units of content called topics (less than 25-30) and grouping the topics into larger clusters to form categories; or
- Starting with predetermined categories of no more than four to six and breaking each category into smaller subcategories; or
- Combining the strategies, using some predetermined categories and adding discovered new categories.

Data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data (De Vos et al, 2004:339). After a researcher has completed the task of gathering information, the next step is to move to data analysis. According to Henning (2004:102), working with qualitative data provides a researcher with many options on how to convert the raw data into final patterns of meaning. In this envisaged study, the present researcher will use the following steps:

### **3.7.1. Managing (organizing) data**

This is the first step in data analysis. The researcher will organize data into file folders, index cards or computer files. Besides organizing files, researchers convert their files to appropriate text units, e.g. a word, a sentence, an entire story, for analysis either by hand or by computer (Creswell, 1998:143). Organizing data is very important because the researcher is able to identify gaps or information left out during data collection process. This can imply the following questions: are the field notes complete?, are there any parts that you put off to write later and never got to but need to be finished even at this late date, before beginning analysis?, are there any glaring holes in the data that can still be filled by collecting additional data before the analysis begins? Are all data properly labelled with a notation system that will make retrieval manageable?

### **3.7.2. Reading and writing memos**

After the organization and conversion of the data, the researcher will continue analysis by getting a feeling for the database. To be familiar with the data, the researcher will go through them several times. Reading, reading and reading once more through the data forces the researcher to become familiar with the data in intimate (Marchall and Rossman, 1999:153). During the reading process, the researcher will list on note cards the data available, perform the minor editing necessary to make field notes retrievable and generally clean up what seems overwhelming and unmanageable.

### **3.7.3. Generating categories, themes and patterns**

After reading and writing memos, the researcher will proceed to the next step which is the categorization of data. According to Marshall and Rossman (1999:154), this is the most difficult, complex, ambiguous, creative and enjoyable phase. At this phase, data will be grouped together in categories that contain related codes. Each category will therefore contain codes that are systematically related. The researcher will then attach names to those categories and ensure that the names decided upon can be a quick reminder of the data presented. During this phase, the researcher will also identify, recurring ideas or grounded categories of meaning held by participants in the setting.

Creswell (1998:144), states that classifying means taking the text or qualitative information apart and looking for categories, themes, or dimensions of information.

### **3.7.4. Coding the data**

According to Marshall and Rossman (1999:155, 157), coding data is the formal representation of analytic thinking. The tough intellectual work of analysis is generating categories and themes. The researcher then applies some coding scheme to those categories and themes and diligently and thoroughly marks passages in the data using the codes. Codes may take several forms, abbreviations of keys words, coloured dots, numbers etc. The present researcher will divide the data into small units of meaning, which are then systematically named per unit, that is, codes according to what a unit of meaning signifies for the researcher. According to De Vos et al. (2004:346), the process, where in a researcher conceptualize data by comparing incidents so that similar phenomena are given the same name, is called coding.

### **3.7.5. Testing emergent understanding**

The present researcher, will in this phase begin the process of evaluating the plausibility of developing understanding and exploring them through the data. This entails a search through the data during which the researcher challenges the understanding, searches for negative instances of the patterns and incorporates these into larger constructs as necessary. Part of this phase is evaluating the data

for their usefulness and centrality. The present researcher will determine how useful the data are in illuminating the questions being explored and how central they are to the story unfolding about the social phenomenon being studied.

### **3.7.6. Searching for alternative explanations**

At this stage, categories and patterns emerge in the data and the present researcher will engage in the critical act of challenging the pattern that seems apparent. The researcher will also search for other plausible explanations for the data and link them. Alternative explanations always exist; the researcher must search for, identify and describe them, and then demonstrate why the explanation offered is the most plausible of all (Marshall and Rossman, 1999:157).

### **3.7.7. Writing the report**

According to Marshall and Rossman (1999:157), writing about qualitative data cannot be separated from the analytic process. It is central to that process, for in the choice of particular words to summarize and reflect the complexity of the data, the researcher is engaging in the interpretive act, lending shape and form meaning to massive amounts of raw data. In this final phase, the present researcher will engage in the critical act of linking explanations emanated from the data, so as to come up with a final, concrete and comprehensive report.

## **3.8 Ethical consideration**

Since most research deals with human beings, it is necessary to understand the ethical and legal responsibilities of conducting research. Ethics generally are considered to deal with beliefs about what is right or wrong, proper or improper, good or bad. (McMillan & Schumacher 2001:195) As the primary investigator of this study, this researcher will be responsible for the ethical standards to which the study will adhere. Before commencing the study, the researcher will inform the subjects of all aspects of the research that might influence willingness to participate and answer all inquiries of subjects on features that may have adverse effects or consequences. The researcher will be as open and honest with the subjects as possible and a full disclosure of the purpose of the research will be made. Because Government officials will also be part of the study in their official

capacities, departmental approvals from the heads of their respective offices will be requested.

### **3.9 Limitations of the study**

The findings of the envisaged study will be limited to the Modimolle Municipality area and cannot be generalized. This is the case because findings based on a sample can be taken as representing only the aggregation of the elements that compose the sample frame and, often, sampling frames do not truly include all the elements their names might imply and omissions are therefore almost inevitable.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

#### 4.1 Introduction

The basis of the study was to ensure that the findings are able to respond to the research objectives and questions. The instrument used to collect data was relevant for the study because it managed to capture both research objectives and research questions.

The data collected from the respondents was interpreted using SPSS. The results were to analyze the causes of the un-productivity of land redistribution projects in the Modimolle Municipality of the Limpopo Province of South Africa.

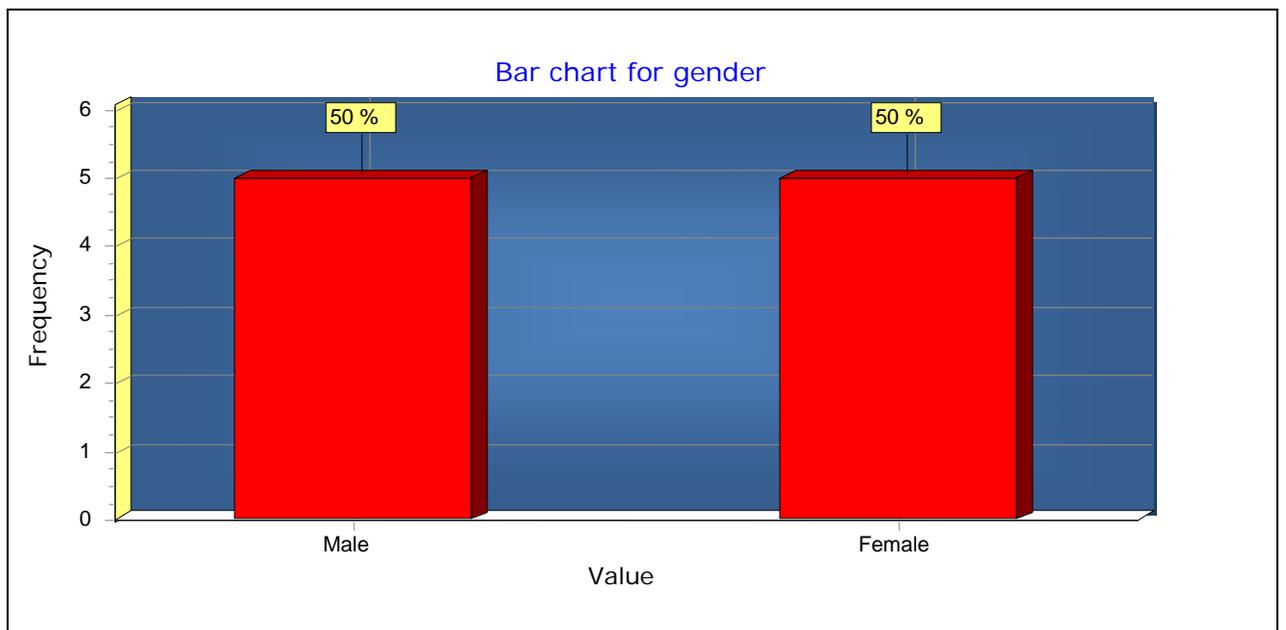
#### SECTION A: BENEFICIARIES

#### 4.2 Demographics of the respondents

##### 4.2.1 Gender

50% of the respondents were male and 50% were female, which represents 5 respondents on each side. The figure below indicates the findings of the study.

Figure 1 gender of the respondents



#### 4.2.2 Age distribution of the respondents

The study has revealed poor participation by youth (18-35 years) in the land redistribution programme in the Modimolle Municipality where the youth registered only 30% participation, which represents 3 cases from the study. The reason behind the poor participation by youth was not captured but it could be as a result of the low income that farming generates both monthly and annually.

The majority of respondents were aged between 36 and 60 years and this represents 60% (6) of the respondents from the study, while 1 (10%) respondent was aged above 61 years. The study by Malope and Molapisane (2006: 40) confirms poor participation by youth in the Babirwa district where it registered only 9% youth against 91% of adult participation.

Table 1 reveals the findings of the study.

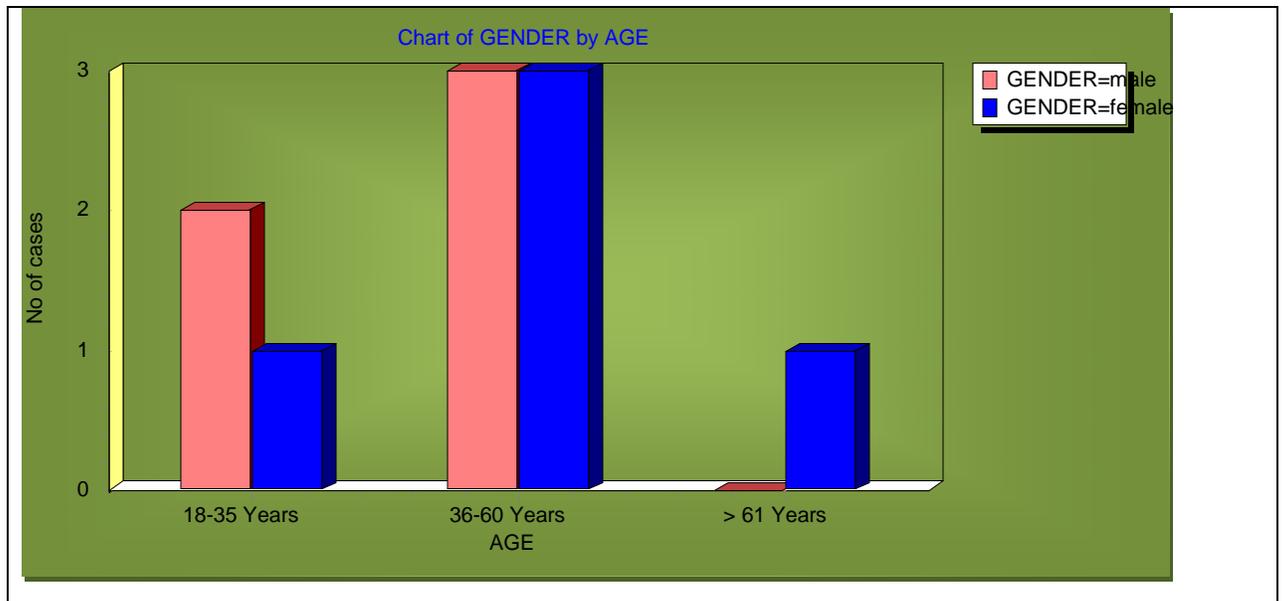
Values	N	%
18-35 years	3	30
36-60 years	6	60
More the 61 years	1	10
Total	10	100

Missing cases: 0

#### 4.2.3 Cross-tabulating gender and age of the respondents

The study found that the value "18-35 years" achieved 2 cases for males and 1 case for females while the value "36-60 years" achieved 3 cases for each gender category; and the value "> 61 years" achieved 1 case for females. The chart below indicates the details of the findings.

