SUSTAINABILITY OF LAND RESTITUTION PROJECT WITH REFERENCE TO SHIGALO LAND RESTITUTION PROJECT IN MAKHADO 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 Masters in Development and Management Sciences has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university; that it is my work in design and in execution, and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

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ABSTRACT

This study was conducted in Limpopo province in Makhado municipality, Vhembe district. It concentrated on Levubu farms. There are seven Communal Property Associations (CPAs) which occupy about 258.7889 hectares of land; there are Ravele, Masakona, Tshakhuma, Shigalo, Tshivhazwaulu, Tshitwani, Ratombo but this study will concentrate only on Shigalo CPA. Two hundred and seventy respondents in Shigalo land restitution project in Makhado municipality were interviewed on sustainability of the restitution projects. It is argued that for a sustainability of restitution project, a number of requirements must be met. These include a clear and coherent vision, full participation and ownership by the beneficiaries of the project; political support at the highest level; appropriate mechanisms for implementation; sufficient funding; mutually- supportive linkages with other relevant areas of policy, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and the intended beneficiaries as well as taking care of the environment for the future generation. The case study was conducted to investigate the sustainability of restitution project in Shigalo restitution community. The results obtained in this study show that Shigalo beneficiaries have ownership and full participation in the land restitution farms. It also pointed out that Shigalo beneficiaries were capacitated to increase the level of farm production and farm management skills, and they were assisted by strategic partnership. With reference to environmental conditions, the results show that the sustainability of agricultural project is also controlled by good agricultural practices that are environmental friendly. There were environmental constrains that affected farming in Shigalo projects such as drought, veld fire and frost. Shigalo restitution farms get advice on environmental problems from the Department of Agriculture. Industrial, financial and technical support will play a vital role in sustaining restitution projects.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

RSA   Republic of South Africa

ANC   African National Congress

RDP   Reconstruction and Development Programme

CPA   Communal Property Association

CRLR   Commission on Restitution of Land Rights

LCC   Land Claims Court

CBNRM   Community-based natural resource management

RM   Resource management

UNDP   United Nations Development Programme

Chapter 1

Background of Restitution projects in South Africa

1.1. Introduction

In 1652, savage wars of dispossession were fought against indigenous people of South Africa, aimed at seizing land for the exclusive use of white settlers. Colonial authorities explicitly sought to separate Africans from ownership of independent means of production so as to ensure their availability as a cheap and docile labour force to serve the agricultural economy (RSA, 2005).

Segregation was one of the results of the wars caused, amongst others such as, evictions and forced removal of the indigenous people (De Villiers, 1999). From the beginning of colonization and subsequently through the apartheid regime, black people in South Africa have been systematically deprived of their land. Vermeulen (2009) states that during the colonization era and also the apartheid years, separate societies were created for the various ethnic and cultural groups within demarcated territories. The indigenous black people were forcefully removed from the land or property they rightfully resided on, to confined areas where they had considerably less access to resources of land and infrastructure. On the other side of the spectrum there were white settler communities who had privileged access to the vast majority of land, resources and developed infrastructure.

Although dispossession of black people initially took place through conquest and nefarious methods, illegal acquisition of the land became a major policy of the state supported by an array of laws from the early days of colonization (Rugege, 2004).

There were two major land acts passed early in the twentieth century, which changed the face of South African society and affected the geographical pattern of the country. These were the 1913 Land Act no. 27 and the 1936 Trust and Act no. 18. These Acts effectively reserved 87 % of the land for whites and 75 % of the total population, blacks, were limited to 13 % of land (Fourie, 2000; RSA, 2005; Walker, 2002). Many communities fell victim to the Group Areas Act of 1950, and this pushed blacks out of the city centers into outskirt townships (Hering, 2004). Most of the rural people were moved out of what was deemed white areas into rudimentary resettlement camps within the increasingly impoverished and densely settled reserves (Walker, 2002).