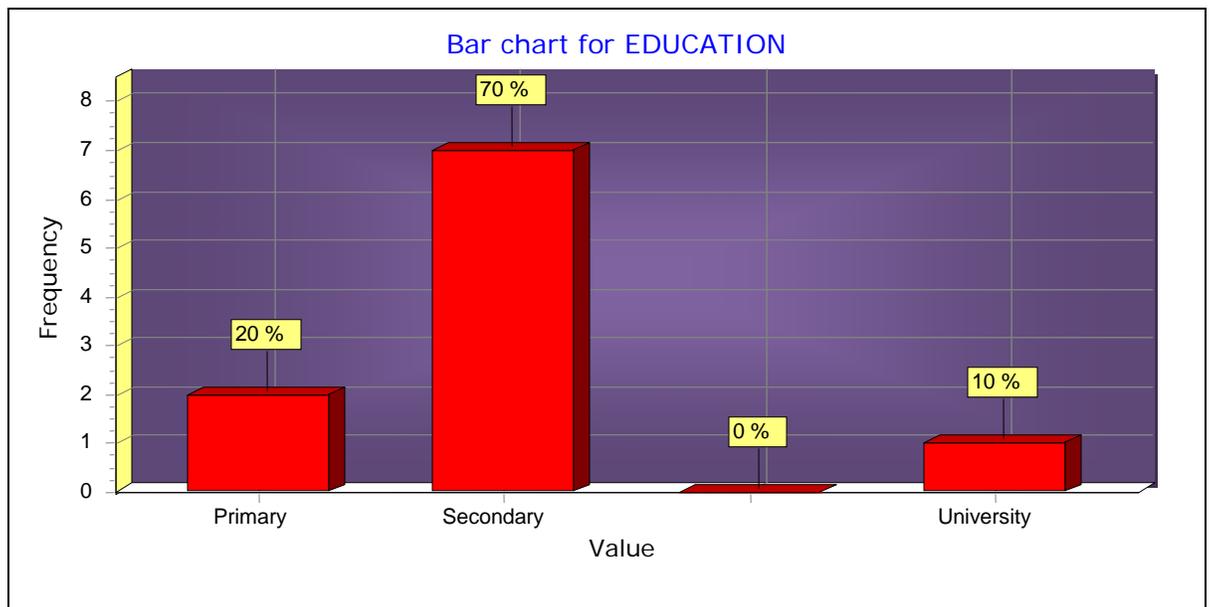
Figure 2 Cross-tabulating gender and age of the respondents



#### 4.2.4 Education of the respondents

The study captured that 20% (2) of the respondents attended school up to primary level, while 70% (7) attended school up to secondary level. Only one respondent had a university degree. This confirms a study by Malope and Molapisane (2006: 40) who indicated a reluctance by the educated section of the community to participate in agricultural activities. The chart below indicates the findings of the study.

Figure 3 Education of the respondents



#### 4.2.5 Tabulating gender by education

Only one respondent from each gender category had primary education, while those who had attended secondary education were 3 for male and 4 for female respondents. One (1) male respondent has a university degree and nothing was achieved for female respondents. The table below reveals the findings from the study.

Table 2 Tabulating gender by education

EDUCATION	GENDER		TOTAL
	Male	Female	
Primary	1	1	2
Secondary	3	4	7
University	1	0	1
<b>TOTAL</b>	5	5	10

#### 4.2.6 Tabulating age by education

The respondents who had attended school up to primary education and aged between 18-35 years were 0. The following cases were also achieved for the value “education” on secondary education 2, university education 1 for the variable “18-35 years”; 36-60 years achieved 2 cases for primary, 4 cases for secondary and 0 case for university education while >61 years achieved 0 case for primary, 1 case for secondary and 0 case for university education. Figure 3 indicates the findings of the study.

Table 3 Tabulating age by education

EDUCATION	AGE			
	18-35 years	36-60 years	>61 years	TOTAL
Primary	0	2	0	2
Secondary	2	4	1	7
University	1	0	0	1
<b>TOTAL</b>	3	6	1	10

#### 4.2.7 Statistical correlation of variables

The r value indicates the strength of the correlation. An r of -1 is a perfect negative correlation, an r of 1 is a perfect positive correlation, and an r of 0 means there is no correlation. The p value indicates if the correlation is statistically significant. The p value from table 3 is 0.347, which is larger than 0.05. This suggests that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups.

Table 3 correlation of variables

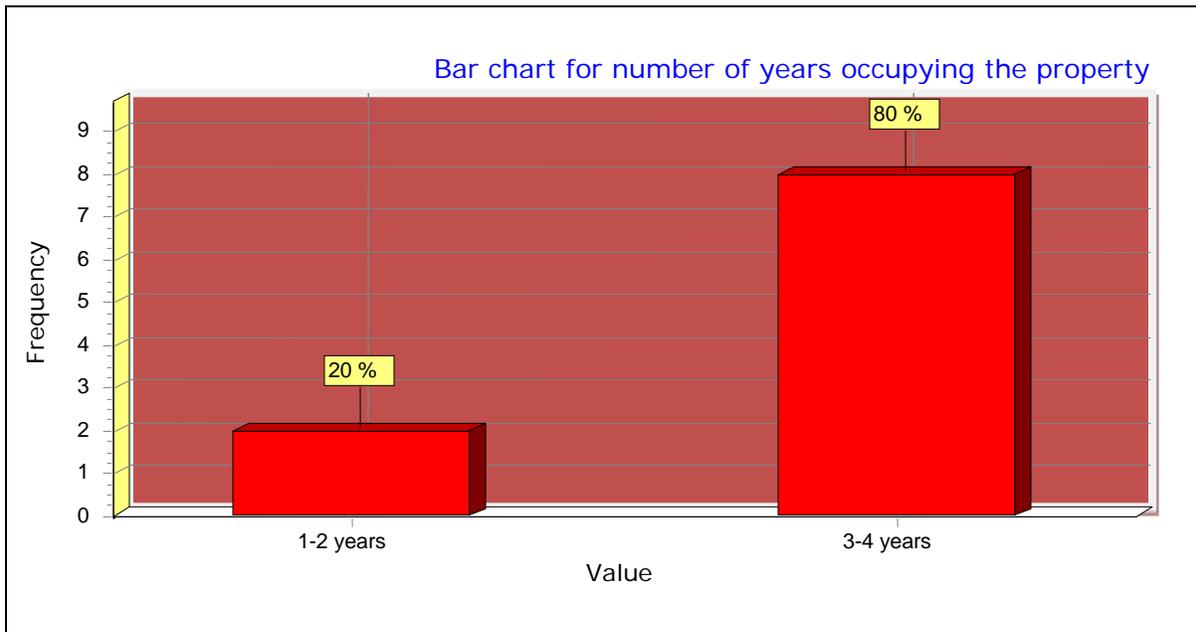
Variables	p-value	r-value	Decision
Gender and age	0.347	0.33	NS
Gender and education	0.741	-0.26	NS
Age and education	0.214	-0.43	NS

NB: The r-value indicates the strength of the correlation. An r of -1 is a perfect negative correlation, an r of 1 is a perfect positive correlation, and an r of 0 means there is no correlation. NS= Not statistically significantly correlated.

#### 4.2.8 The number of years occupying the property

20% (2) of the respondents (figure 4) indicated that they had been occupying the property for 1-2 years, while 80% (8) of them indicated that they had been occupying the property for 3-4 years (figure 4).

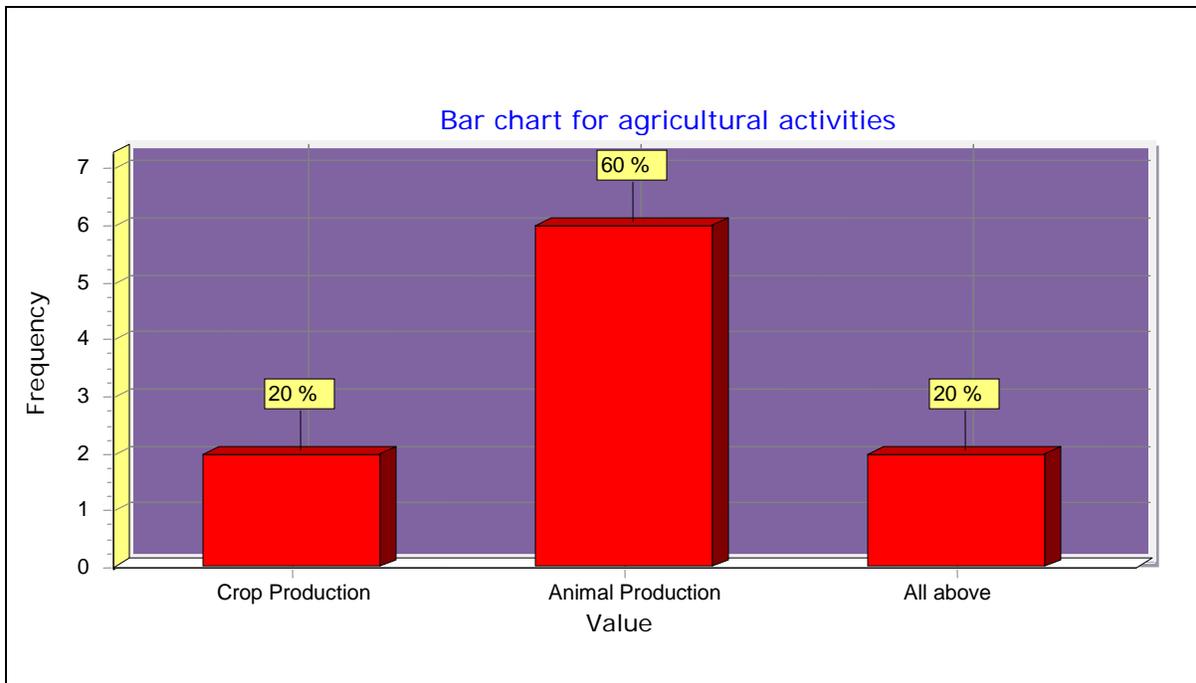
Figure 4 Number of years occupying the property



#### 4.2.9 Agricultural activities

20% (2) of the respondents (figure 5) indicated that they were involved in crop production on the farm while 60% (6) were involved on animal production; and those who indicated “All of the above” were 20% (2). The figure below indicates the findings of the study.

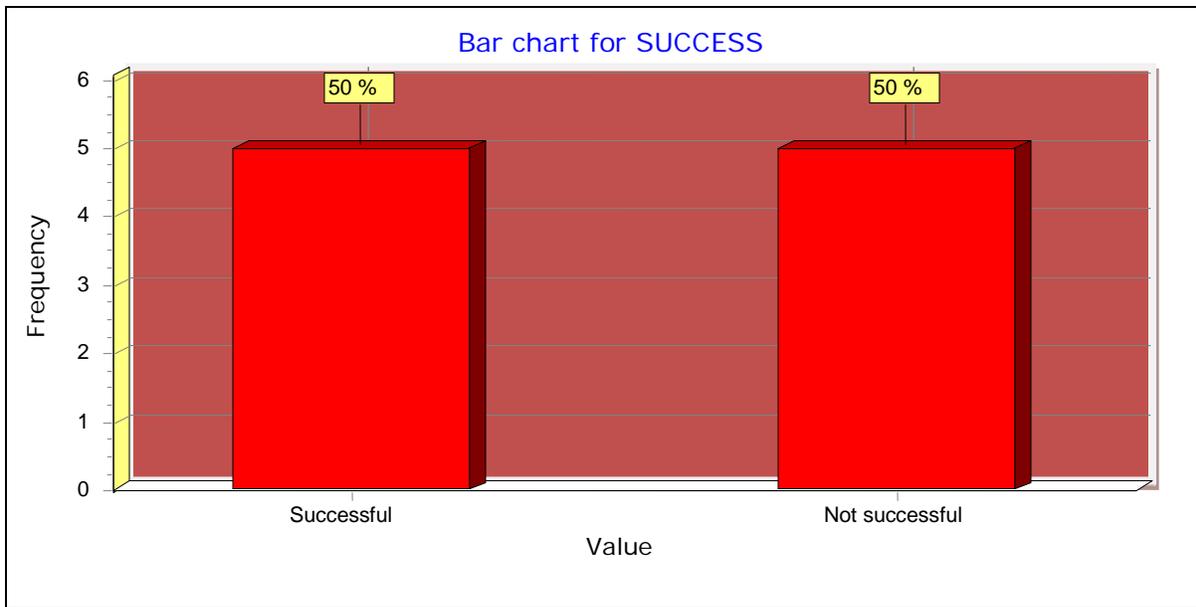
Figure 5 agricultural activities



#### 4.2.10 Description of the success of the project

50% (5) of the respondents indicated that their projects have succeeded and the other 50% indicated that they are not successful with regard to their project implementation.

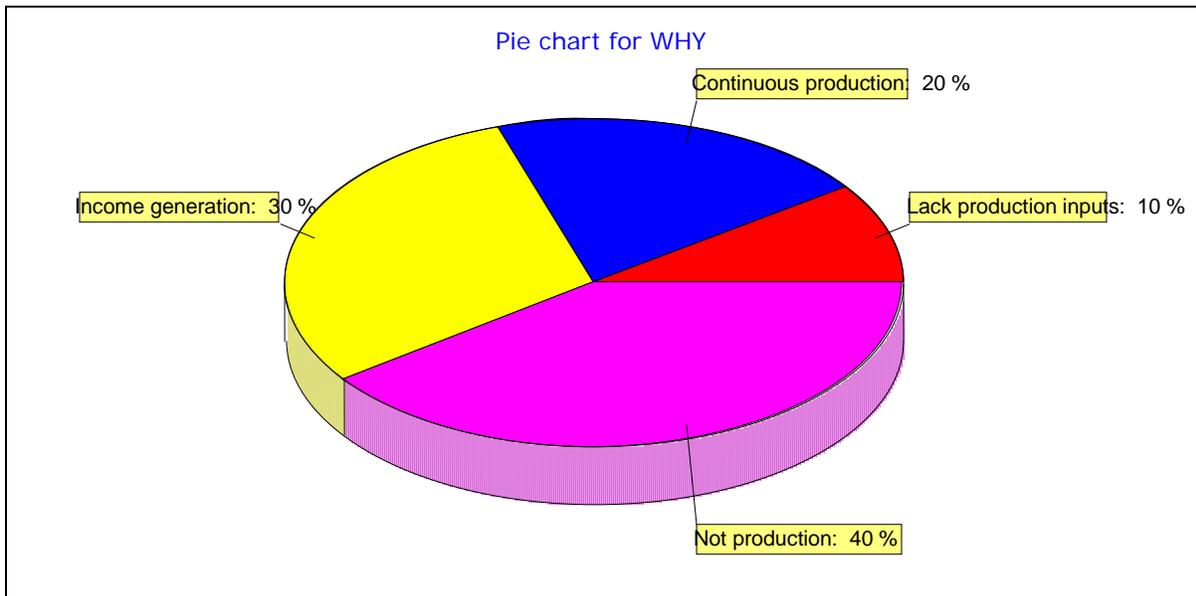
Figure 6 Description of the success of the project



#### 4.2.11 Reasons behind description as on 4.2.10.

20% of the respondents indicated that they were successful because they had continuous production. This represents 2 cases from the study, while 30% indicated that they were successful because they were able to generate income from the projects, and it is represented by 3 cases from the study. Only 10% (1) respondent indicated that the project failed due to a lack of production inputs. The value "No production" was achieved by 40% of the respondents, representing (4) cases from the study.

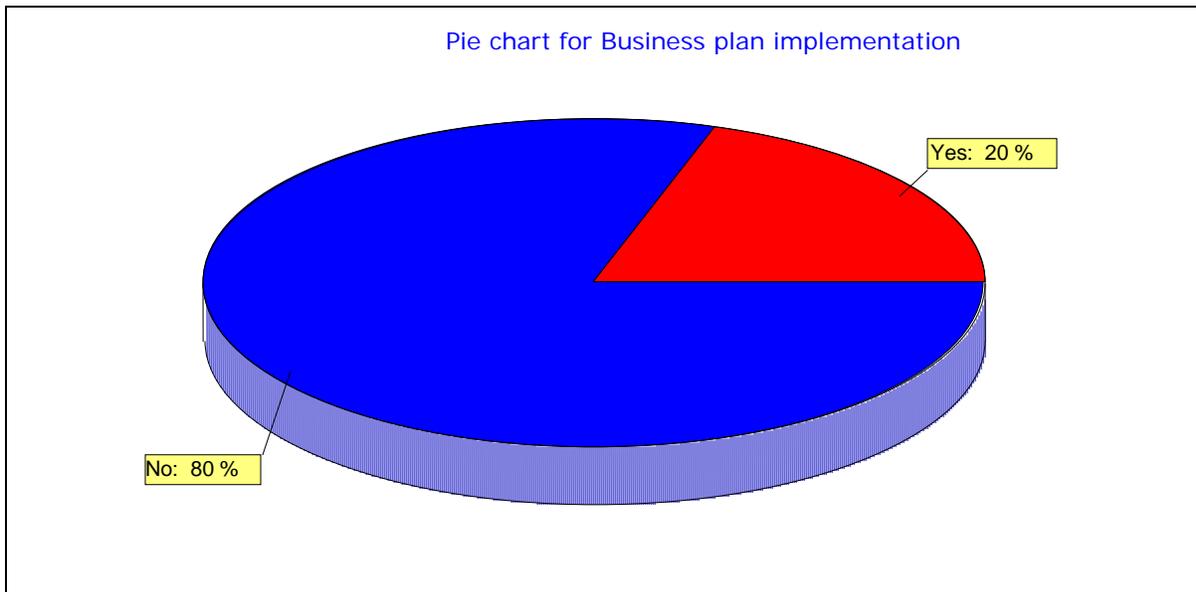
Figure 7 Reasons why the projects were described as such



#### 4.2.12 Business plan implementation

When asked whether they were able to implement their business plans 20% (2) of the respondents indicated (Yes) that the business plan was fully implemented while 80% (8) of the respondents indicated that the business plans were not fully implemented. The figure below indicates the findings of the study.

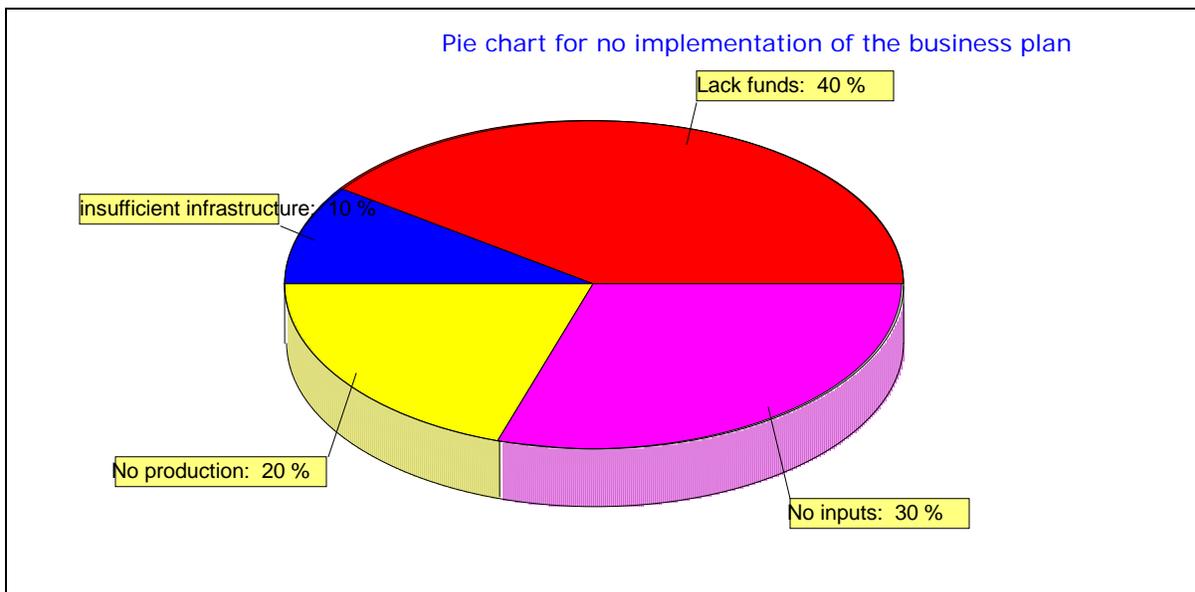
Figure 8 Business plan implementation



#### 4.2.13 Explanation for not implementing the business plan

40% (4) of the respondents indicated that lack of funds was their stumbling block towards the full implementation of their projects, while 30% (3) of respondents indicated that lack of production inputs was a major challenge towards the implementation. Lack of infrastructure achieved 10% of the cases while “no production” achieved 20% of the cases, and representing 1 and 2 cases respectively. The figure below reveals the findings of the study.

Figure 9 Explanation for not implementing the business plan



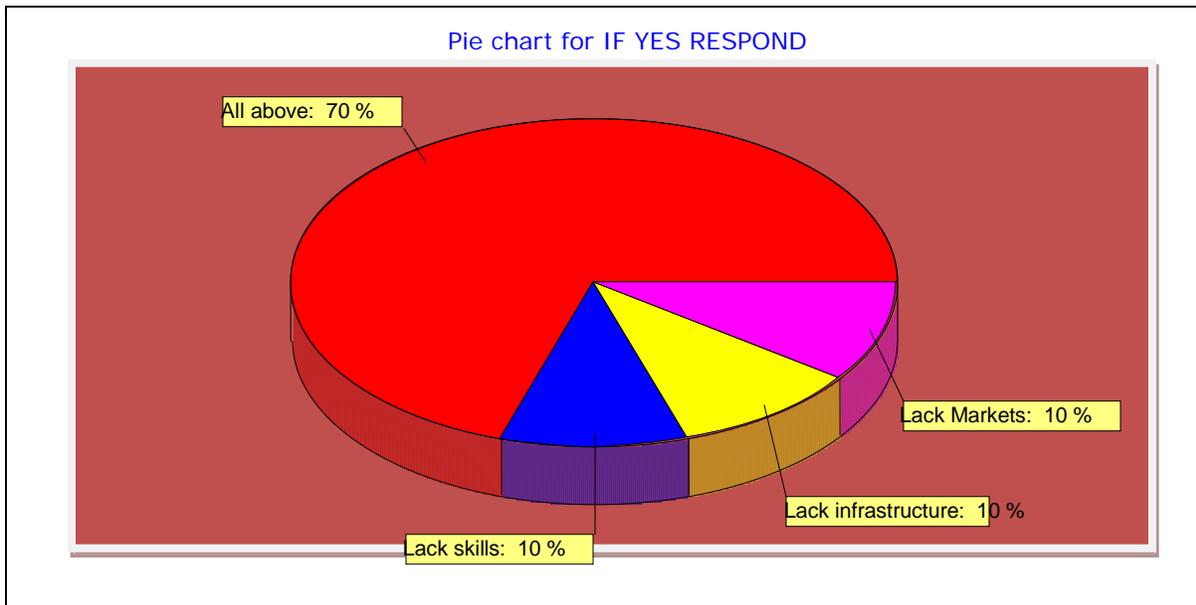
#### 4.2.14 Challenges experienced in terms of agricultural production on the farm

One hundred percent of the respondents indicated that they have challenges in terms of agricultural production on the farms. Paragraph 4.2.15 indicates the challenges the farmers/beneficiaries experienced.

#### 4.2.15 Types of challenges experienced

Lack of skills was one of the challenges experienced. The study captured 10% (1) response towards that. Lack of infrastructure and lack of markets also captured the same percentage response (number) of cases as the first case, while “All above” achieved 70% of the cases, representing 7 cases from the study. The figure below indicates the findings from the study.

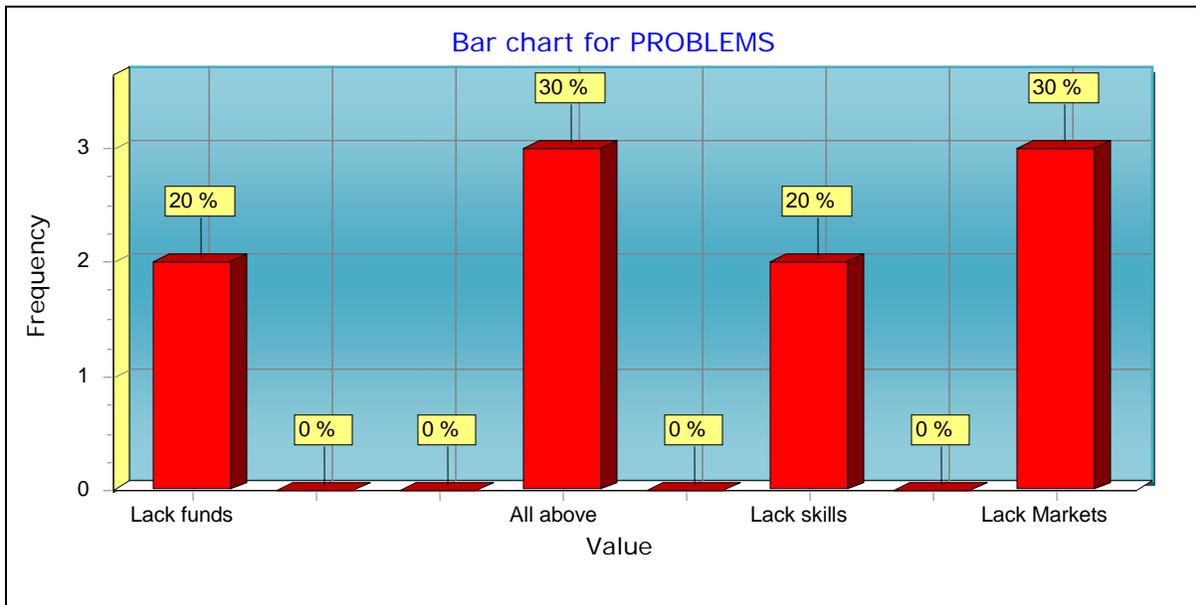
Figure 10 Types of challenges experienced



#### 4.2.16 Challenges which could be resolved with ease

20% (2) of the respondents indicated that lack of funds could be resolved with ease, while other respondents (20%) indicated that lack of skills could be easily resolved, and this represented 2 cases from the study. Thirty percent of the respondents indicated that lack of markets could be resolved with ease, which represented 3 cases from the study. The value “All above” achieved 30% of the cases and represented 3 cases. The figure below represents the findings from the study.