In 1994, South Africa began the long and difficult process of rebuilding the post-apartheid society. The African National Congress (ANC) took office in 1994 with a clear redistributive and liberationist manifesto. From 1994, land reform in the interests of the landless featured prominently as one of 'the basic needs of the people' that had to be met, if society was to be transformed; thus, the promise made by the ANC democratic government to restore the lands to its native people (Basu, 2009; Walker, 2002). Because of our history, the majority of South Africans tend to think of the property dispossession in terms of black/white racial discrimination, that it is only whites who deprived non-whites of their property rights, and that restitution is to some extent a racial re-balancing exercise (Belling, (2008). That may be true to a greater extent.

Hering (2007) states that with the first democratic government gaining power in 1994, expectations that land issues would improve were high. This is supported by Shaunnagh (1999) who realized that the most pressing issue for the ANC government was land. In a country facing considerable problems stemming from poverty and unemployment, state-driven land reform was seen as a crucial part of the programme for reconstruction and development in South Africa.

This was further reinforced by the government's ambitions and commitment in the 1994 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) plans to redistribute 30 percent of agricultural land within five years of the introduction of land reform, although the period was later extended to fifteen years (RSA, 1994).

The primary purpose of land reform in South Africa is to redistribute agricultural and other land in order to address the racially distorted pattern of land holding and promote development. This involves three key elements: the redistribution of agricultural land to new farmers, the restoration of land, or cash compensation to claimants who were dispossessed after 1913, and securing of tenure rights for residents of commercial farms and communal areas (Hall & Lahiff, 2004). Restitution provides for the restoring of land rights to a person who was or communities who were disposed of rights to land after 19 June 1913 from racially-based laws or practices (Lahiff, 2001). Restitution is part of redressing the injustice of the past and at the same time it is considered to be a process of change in rural societies. It seeks to integrate economic and social objectives in seeking to create better and diverse livelihoods for poor people (RSA, 1998).

It is argued that for sustainability of restitution project to be possible, a number of requirements must be met. These include a clear and coherent vision, full participation and ownership by the beneficiaries of the project; political support at the highest level; appropriate mechanisms for implementation; sufficient funding; mutually- supportive linkages with other relevant areas of policy, non-governmental organisations and the intended beneficiaries as well as taking care of the environment for the future generation (Lahiff, 2001).

1.2. Problem statement

Initially the white farm owners were reluctant to sell their profitable farms for the land restitution process. But eventually the government has managed to acquire those farms as part of a general land reform programme. Successful land restitution in Levubu may have an enormous impact on the whole country as Levubu represents a major test for the South African land reform programme and may offer important lessons for rural development policies based on transfer of highly developed agricultural enterprises to the community members. So it is imperative for the government to take effective measures for the successful completion of the Levubu project (Basu, 2009).

Lahiff (2001) indicates that although progress has been made in land restitution claims for the Levubu farms, the process is full of complex issues that hamper progress. The manifestation of internal factionalism between the Community Property Association (CPA) and the traditional leadership within the community seems to compromise the pace of development, progress, and the sustainability of the projects. However, the perceived lack of support from the state and Non Governmental Organizations (NGOS)

for land restitution beneficiaries is making these projects non-profitable resulting in hardship for the new landowners. It is perceived that land restitution projects will not be sustained if there is no full participation, ownership, governmental and non-governmental support services rendered and the ignoring of the environment for the future generation.

The 2007/08 Annual report shows that R14.6 million has been spent by the government in order to give the Levubu farms back to the black people. The Levubu community claim covers 401 households and about 1820 individuals who will benefit from the 258.7889 hectares of land. This land being given back consists of farms that are economically viable. It is a shame that when land-restituted projects are not sustainable, beneficiaries are not better off and the land, along with the infrastructure has been degraded severely is seen with similar projects.

The major problem, if these projects are not sustained is that due to the large scale of the agricultural enterprises the failure of these projects affects the country from a broader perspective. One reason is that products of these farms are regularly exported to the European market thus these enterprises have substantial contribution to the nation's export economy and employment endeavours as lots of people are employed on those farms for the day to day operations. A valid reason for the government's substantial assistance is that the black communities neither possess skills nor the capital to successfully take over the farms. As a result, malfunctioning of the farms could adversely affect the economy as well as the employment situation in Levubu (Basu, 2009).

1.3. Aim and objectives of the study

The aim of the study is to investigate the sustainability of restitution project in Shigalo restituted community.

This research attempts to explore the sustainability of land restitution projects within the South African land reform programme. The study has the following specific objectives:

1. To assess the extent of ownership and participation of Shigalo land restitution beneficiaries.
2. To investigate the level of capacity amongst Shigalo land restitution beneficiaries.
3. To investigate the impact on the environment in Shigalo land restituted project.
4. To identify major stakeholders and their role in supporting the services to Shigalo land restituted project.
5. To come up with recommendations for Shigalo land restituted project.

1.4. Research Questions

To investigate the sustainability of Shigalo land restitution project, the following guiding questions will be asked:

1. What is the level of ownership and participation of Shigalo beneficiaries?
2. What is the level of capacity building amongst Shigalo beneficiaries?
3. What is the impact on the environment in the Shigalo project?
4. What is the level of support services to Shigalo project?

5. What are the challenges and possible solutions in connection with the Shigalo project?

1.5. Significance of the study

This study is of importance in the land restitution domain as it seeks to address the issue of sustainability of these projects. This issue is both topical and immediately relevant to South Africa's economic and social development. Sustainability of the land restitution projects depends on many factors including matters of ownership, participation by the beneficiaries, capacitating the beneficiaries and caring for the environment (land).

Even though many of the claims have been successful and land has been given back to the black people, if these projects are not sustainable, it means that the objectives of land restitution will not be met and thus the injustices of the past will not be undone and poverty will not be eradicated.

1.6. Definition of concepts

- **<u>Land restitution</u>** is the process of restoring land and providing other remedies to people dispossessed by racially-discriminatory legislation and practices. Restitution of Land Rights Act, Act No 22 of 1994 is to provide for the restitution of land rights in respect of persons or communities who were dispossessed under or for the purpose of furthering the objects of any racially-based discriminatory law (RSA, 1994, 1998).

- **Community Property Association (CPA)** is a legal body through which members of disadvantaged and poor committees may collectively acquire, hold and manage property in terms of a written constitution. It provides a relatively simple and accessible mechanism through which such group ownership systems may be recognised (RSA, 1997).

- **Community participation** implies the readiness of the community to accept responsibilities and activities connected to land restitution (Khan and Haupt, 2006).

  "Wiktionaty" defines 'community participation' as the state of being related to a larger whole; the process during which individuals, groups and organizations are consulted about or have the opportunity to become actively involved in a project or activity.

- **Ownership** is defined by Wikipedia as the state or fact of exclusive rights and control over property, which may be an object, land/real estate or intellectual property. Ownership involves multiple rights, collectively referred to as 'title', which may be separated and held by different parties.

- **Environment** as defined by NEMA 107 of 1998 means the surroundings within which humans exist and that are made up of:
  (i)   the land, water and atmosphere of the earth;
  (ii)   micro-organisms, plant and animal life;
  (iii)   any part or combination of (i) and (ii) and the interrelationships among and between them; and

(iv)   the physical, chemical, aesthetic and cultural properties and conditions of the foregoing that influence human health and well-being.

- **<u>Capacity building</u>** means any facilitating scheme for the effective implementation of a project, in particular the strengthening and/or development of trained human resources and institutional capacities in terms of techniques and skills necessary to carry out the assessment and management of risks. It involves the transfer of know-how and the development of appropriate facilities (ec.europa.eu). It is also defined as the efforts aimed at developing human skills or societal infrastructures within a community or organization to reduce the level of risk (www.unisdr.org).

- **<u>Sustainability</u>** is defined as the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (www.sustainabilitydictionary.com).

1.7. Structure of the Research

Chapter one contains background information and an overview of the study. It includes an introduction to the research and motivation for the study. It also reflects on the problem, aim and objectives of the research design.

Chapter two comprises relevant literature on land reform, with particular emphasis on, restitution. Ownership and participation literature as well as case studies of similar Land reform models implemented elsewhere are also reviewed and analyzed. This is aimed at providing a theoretical platform and framework to the problem under investigation.

Chapter three provides a detailed research design and methodology for this research. It includes data collection and interpretation procedures.

Chapter four presents the research findings after data analysis and interpretation. This is where the research's finding are integrated with the literature review's findings.