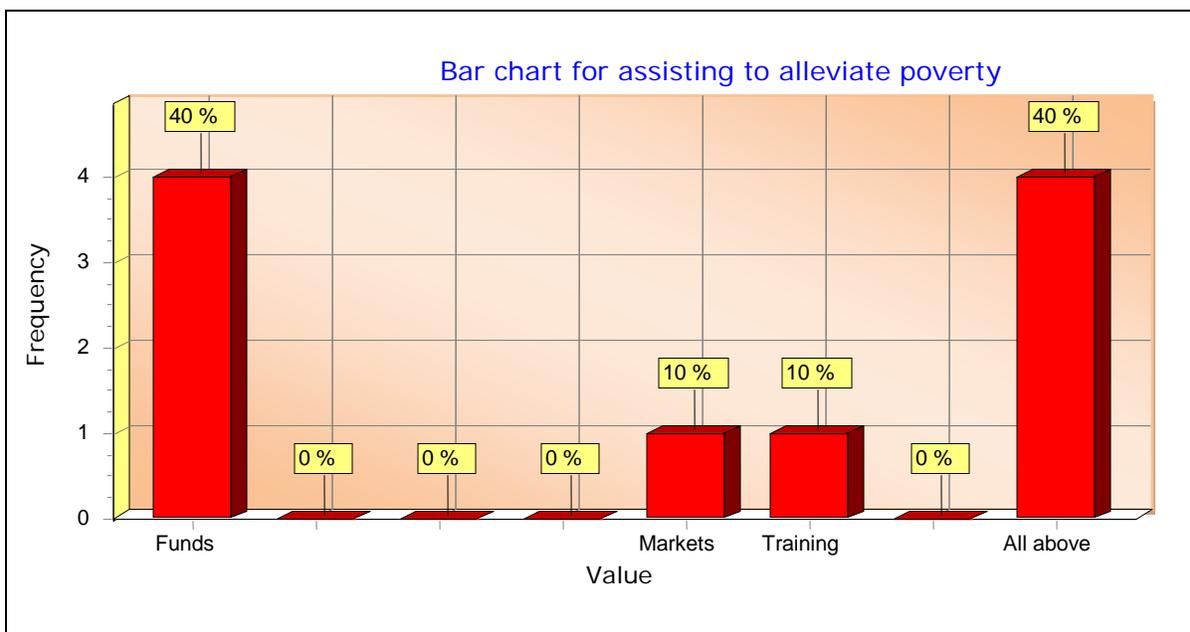
Figure 11 Challenges which could be resolved with ease



#### 4.2.17 The following will be useful in assisting to alleviate poverty

40% (4) of the respondents indicated that funds will be useful should it be made easily accessible to the beneficiaries. About 10% of the respondents indicated that they have a challenge regarding the accessibility of markets; this represents 1 case from the study. The value "All of the above" was achieved by 40% (4) of the cases. All of the above represented variables like, funds, implements, inputs, infrastructure, markets, mentoring and training, strategic partner and other. Figure 12 indicates the findings of the study.

Figure 12. The following will be useful in assisting to alleviate poverty



#### 4.2.18 Kind of support received from the department of agriculture

10% of the respondents indicated that they received skills training from the department of agriculture. This represented 1 case from the study. Thirty percent (3) respondents indicated that they received technical advice from the Department of Agriculture, while those who indicated “All of the above” represented 60% (6) of the cases (table 4).

Table 4. Frequency table for the kind of support from the department

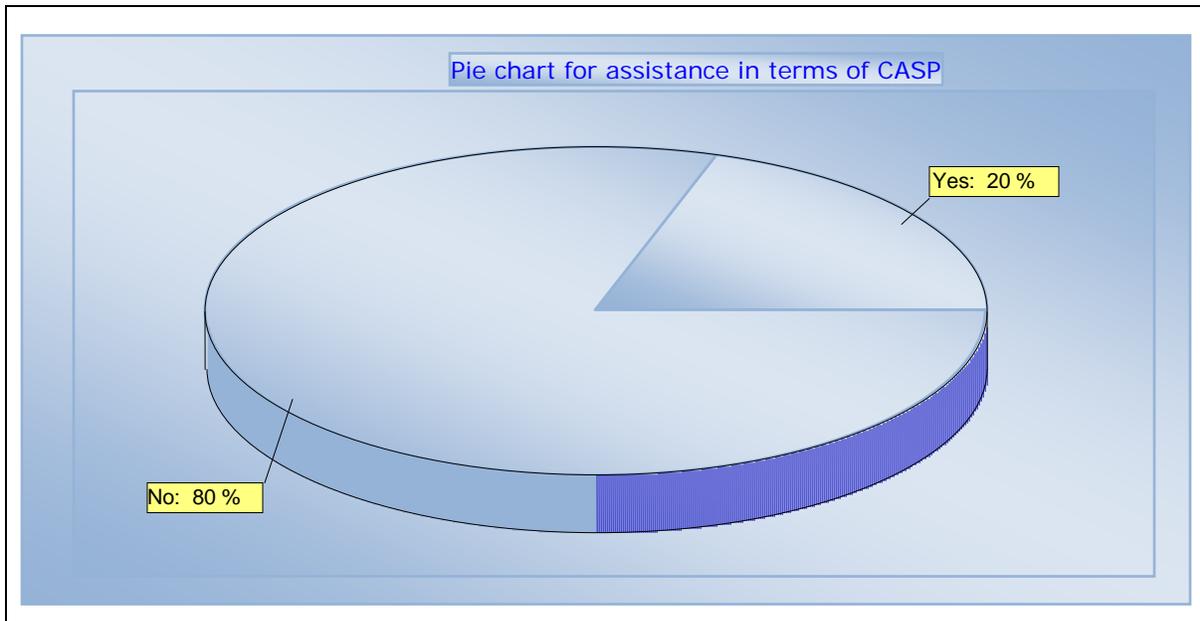
Variables	N	%
Skills training	1	10
Technical advice	3	30
All the above	6	60
Total	10	100

## 4.2.19 Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP)

### 4.2.19.1 Assistance through of CASP

20% (2) of the respondents indicated that they have received assistance through CASP while 80% (8) indicated that they did not get any assistance of any form through CASP.

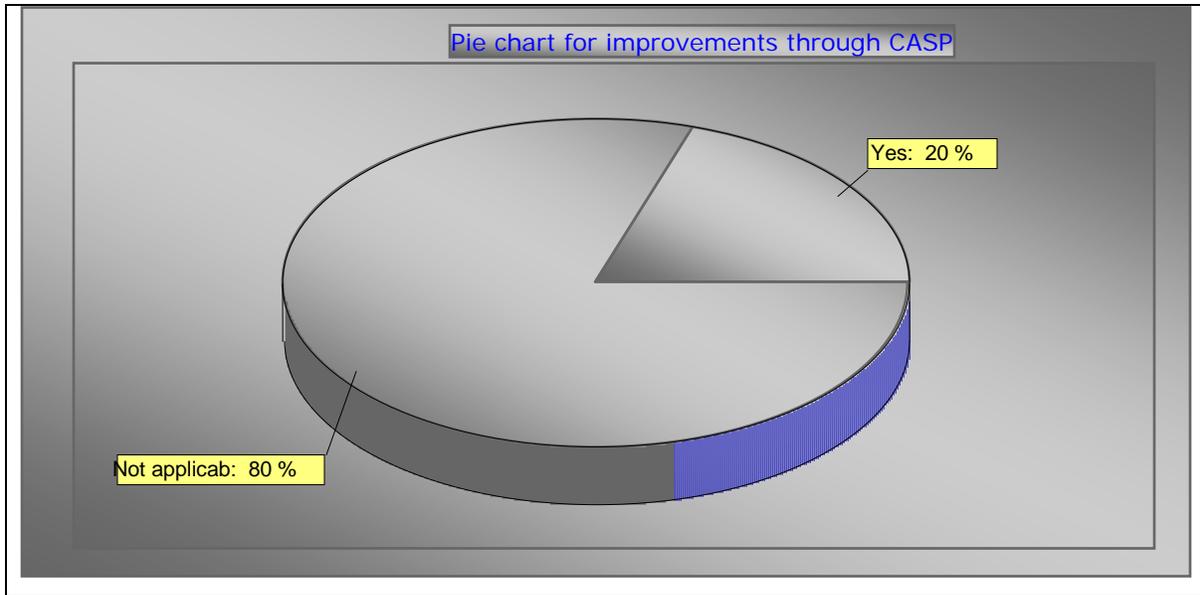
Figure 13 Assistance in terms of CASP



### 4.2.19.2 Did provision of CASP made any impact for the projects

With the assistance they received from CASP, about 20% of the respondents indicated that they have experienced some improvements and 80% (8) indicated not applicable because they indicated no from paragraph 4.2.19.1. Figure 14 indicates the findings of the study.

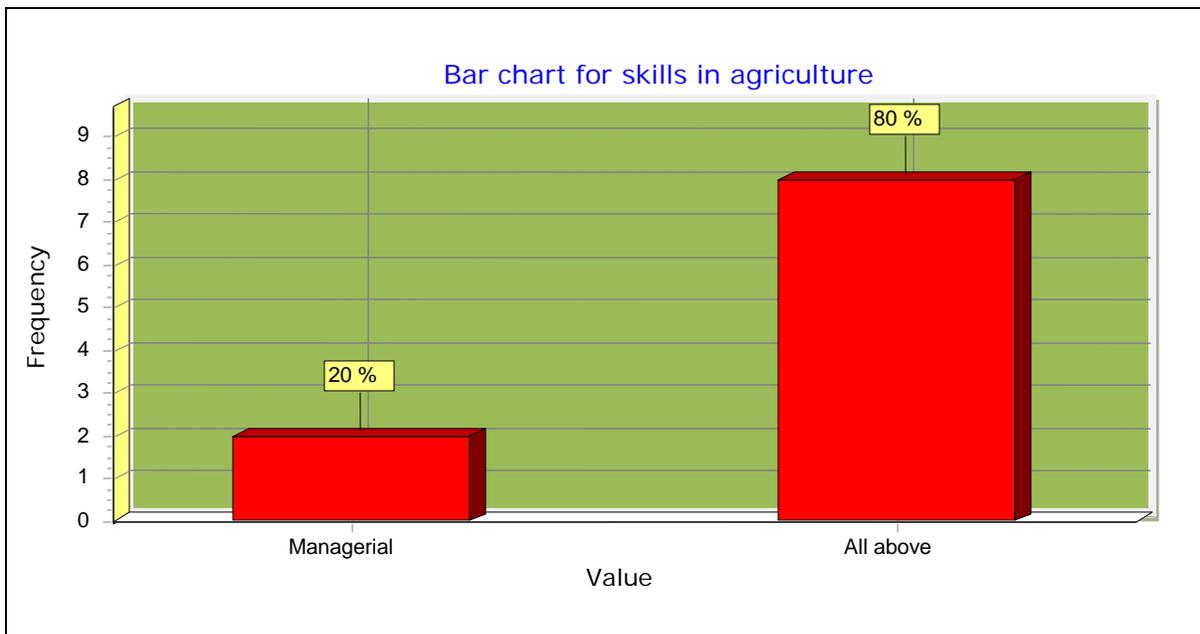
Figure 14 Improvements through CASP



**4.2.19.3.Types of skills they have acquired in terms of agricultural production**

20% (2) of the respondents indicated that they acquired managerial skills while those who indicated "All above" were 80% (8) of the respondents. This means that they acquired skills on production, marketing, financial and managerial skills.

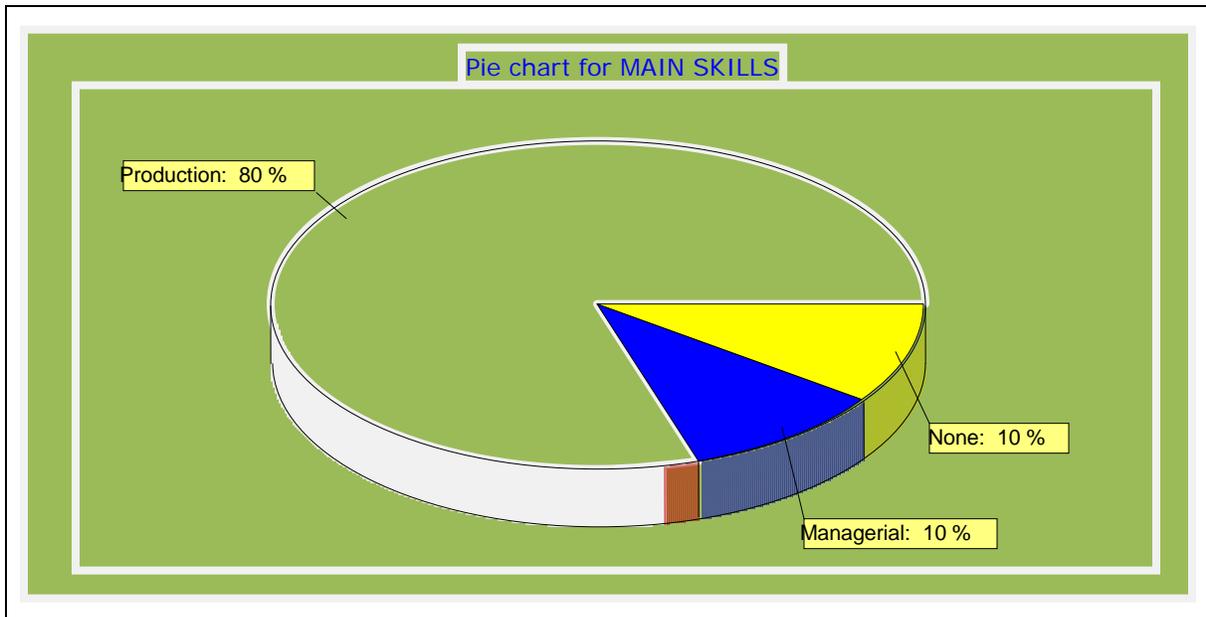
Figure 15 Types of skills they have acquired in terms of agricultural production



#### 4.2.19.4 Main skills

80% (8) of the respondents indicated that their main skills were production of different kinds of vegetables and different kinds of livestock commodities, 10% (1) indicated none while the other 10% (1) indicated managerial skill as their main skill description.

Figure 16 Main skills



#### 4.2.19.5 Number of years farming

20% (2) of the respondents indicated that they had 1-2 years of farming experience in the projects, while 50% (5) of the respondents had 3-4 years of farming experience. Those who had 5-6 years experience were 20% (2) of the respondents and 10% (1) had over 9 years of farming experience. Table 4 indicates the findings of the study.