Chapter five comprises of a summary, followed by conclusions and recommendations based on the study.

Chapter 2

Literature review

2.1. Introduction

It is well known that the political history of South Africa has given rise to inequalities in the ownership of land. South Africa was a site of prolonged struggle between native peoples, and European colonists throughout the eighteen and ninetieth centuries, which saw the defeat and subjugation of the African chieftaincies and the loss of the majority of the territory to white settlers in the twentieth century, under the policies of segregation and apartheid. The separation of people along racial lines was accompanied by massive forced removal of African, Indian and Coloured people resulting in widespread dispossession of land and other properties and the severe restriction of social, economic and political rights. This resulted one of the most unequal societies in the world with a relatively small white minority enjoying high standards of living while the great majority of the black population was consigned to a life of extreme exploitation and poverty (Leon, 2005).

With regard to the land market, government policy from the late 19th century onwards restricted black people from accessing land and the main aim of this strategy was to provide a supply of cheap labour especially for the expanding mining sector as well as the much despised and poorly remunerated white commercial farming sector. Rural black South Africans were prevented from making farming the main component of their livelihoods for over 100 years (Bradstock, 2005). This is supported by Vermeulen (2009) who states that black farm workers were exploited by minimal wages and some had to

make a living in over populated and poverty stricken areas without the state subsidies and protectionist policies that the white farmers enjoyed.

There were two major Land Acts passed early in the twentieth century, which changed the face of South African society. These were the Natives Land Act of 1913 Act no. 27 and the 1936 Trust and Land Act no. 18. The purpose of these Acts was to effectively reserve 87 percent of the national fertile land to whites, while on the other hand reserving only 13 percent of the total land to blacks even though they constituted about 75 percent of the total population of South Africa (Fourie, 2000).

Patterson (2003:2) was quoted as saying that the key event in the skewed distribution of land in South Africa was the passing of the Native Land Act of 1913. The majority black population is also of the opinion that the watershed of land ownership discrimination was the passage of the Native Land Act of 1913. In terms of this Act black people were forbidden from owning, purchasing or leasing land outside designated "native reserves" which at that time represented 8% of the country's land which in 1936 was increased to 13%. In addition, Bradstock (2005) states that the Native Lands Act, passed in 1913 only permitted black people to establish new farming enterprises in the Native Reserves. It also prohibited black people, not only from buying land from whites but also from entering into sharecropping arrangements.

Bradstock (2005) in his research about the role of land reforms in the alleviation of rural poverty cites May (1998:3) who defines 'poverty' as the inability of individuals, households or communities to afford a socially acceptable standard of living. Poor

South Africans themselves characterize the element of poverty to include alienation from the community, unemployment, food scarcity and fragmented families.

The South African government did a poverty appraisal in order to examine inequalities between those at the top and bottom of the social scale because such examination is essential for targeting, prioritizing, and planning poverty reduction measures, and for monitoring the impact of these measures over time (Hargreaves et al (2006). In a study done in 1993, Feinberg (1995) discovered that half of all black South Africans live in poverty. The government assumed that most of these blacks live in poverty because they were not allowed to own land in order to practice their agriculture, so as to provide for their livelihoods. To further the discussion, Bradstock (2005) states that the goal of achieving poverty reduction is made more complex by the lack of knowledge about the causes of poverty in South Africa, and by the lack of clarity of policy makers about what policy instruments will work.

Feining (1995) used an analysis of data collected in 1998 of the re-survey of 1993 households by Katon *et al.* (1999) that explored post-apartheid poverty dynamics to provide a comprehensive picture of the economic status of black families. Feining (1995) asks whether the end of apartheid has resulted in only one kind of freedom that has left the majority of black households stuck in a poverty trap from which they cannot escape or whether the new freedoms has enabled them to successfully accumulate resources and move out of poverty.

Bradstock (2005) argues that because South Africa has such a different socio-economic and institutional setting compared to other countries, it cannot be assumed that successful poverty reduction policies from elsewhere in the developing world will work in the South African context. With this realization the government came up with its own strategies that will help to undo the injustices of the past as well as help to eradicate poverty in the country. This is how the Land Reform project came about.

The primary purpose of land reform in South Africa is to redistribute agricultural and other land in order to address the racially skewed pattern of land holding and promote development (Hall & Lahiff, 2004).

This land reform must bring about badly needed enhancements of land rights regulations ; they must achieve justice and equity so that opportunities to acquire land rights and to use natural resources are fairly and clearly administered (Turner, 2001). Land restitution, land redistribution and tenure reform are still seen as tools to alleviate poverty (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2004). Deininger (1999) supported by Vermeulen (2009) explains these three pillars of land reform as follows:

- **Land tenure reform**: This component seeks to improve tenure security of all South Africans by recognizing individual as well as communal ownership rights to land, giving people the right to make decisions about their own tenure system, adjudicating disputes, reforming tenancy laws, and attempting to end discrimination against women in land allocation and holding. This is supported by Adam and Turner (2000) who state that land tenure is an arranged change in terms and conditions in, for an example, the adjustment of the terms, of

contracts between landowners and tenants or the conversion of more informal tenancy into formal property rights.

- **Redistribution:** aims to make it possible for the poor and disadvantaged people of South Africa to buy and access urban and rural land for residential and productive purposes in order to improve their livelihoods (Vermeulen, 2005). Bradstock (2005) also states that the purpose of this programme is "to provide the poor with land for residential and productive purposes in order to improve their livelihoods". The programme is also designed to assist other groups such as the urban and rural poor, labour tenants, farm workers, the landless poor, and would-be farmers.

- **Restitution**: Legal processes have been put in place to compensate (in cash or kind) individuals who had been victims of forced removals after 1913. All restitution cases are dealt with through the Land Claims Court and Commission, established in 1994 to which claims have to be submitted within 3 years (that is, by the end of 1997). Even if the legal process can be expedited, the inability of the vast majority of the population to furnish written evidence makes this option feasible for only a small part of the population.

2.2. Land Restitution in South Africa: A Historical Perspective

It is generally accepted, nationally, that the land question is a highly controversial one. It is fraught with political obstacles and raises profound questions, which do not allow for quick-fix solutions. South Africa's history of conquest and dispossession, of forced

removals and a racially-skewed distribution of land resources have left a complex and difficult legacy, namely, insecurity, landlessness and poverty among black people and a case of inefficient land administration and land use system (Mbao, 2002).

In the 1948 elections the Afrikaner nationalist party, the National Party (NP), came into power with the promises for the promotion of apartheid or "separate development" policies, it was under this supremacist government that racially discriminatory legislation was further promoted to establish the highly skewed imbalances of economic prosperity and political power between white and black South Africans (Vermeulen, 2009). According to Machaka (2007) land was the pillar of apartheid. The discriminatory laws that were put in place during the past regime is the direct cause of the establishment of the new dispensation that aimed at bringing a new life and vision to every South African. The introduction and implementation of both the 1913 Native Land Act and the 1936 Native Trust Act solidified white control of 87% of the South African territory. Both laws transformed Africans into suppliers of cheap labour to the white economy. After the apartheid government took power in 1948, a far-reaching programme of spatial control over the black population led to the re-settlement of more than 3,5 million black people (both in urban and rural areas) in furtherance of the white minority's desires (Walker, 2002).

The apartheid state pushed through many policies and laws in its bid to completely dehumanise black South Africans and dispossess them of land and all claims to citizenship (Yates, 2006). In spite of the provisions of the Native Land Act, even as late

as the 1960s some blacks had full deeds office registered title to farms in white areas, and they lived on those farms. These were referred to as "black spots" and the NP controlled government expropriated these farms and moved the black occupants to the homelands. The farms were then sold to selected white farmers at subsidized purchase prices and interest rates. Many blacks and their families remained as residents on these white farms as labour tenants. The government passed the law on Prevention of Illegal Squatting Act 52 of 1951 and the Bantu Laws Amendment Act 42 of 1964 as further measurements to convert labour tenants into wage labourers and to abolish illegal squatting (Belling, 2008 and Vermeulen, 2009). As a result, more than a million black South Africans were evicted from farms between 1964 and 1984. The Prevention of Illegal Squatting Act of 1951 and the Bantu Laws Amendment Act of 1964 enabled the government and white landowners to drive millions of urban and rural blacks from their land. By the end of the 1970s, labour tenant contracts were prohibited (Yates, 2006).