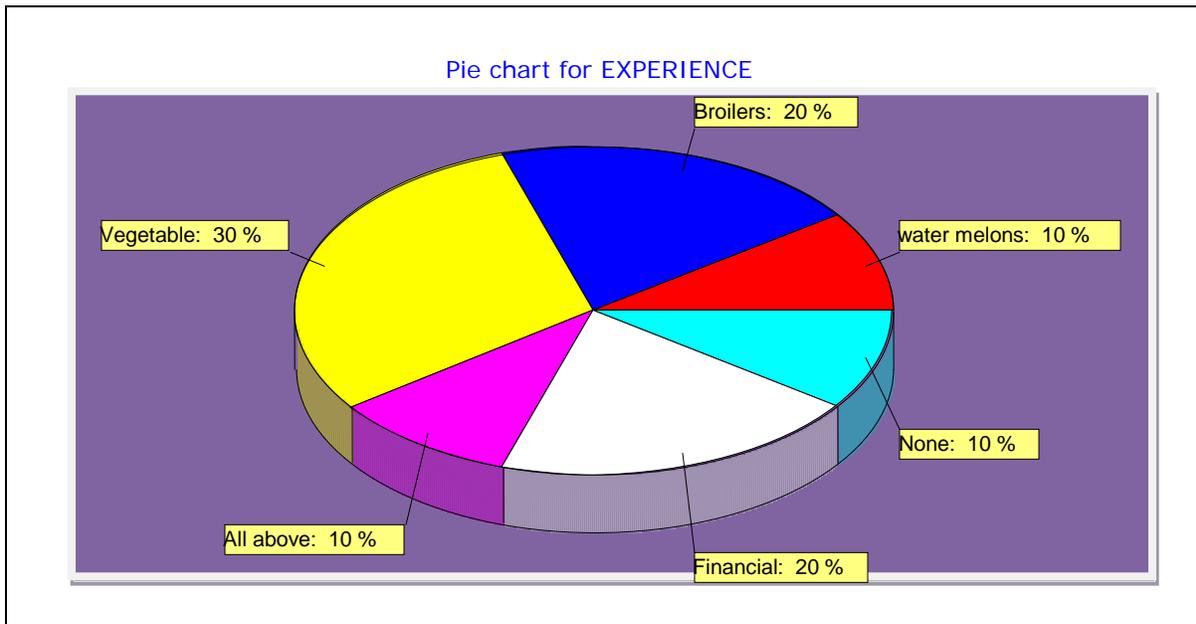
Table 4 Number of years farming

Value	N	%
1-2 Years	2	20
3-4 Years	5	50
5-6 Years	2	20
>9 Years	1	10
Total	10	100

#### 4.2.19.6 Description of the main experience of farming activities

Twenty percent (2) of the respondents indicated that they were involved in broiler production, 20% (2) in financial management, water melons, none and “All above” achieved 10% (1) each, vegetables were 30% (3) of the respondents (figure 17).

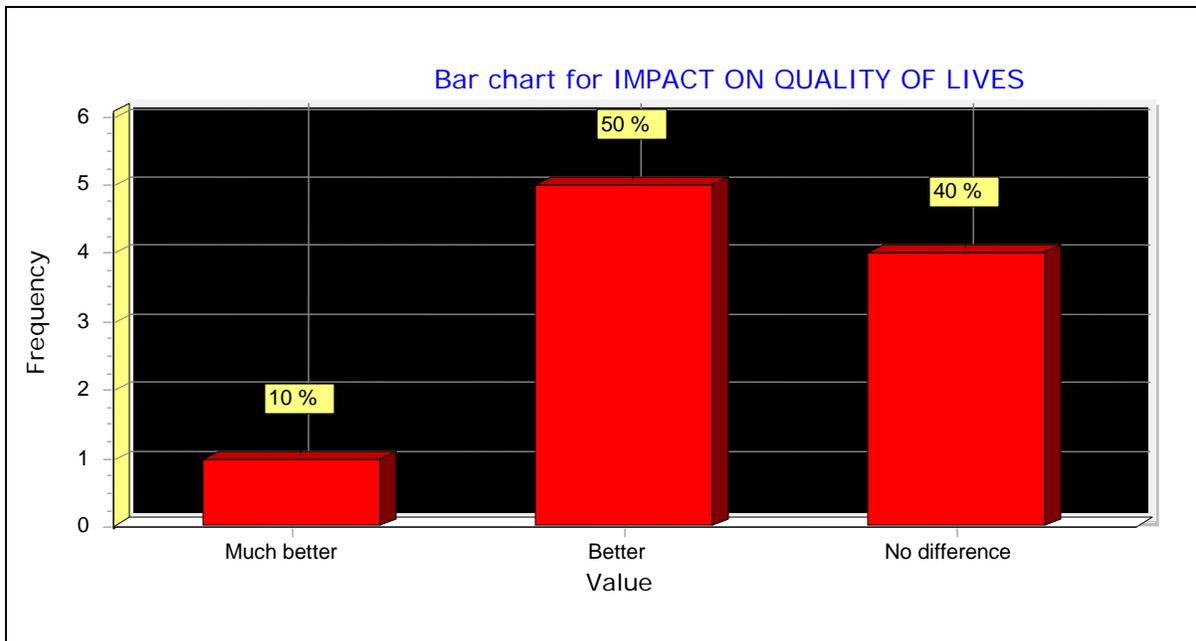
Figure 17 Description of the main experience of farming activities



#### 4.2.19.7 Impact of projects on quality of lives

The indication the study has established was that 10% (1) of the respondents indicated that their quality of lives has changed for much better as compared to 50% (5) of the respondents who indicated that their quality of lives has changed for better, while 40% (4) have not experienced any difference in the quality of their lives.

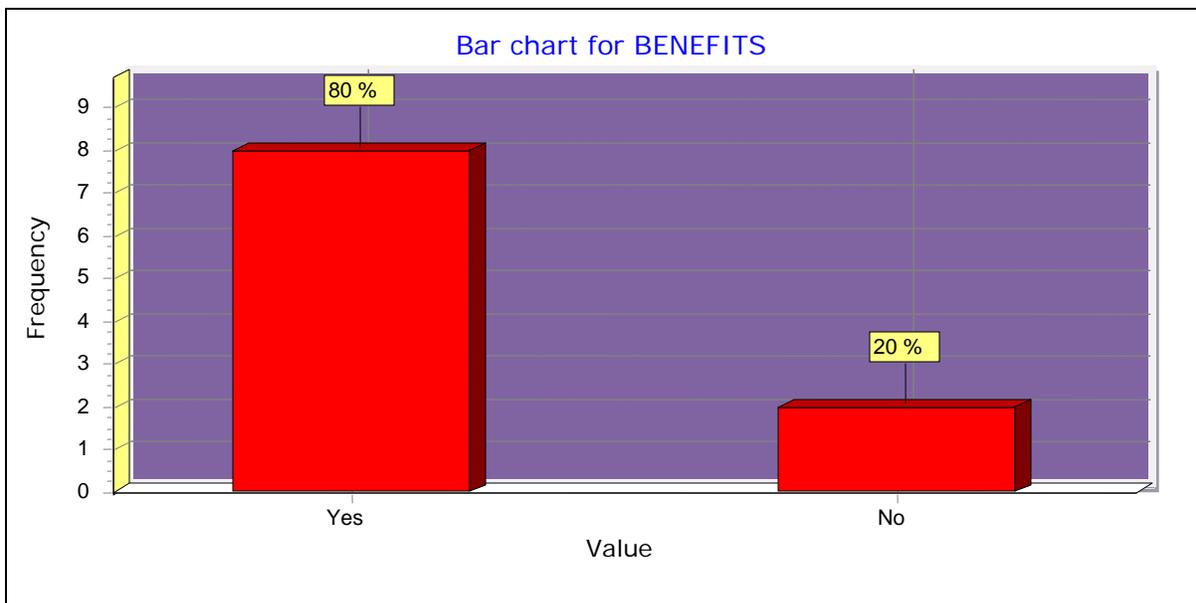
Figure 18 Impact of projects on quality of lives



#### 4.2.19.8 Benefits in terms of food security

80% of the respondents indicated they benefited in terms of food security while 20% indicated that they have not, this represents 8 and 2 respondents respectively (figure 19).

Figure 19 Benefits



#### 4.2.19.9 Total monthly income per household

60% (6) of the respondents indicated that their household income is below R5000, 30% (3) between R5001-R9000 and 10% (1) is between R10000-R19000.

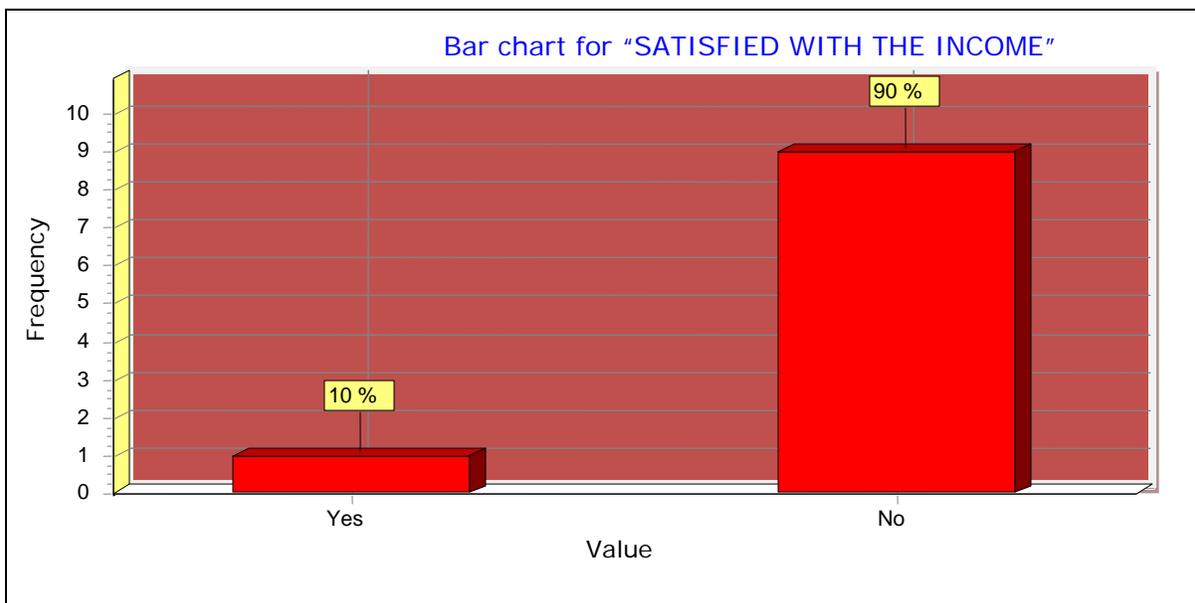
Table 5 Total monthly income per household

Value	N	%
< R5000-00	6	60
R5001-R9000	3	30
R10000-R19000	1	10
Total	10	100

#### 4.2.19.10 Satisfaction with regard to household income

Only 10% (1) of the respondents indicated that they were satisfied with the income and 90% (9) of the respondents indicated that they were not satisfied with the income they generate for the household.

Figure 20 Satisfaction with regard to household income



#### 4.2.19.11 Expectation in terms of the household income

20% (2) of the respondents indicated that they will be happy if they got between R10000-R190000 of household income per month, 40% (4) indicated income between R20000-R29000 and 40% (4) again indicated income between R30000-R39000 (table 6).

Table 6 Expectation in terms of the household income

Value	N	%
R10000-R19000	2	20
R20000-R29000	4	40
R30000-R39000	4	40
Total	10	100

## SECTION B: EXTENSION OFFICERS

### 4.3 Personal information of Extension officers

There were 5 male extension officials who participated from the study, they represented 62.50% of the study (table 7), while their female counterparts were 3 (37.50%) in the study.

#### 4.3.1 Gender

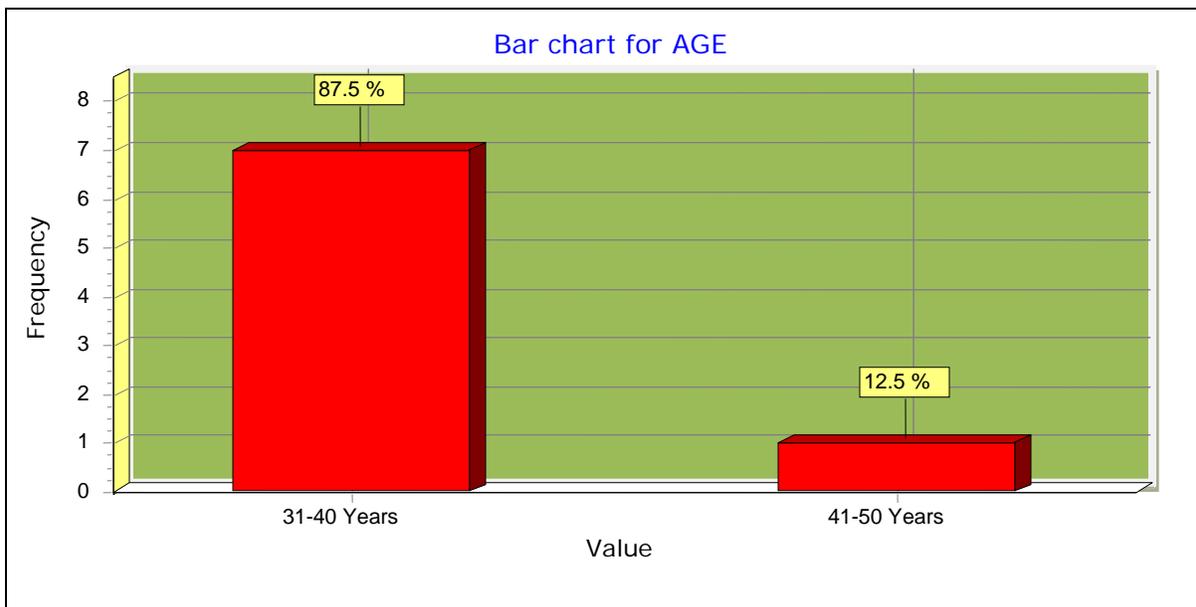
Table 7 Frequency table for gender of the extension officers

Value	N	%
Male	5	62.50
Female	3	37.50

#### 4.3.2 Age of the extension officers

The majority (87.50%) of the respondents was aged between 31-40 years old and the rest fell within the age category of 41-50 years old. This represented 7 and 1 cases respectively. Their mean age was at 37.25 years old.