Belling (2008) further explained that both the forced removals and the perceptions that white farmers acquired these farms below the market value, with low interest government loans, plus various farming subsidies, none of which were available to the black farmers, were sore points. This led to the unusual new clauses in the Property sections of the Interim and final Constitution.

Some of the ANC and their allies felt that these white farmers who replaced the dispossessed blacks should not be paid for benefits given to them by the former government. The principle of the taxpayer not having to pay for handing back the farms because of the benefits previously given through tax money can be considered to be

reasonable and can be applied to the land restitution programme. Vermeulen (2009) says that these laws as policies contributed to the confinement of blacks to their homeland as they were prevented from moving around or residing freely in the country. It is approximated that 3,5 million people were restricted to the reserves under the extensive legislation of forced removals. Blacks were restricted to a specific territorial area where they had only limited opportunity to economic development and they were prohibited from sharing natural resources of South Africa equally. The homeland policy of the apartheid government was strongly opposed by ANC and other black liberation groups, and in the new democracy these homelands were abolished (Belling, 2008).

Mbao (2002) also states that millions of indigenous people were dispossessed through the colonial and apartheid governments' racially discriminatory laws and policies. In urban areas, thousands of families were dispossessed under the Group Areas Act, of 1950, the Community Development Act of 1966 and the Resettlement of Blacks Act of 1954. Some of the victims received compensation from the state, others, following the proclamation of racially segregated residential areas, were forced to sell on the open market under very unfavourable circumstances.

This is supported by Belling (2008) who states that although racial discrimination existed before 1948, this was made an official policy by the National Party after they came into power in 1948. These apartheid legislations managed to forbid black ownership of land in the white areas and perpetuated mass poverty in the then Bantustans (Machaka, 2007).

The South African agrarian structure has been built up systematically since the turn of the century. By the end of the 1980s, the African family farming sector had all been eliminated, and the peasants had been transformed into wage workers on large farms, in mines and secondary industries. Nearly 90% of the agricultural land was in white areas, supporting a total population of about 5,3 million people, and more that 90% of whom were Whites. The remaining agricultural land was in the homelands and supports over 13 million people.

The contention by Fraser (2007) in Vermeulen (2009) is that the apartheid-era South African government created a "bifurcated state" through the creation of the homeland system and the appointment of the traditional authorities (in terms of the legislation passed in the 1920s) in these areas to administer rights in land, labour and the use of resources. This legislation provided for the black Self-government Act of 1959. The sovereignty of these traditional leaders within their "invented" domains was limited as they were still subordinate to the apartheid state, and their accountability to the people was also limited. Traditional authorities were frequently corrupt and abused their powers of allocating land and by imposing illegal taxes to the detriment of the black residents. The Strategic plan for South African agriculture recognizes the need to improve commercial production, profitability and global competitiveness, while ensuring equitable access to the sector. It further emphasises the need for deracialization of land enterprise ownership, and ensures the sustainable of resource management. Support service is not significant enough for the new group of farmers to profitably farm (Machaka, 2007).

Xulu and Maharaj (2004) write about the restitution programmes between 1990 and 1993, the transitional period to democracy. They realized that in keeping with the political reforms introduced by President FW de Klerk in February 1990, the National Party government passed the Abolition of Racially Based Land Ownership Regulations in 1991, in terms of which all laws restricting access to land on a racial basis were abolished. However, existing patterns of land ownership remained unchanged. After the introduction of the 1993 constitution, various land legislation measures were issued to ensure restitution and redistribution of land. The restitution of Land Rights 22 of 1994 was issued in order to deal with land claim cases where land was dispossessed after 1993 in terms of racially determined legislation (RSA, 1998). The first piece of "transformation" legislation to be passed by the new parliament of the democratic South Africa was the Restitution of Land Rights Act in November 1994. Those whose land was taken from them during apartheid- specifically since 1913- had the right to claim the restoration or return of that land or financial compensation could be accepted (Vermeulen, 2009).