Figure 21 age of the extension officers



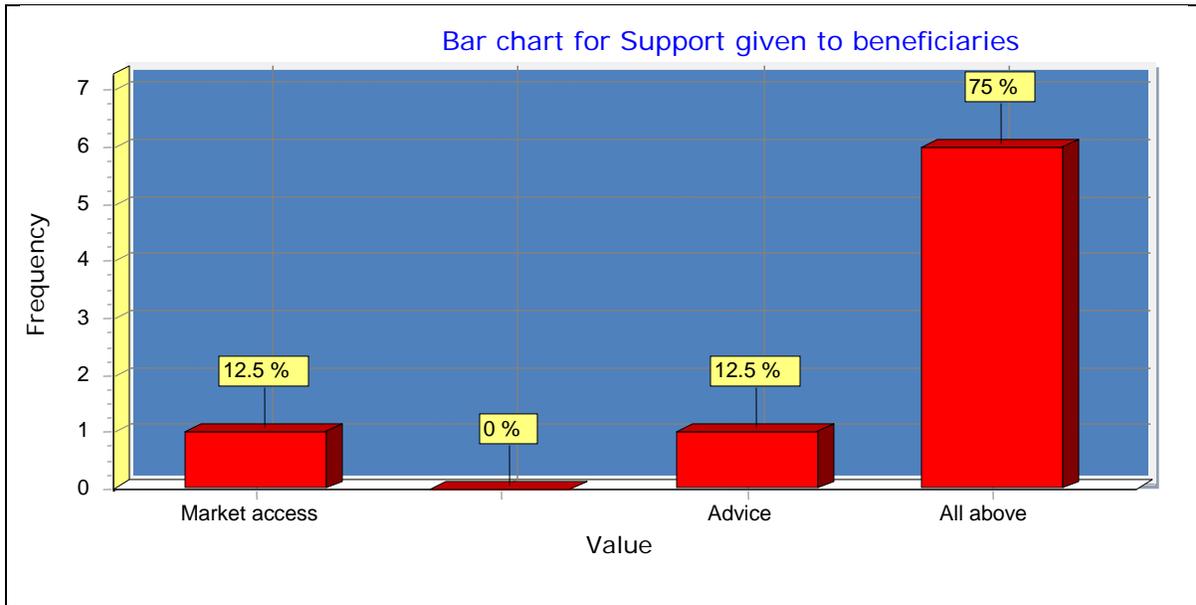
#### 4.3.3 Qualifications of the extension officers

100% (8) of the extension officers had university degrees. This informs the quality of service they are rendering on the agricultural technical field in the Modimolle municipality.

#### 4.3.4 Support given to beneficiaries

Marketing of produce and advice on technical issues scored 12.5% each, which represented 1 case each and the value "All above" scored 75% and represented 6 respondents (figure 22).

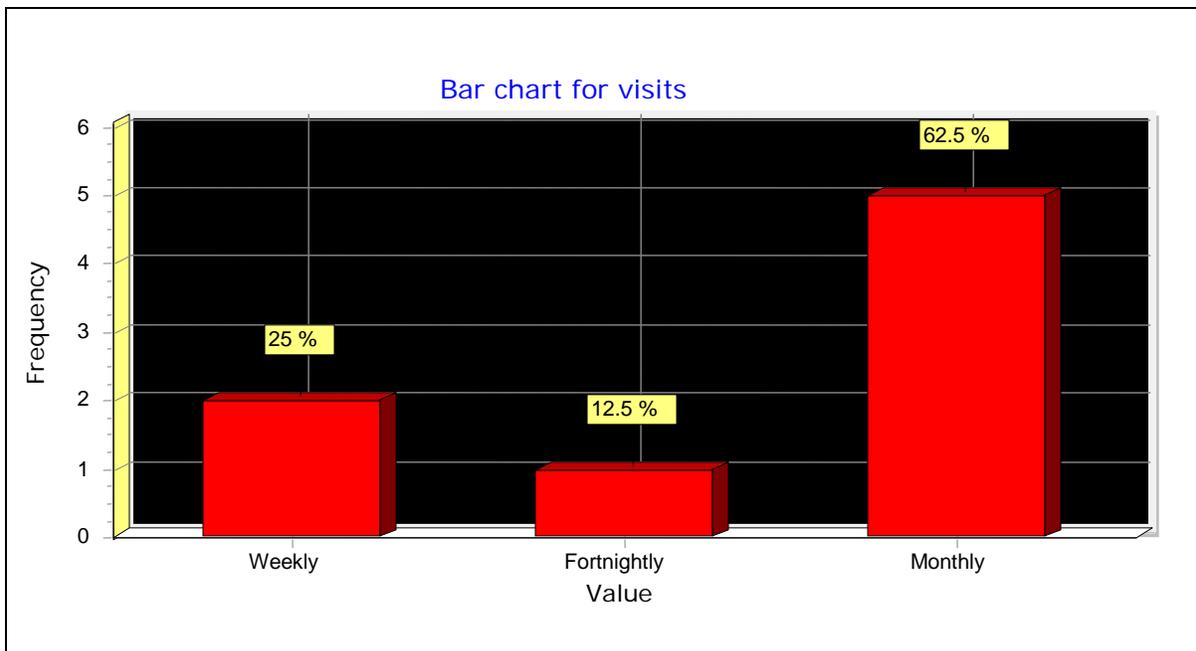
Figure 22 Support given to beneficiaries



#### 4.3.5 Visits by extension officers

Weekly visits achieved 25%, fortnightly achieved 12.5% and monthly visits achieved 62.5% and it represented 2, 1 and 5 cases respectively (figure 23).

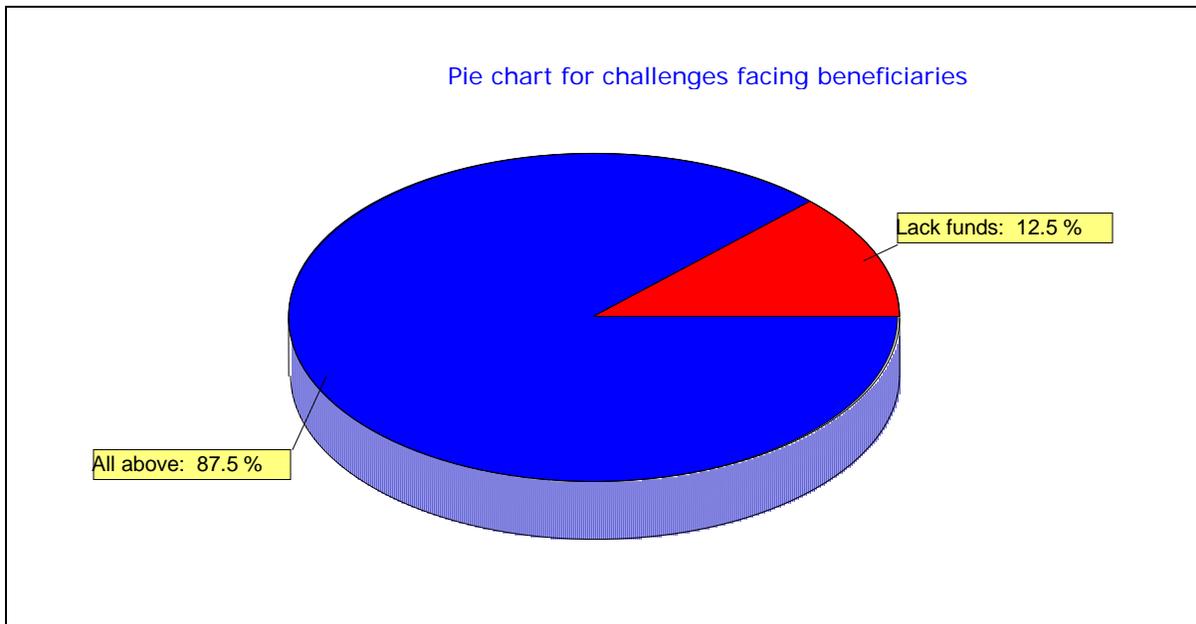
Figure 23 Visits



#### 4.3.6 Challenges of beneficiaries

Funding need achieved 12.5% of the respondents which represented 1 respondent and the value “All above” achieved 87.5% (7) cases from the study and it represented funding needs, implements, seeds, fertilizers, water, skills, infrastructure, markets, electricity and advices/mentoring (figure 24).

Figure 24 Challenges of beneficiaries



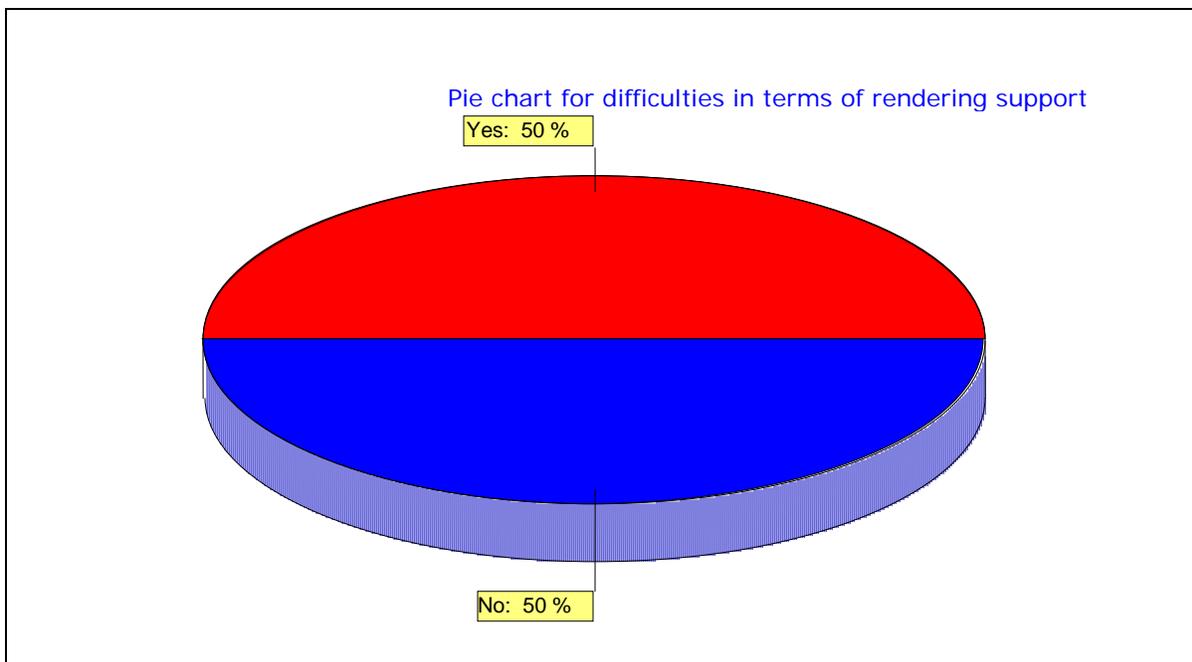
#### 4.3.7 Possible solutions

100% (8) of the respondents indicated that they needed funds, implements, inputs, infrastructure, marketing of agricultural produce, mentoring/training and strategic partners. All of the above variables scored 100% each by indicating the value “Yes” from the findings.

#### 4.3.8 Difficulties in terms of rendering extension support to beneficiaries

50% (4) indicated “Yes” to the fact that the challenges experienced by beneficiaries really make it difficult to render support which is required by beneficiaries on a day-to-day basis and, 50% (4) said “No” it doesn't.

Figure 25 Difficulties in terms of rendering extension support to beneficiaries



#### 4.3.9 Indication of the difficulties

The indication by 12.50% (1) of the respondents was the inclusion of incorrect stocking densities of livestock on the farms where the camps became seriously overgrazed and the animals got starved while 25% (2) of the respondents indicated infighting as the main cause of the difficulties, and 25% (2) of the other respondents indicated that lack of resources was a stumbling block towards the success of the projects. The value “None” achieved 37.50% (3) of the cases (table 6).