Vermeulen (2009) further quotes President Mandela as he promised that white owned land will not be confiscated. When Mandela signed the Restitution of Land Rights Act, section 25 of Act 108 of 1996, he said: "There is no need for the widespread concern that we have found from the farming community. They have nothing to fear. Restitution can be done without depriving people who already have property". Then Mandela added "This Act has led to a great deal of concern especially on the part of white farmers, who feel that they are threatened, that they are going to lose their farms. There is nothing of

the sort (planned)". Furthermore, it was said that expropriation will only be in rare instances and will be done in consultation with the people involved and with full compensation. The government owns substantial amounts of land (perhaps one million hectares) which could be used as compensation for claims. It is also possible that some white farmers, particularly those who are close to bankruptcy, might be willing to sell their property if the right financial incentives were offered.

2.3. Sustainability of Land Restitution programmes: A conceptual framework.

Figure 1: Conceptual framework

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                        ┌─────────────────────┐
                        │   Land restitution  │
                        └─────────────────────┘
                         ↙                   ↘
        ┌──────────────────┐         ┌─────────────────────────┐
        │   Rights-based   │         │   Resource management   │
        └──────────────────┘         └─────────────────────────┘
                 ↓                                ↓
        ┌──────────────────┐         ┌─────────────────────────┐
        │ Restorative      │         │  Legal entities: CPAs   │
        │ justice          │         └─────────────────────────┘
        └──────────────────┘
                 ↘                          ↙
              ┌───────────────────────────────┐
              │   Sustainability of projects   │
              └───────────────────────────────┘
          ↙            ↓              ↓              ↘
   ┌───────────┐ ┌──────────────┐ ┌────────────┐ ┌──────────────┐
   │ Ownership │ │Participation │ │ Capacity   │ │ Care for     │
   │           │ │              │ │ building   │ │ environment  │
   └───────────┘ └──────────────┘ └────────────┘ └──────────────┘
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and
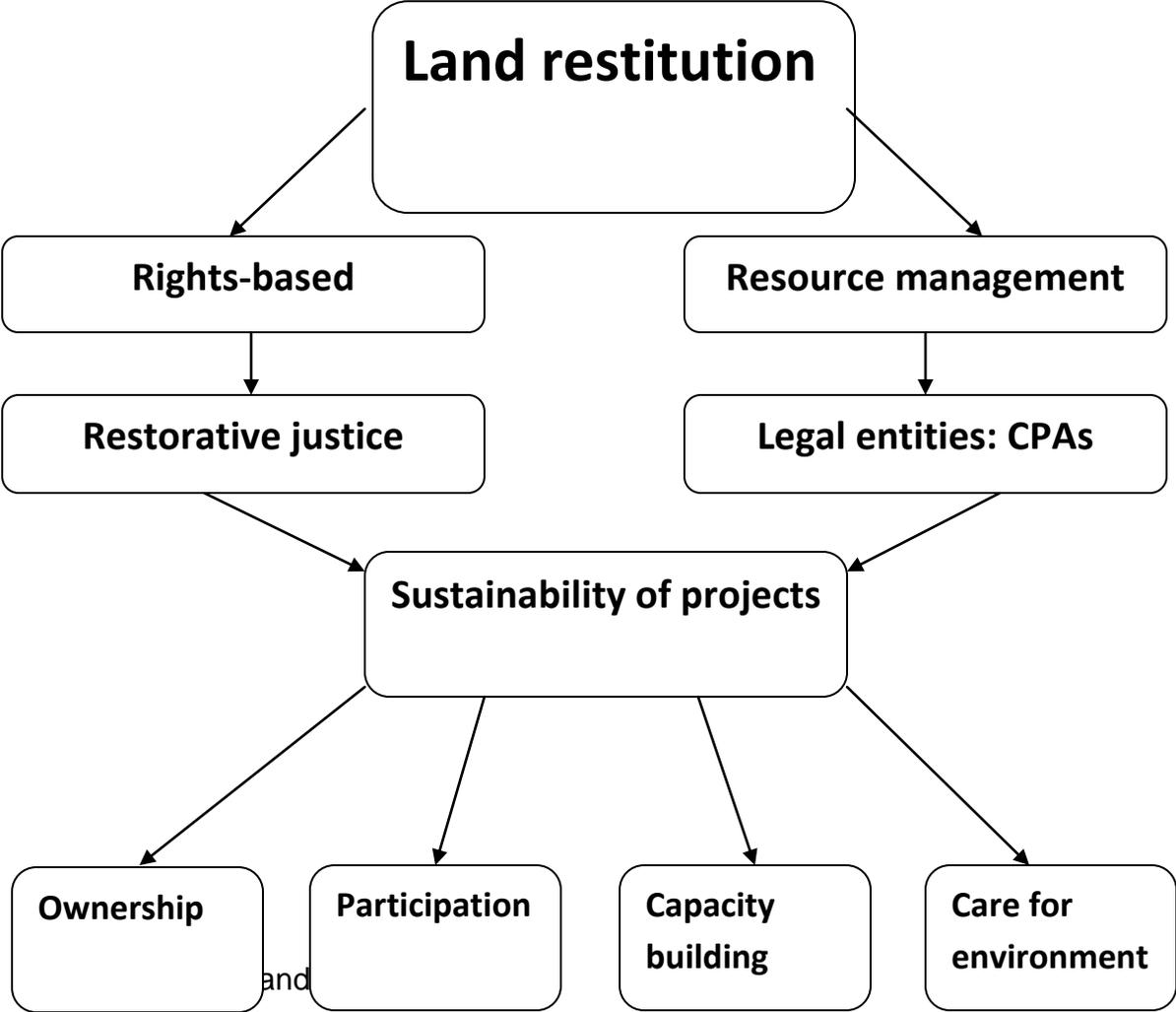
2.3.1. Land restitution