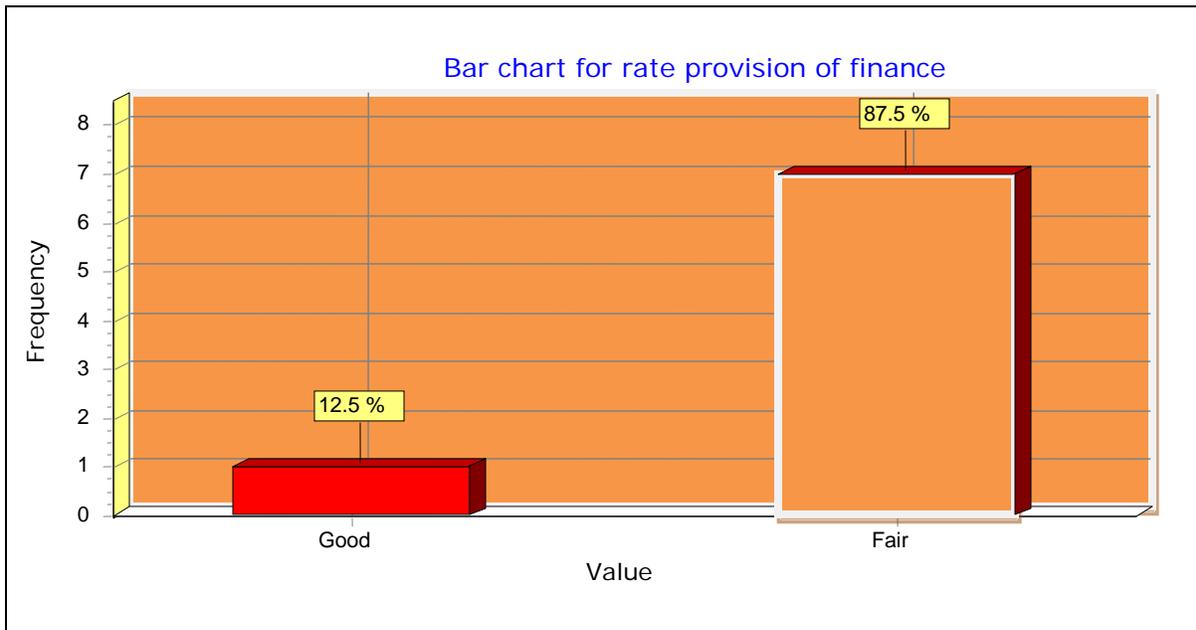
Table 6 Frequency table for indication of any difficulties

Value	N	%
Incorrect stocking densities	1	12.50
Infighting	2	25
Lack of resources	2	25
None	3	37.50
TOTAL	8	100

#### 4.3.10 Rating the provision of finance to land reform beneficiaries

12.50% indicated that the provision of finance to land reform projects was good and 87.50% indicated that it was fair. This represented 1 and 7 respondents respectively (figure 26).

Figure 26 Rating the provision of finance to land reform beneficiaries



#### 4.3.11 Institutions which normally assist with financing land reform projects

The Land Bank and co-operatives were indicated as institutions financing land reform projects, with 75% of the respondents indicating that projects obtained financial assistance, and 25% of the respondents denied that projects received any financial assistance. About 87.50% (7) of the respondents indicated that projects obtained assistance from NGO's and international donor organizations and 62.50% (5) indicated that projects received financial assistance from other agencies (table 7).

Table 7 Frequency table for institutions financially assisting land reform projects

Institution	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
Land Bank	6	75	2	25
Commercial Bank	3	37.50	5	62.50
Government dept.	5	62.50	3	37.50
NGO's	7	87.50	1	12.50
Agencies	5	62.50	3	37.50
Agric. Unions	1	12.50	7	87.50
Co-operatives	6	75	2	25
International donors	7	87.50	1	12.50

#### 4.3.12 The way CASP was supposed to be assisting beneficiaries

About 100% (8) of the respondents indicated that CASP was supposed to be assisting with market access, infrastructure development, implements and advice on technical expertise. 87.50% (7) indicated that CASP should also help beneficiaries with the provision of boreholes and skills training and, 75% (6) indicated production finance, production inputs (seeds and fertilizers) and livestock (table 8).

Table 8 The way CASP was supposed to be assisting beneficiaries

Variable	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
Production finance	6	75	2	25
Implements	8	100	-	-
Seeds	6	75	2	25
Fertilizers	6	75	2	25
Livestock	6	75	2	25
Provision of boreholes	7	87.50	1	12.50
Skills training	7	87.50	1	12.50
Market access	8	100	-	-
Infrastructure development	8	100	-	-
Advice	8	100	-	-

#### 4.3.13 Rating in terms of assistance from CASP

One hundred percent of the respondents indicated that the assistance rate they got through CASP was between 1-20%. This means that they are not satisfied with the way CASP is helping the projects.

#### 4.3.14 Number of Land reform projects

The value “2” achieved 4 cases in terms of the number of projects of land reform, which represented 50% of the number of cases from the study, while “5” achieved 2 cases in terms of the number of projects and it is represented by 25% from the study, and those who had above 6 land reform projects was indicated by 1 (12.50%) respondent. The value “None” also achieved 1 case from the study and represented by 12.50%. The table below indicates the findings of the study.

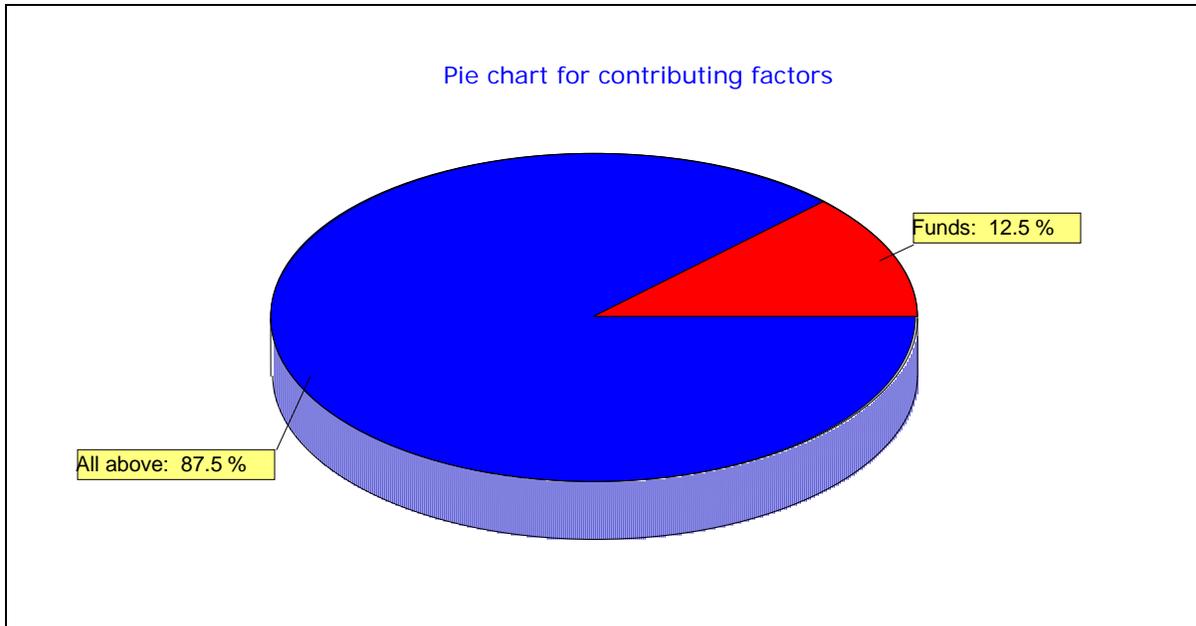
Table 9 Frequency table for the number of land reform projects

Value	N	%
2	4	50
5	2	25
>6	1	12.50
None	1	12.50

#### 4.3.15 Contributing factors for the lack of CASP support

12.50% (1) of the respondents indicated that the lack of funds to support the projects are one of the contributing factors towards the failure of the projects. The value “All above” reflected by 87.50% (7) of the respondents which includes amongst other things a lack of capacity by officials, lack of skills of the beneficiaries and lack of interest by beneficiaries.

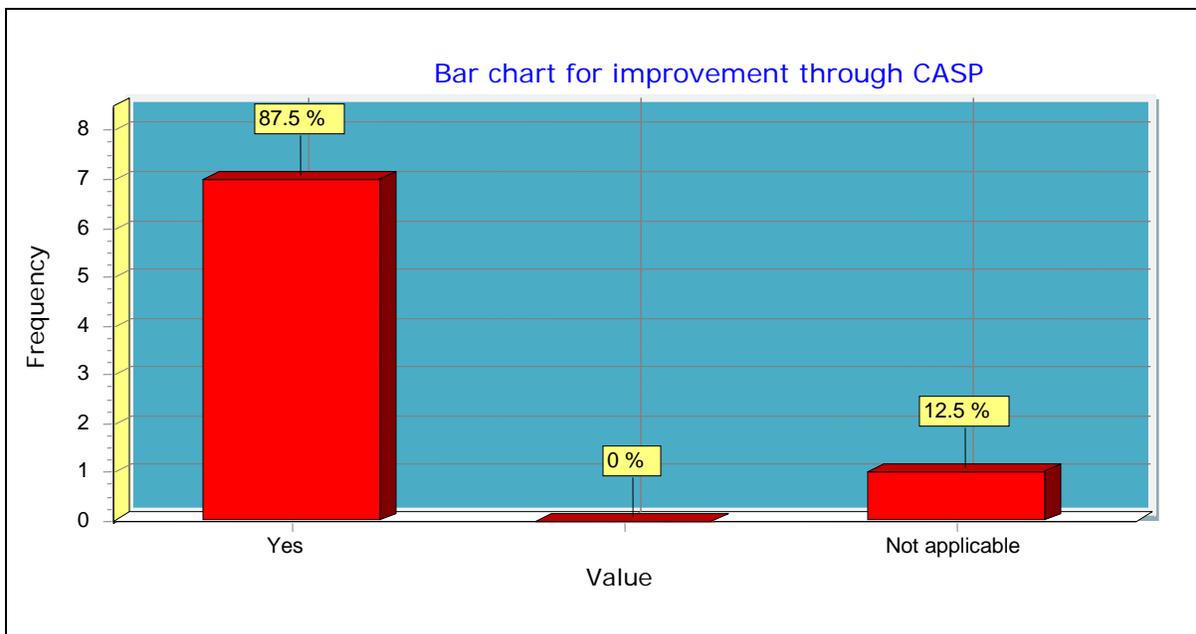
Figure 27 Contributing factors



#### 4.3.16 Improvements after the provision if CASP

The value “Yes” achieved 87.50% of the cases, which represents 7 cases from the study and, “Not applicable” achieved 12.50% of the cases representing 1 case from the study (figure 28).

Figure 28 Improvements after the provision if CASP



#### 4.3.17 Skills of beneficiaries

The majority of respondents (87.50%) indicated that beneficiaries had production skills and only 12.50% (1) indicated that they did not have production skills, and this represented 7 and 1 cases from the study. The following cases achieved 25% (2) for the value “Yes” and 75% (6) for the value “No”: financial skills, managerial skills and none (table 10).

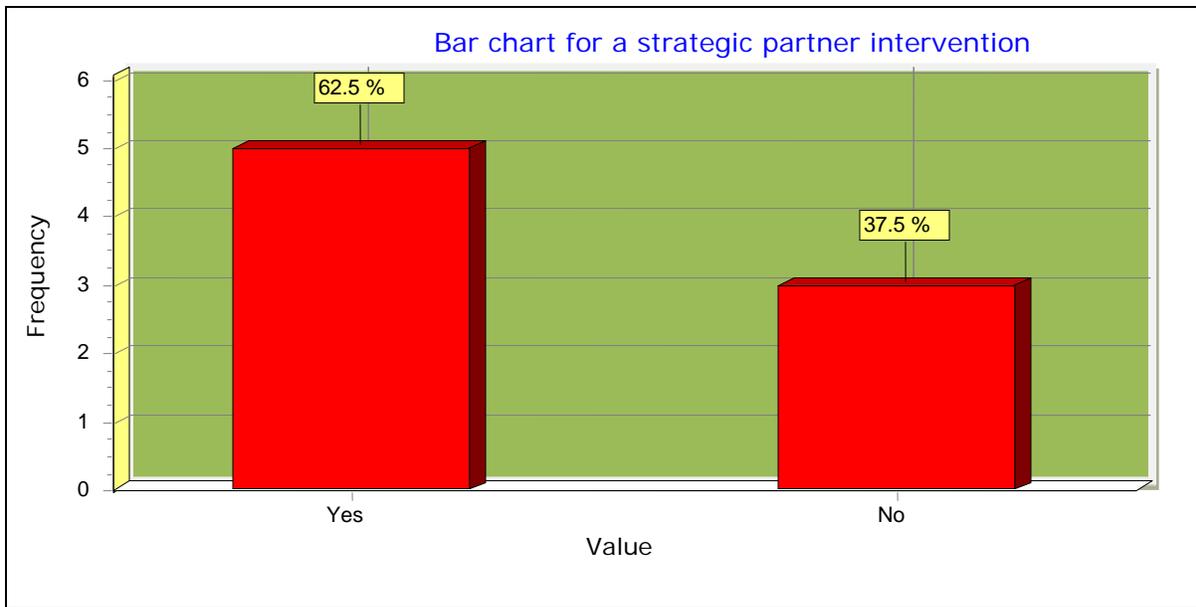
Table 10 skills for beneficiaries

Variable	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
Production skills	7	87.50	1	12.50
Marketing skills	3	37.50	5	62.50
Financial skills	2	25	6	75
Managerial skills	2	25	6	75
Other	-	-	8	100
None	2	25	6	75

#### 4.3.18 Skills improvement for the beneficiaries

100% of the respondents indicated that there was an improvement of skills through the introduction of training, mentoring, and advice from extension officials and workshops. Only 62.50% (5) of the respondents indicated that a strategic partner would be appropriate to assist when there are skills gaps and 37.50% (3) indicated that a strategic partner will not do any good at all. Figure 29 indicate the responses in terms of the need for strategic partner intervention.

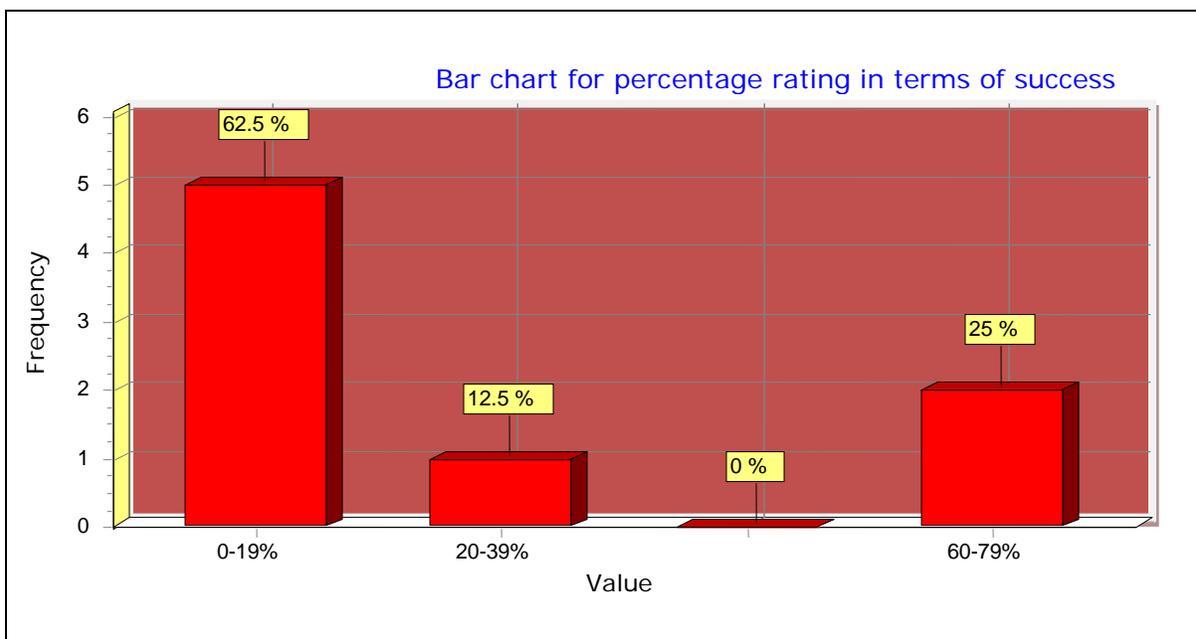
Figure 29 Need for strategic partner intervention



#### 4.3.19 Rating the projects in terms of their success

62.50% (5) of the respondents indicated that they were between 0-19% in terms of rating the success of the projects, 12.50% (1) respondent indicated that projects were at 20-39% and 25% (2) of the respondents indicated that projects were at 60.79% in terms of their success rating (figure 30).

Figure 30 Rating the projects in terms of their success



#### **4.4. Summary of the findings**

##### **4.4.1 Section A: Responses from beneficiaries**

The study registered a balanced ratio (50% males and 50% females) in terms of gender participation in land reform projects in the Modimolle municipality, representing 5 respondents each.

The study also captured poor participation by the youth section of the community where only 3 of them out of 10 participated. Only 1 elderly (>61 years) participated from the projects and the majority of the respondents were aged between 36-60 years. From a cross-tabulation of gender by age, the study revealed that the majority of the respondents (3 males and 3 females) fell within the age category of 36-60 years while 2 males were aged 18-35 years.

The study also revealed that the majority of the respondents managed to attend school up to primary level. The study captured the poor participation by the graduate section of the community due to lack of resources for the projects and a low income generation by projects.

The study captured that those respondents who went up till the primary level were middle aged beneficiaries while the one graduate was aged between 18-35 years. The study managed to reveal the statistical correlation between the variable where they were found to be not statistically significantly correlated. Here the r-value indicates the strength of the correlation. If the r-value is -1, it is a perfect negative correlation and an r-value of 1 indicates a perfect positive correlation, while an r-value of zero indicates that there is no correlation.

The majority of respondents indicated that they had 3-4 years experience in farming which is a manifestation of the commitment of the beneficiaries even with no income or a low income generated by the projects. The beneficiaries were engaged in cash crops and livestock farming.

In terms of successfulness and unsuccessfulness of the land reform projects, both variables registered 50% each in terms of project implementation. The reasons

behind the unsuccessfulness of the projects include the lack of financial assistance, production inputs, implements, mentoring/training and advice on technical expertise. The study also captured some stumbling blocks with regard to project implementation i.e. lack of skills, lack of infrastructure and lack of markets for their produce.

The respondents also reflected on the challenges which they thought could be resolved with ease which includes: shortage of funds, lack of skills and access to markets which need the Department of Agriculture to take a lead with assistance.

The project beneficiaries also require the Department of Agriculture to support them with skills training, technical advice on production and farm management. For the projects to be successful and fully functional CASP (Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme) need to be provided to projects as 80% of the respondents indicated that it (CASP) has not been made available to them. Those who benefited (20%) from CASP indicated that they see some improvements in terms of project implementation and production.

In terms of project management the respondents indicated that they managed to acquire management skills, production skills (crops and livestock) and technical skills. In terms of the main skills the indication is that they acquired management and production skills. The respondents also indicated the agricultural enterprises they were involved in, i.e. vegetables, broilers and water melons.

Only one respondent indicated that the quality of live was much better than before while 50% indicated that their quality of lives was better than before they were involved in agricultural projects. About 40% of the respondents indicated that their quality of lives has not improved at all. They did however indicate that they benefited in terms of food security.

The respondents also reflected on the income they earn per month. They indicated that their monthly income was below R5000-00. About 40% of the respondents indicated that they would be satisfied with an income of between R20000-00 -

R290000-00 while the other 40% would be satisfied with an income of between R30000-R39000 per month.

#### **4.4.2 Section B: Responses from extension officers**

62.50% (5) of the extension officials were males and 37.50% (3) were females. About 87.50% of the extension officials were middle aged (31-40 years) and have university degrees in terms of their qualifications.

In terms of the support given to beneficiaries they indicated that they provided technical expertise and help to access the markets. The officials visit the beneficiaries on weekly, fortnightly and monthly basis. They also reflected on the lack of funds as one of the stumbling blocks towards the success of the projects. They beneficiaries reflected on the possible solutions to the stumbling blocks which are to unlock the access to a financial route e.g. CASP, provision of infrastructure to the projects, ease access to the markets and an introduction of a strategic partner.

The challenges experienced by beneficiaries make it difficult for the extension officials to provide the required support. The officials reflected that incorrect stocking densities on livestock, infighting and lack of resources make it difficult for the extension officials to render the required support.

CASP was introduced to assist the beneficiaries in providing production inputs and financial assistance. The rating in terms of CASP assistance reflected less than 20%.

Beneficiaries indicated that they acquired production skills from extension officials. These skills include production skills, marketing skills and financial management. The rating in terms of success was less than 20%.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations of the researcher based on the evidence from respondents. The study looked at ten Land Reform projects in the Modimolle Municipality, Waterberg District, Limpopo Province and also interrogated the Limpopo Department of Agriculture Extension Officers who are responsible for providing technical assistance to the projects.

Access to land is an important step in redressing the injustices of apartheid in South Africa. However, if land is to contribute to improving people's lives, especially those of the very poor, complimentary support services are a critical intervention. Such services are widely expected to come from the State because the majority of land reform beneficiaries are poor people who are poorly educated, as demonstrated by this study.

Agricultural production has over the years shifted from primitive approaches to more sophisticated approaches with science and technology as factors determining the successes in the sector. In general, land reform beneficiaries are not well educated and are battling to come to terms with new technologies in agricultural production. Mechanization plays a major role in the quality and quantity of commercial agricultural produce which is generally lacking amongst the land reform projects studied.

#### **5.2 Entrepreneurial Abilities**

Entrepreneurial abilities are a key factor that determines the sustainability of any business venture. The main emphasis is the importance of skills, knowledge and experience within the land reform beneficiaries. In the projects studied in this dissertation, some of the beneficiaries have demonstrated positive elements of entrepreneurial capabilities. These entrepreneurial capabilities are unfortunately

lacking in most of the projects, which will make it difficult for them to compete in a highly competitive field. Government, the agricultural sector and other stakeholders must put more focus on knowledge and skills transfer to strengthen the farmers if they are to compete successfully in the commercial agricultural farming sector. Development or improvement of their technical and business skills could put them at the same level of competition with other commercial farmers in their localities. Tailor-made training programmes could be developed for specific types of land reform beneficiaries. The result of such programmes is that the farm will become more productive and beneficiaries in turn will be able to stand on their own. By furthering their education and skills development, they will be able to become more self-sustained, self-reliant, competent and successful in their own private subsistence farming operations, regardless of what the future holds.

### **5.3 Marketing**

In the cases studied, marketing seems to be a challenge that most of the land reform beneficiaries are struggling with. Without proper skills and required infrastructure to maintain market requirements, productivity will remain an impossible dream to sustain. Marketing integrates all the functions of a business and speaks directly to the needs of the customer.

### **5.4 Institutional support**

Institutional support refers to the roles and responsibilities of stakeholders across all the key stages outlined above. Adequate support to the land reform beneficiaries requires an integrated approach from the stakeholders simply because of diverse competencies enshrined in those institutions as well as their different mandates. In all the land reform projects studied, the Limpopo Department of Agriculture (LDA) remains the only stakeholder actively involved in supporting the beneficiaries. The risk of this arrangement is that the LDA does not have adequate resources to provide comprehensive support as it may be expected for sustainability of these farming businesses. The study shows that the support from LDA to the land reform projects in the Modimolle Municipality is inadequate. To be successful, projects require the support of various Government departments, with a key role for the local municipality as well as the agricultural

sector. In most cases municipalities are brought into the process at the end of the planning cycle and are only then asked to provide a budget to support the project. Hence, none of these projects appear in the IDP or LED plans of the local municipalities. This is not an issue peculiar to land reform projects. A survey by Hall (2003) indicates that in 2002/3 none of the land restitution projects settled across the country featured in the IDP of their respective municipalities. There is also a need for stakeholder mobilization beyond government departments to support land reform projects as well as to monitor and evaluate their progress.

### **5.5 Access to production capital**

The evidence obtained from correspondents during this study corresponds with Kinsey and Binswanger (1993) who have argued that smallholder agricultural growth cannot be achieved without access to farmer support services such as grant funding as well as credit and finance. International experiences have shown that with adequate support services, smallholder farmers can significantly increase agricultural productivity and production. For example, in Zimbabwe, smallholder farmers doubled maize and cotton production when extension and marketing services were provided. Similar results were seen in South-East Asia when access to farmer support services was provided. Simply providing applicants with land in the absence of support services is unlikely to make a significant difference to their livelihoods as can be seen by this study.

### **5.6 Limitations of the study**

The findings of the study were limited to the Modimolle Municipality area and can therefore not be generalized. Although 10 cases have been studied, which is 50% of the population, the sample is in terms of numbers small. This was done to have an in depth focus on the selected projects. The projects are situated in different parts of the Modimolle Municipality with different topographical and climatic conditions which make generalization difficult. The management of these projects was therefore emphasized. In some of the cases, the researcher got the impression that respondents were not very open or entirely honest with their responses. Some were reluctant to divulge their exact financial situation.

## **5.7 Conclusion**

This chapter has highlighted some key issues for South Africa's land reform programme. It has argued that post settlement support is critical to improving the livelihoods of the land reform beneficiaries, and that failure to provide it undermines the developmental potential of land reform. This dissertation therefore argues that access to land should be complemented with the building of sound institutions at the local level with capacity to enable land reform beneficiaries to use their land and other resources efficiently and effectively, as well as the provision of support services such as extension advice, access to credit and access to affordable inputs. The study has shown that despite the absence of adequate post settlement support in the form of grants, extension services, sufficient production skills and business acumen, land reform beneficiaries will embark on those land use initiatives with which they are most familiar. Therefore interventions from the state and other stakeholders – when they decide to become involved – should not eradicate those initiatives but rather find ways to enhance them and increase productivity.

While overall targets and total amounts of land delivered is important, improved quality, stronger local institutions and more appropriate development plans are even more important. The challenge is meeting the wider expectations of land reform. To conclude my dissertation, I emphasise the point that if land reform is to meet its wider objectives, new ways will have to be found to transfer land on a substantial scale and to provide necessary support services to a much wider class of land owners.

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