Bradstock (2008) explains that the land restitution programme aims to restore land to those people who were displaced as a consequence of such acts as the Natives Land Act of 1913, and the Native Trust and Land Act of 1936. Land restitution programme's aim is to restore land rights or provide other equitable redress to those unfairly dispossessed of their rights after 19 June 1913 (the introduction of the Native Land Act 27 1913). Restitution is a rights-based programme to be implemented in terms of Section 25 (7) of the constitution (RSA, 1997).

Restitution would need to address the legacy of forced removals, and the significance of land not only as an economic asset but also a consultative element of identity, culture, history and tradition. Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 (Restitution Act) is one of the first pieces of legislation passed by the Government of National Unity which came into power after the first democratic elections. It is expected to advance reconciliation and historical justice by undoing some of the legacies of dispossession and the social upheaval it inflicted, however there is little basis on which to judge how successful this has been. Instead, progress with restitution has commonly been measured by counting the number of claims that have been settled (Hall, 2004).

The goal of the restitution policy is to restore land and provide other restitution remedies to people dispossessed by racially discriminatory legislation and practices, in such a way as to provide support to the vital process of reconciliation, reconstruction and development. This is an integral part of the broader land reform programme and closely linked to the need for the redistribution of land and tenure reform. The Restitution of

Land Rights Act, 22 of 1994 and the constitution provide a legal framework for the resolution of Land claims (RSA, 1997).

According to RSA (1998) forced removal in support of racial segregation have caused enormous suffering and hardship in South Africa and no settlement of land issue can be reached without addressing such historical injustices. The Interim Constitution provided a framework for the restitution of land rights, instructing the legislative to put in place a law to provide redress for the victims of acts of dispossession that took place after 1913, in the form of restoration of the land that was lost, or alternative remedies. Therefore, Parliament enacted the Restitution of Land Rights Act, 22 of 1994, creating the Commission on Restitution of Land Rights and the Land Claims Court.

Restitution provides for the restitution of land rights to persons or communities who were dispossessed of rights in land after 19 June 1913 in terms of a racially-based law or practices. A conservative estimate suggests that over 3.5 million black people, in rural and urban areas, were forcibly disposed of their land and homes during the apartheid era (Lahiff, 2001 and RSA, 2005).

The legal basis for restitution is provided by the 1993 "interim" constitution, section 25 (7) of the 1996 constitution, and the restitution of Land Rights Act, 1994 (as amended in 1997). This Act established a Commission on the Restitution of Land Rights (CRLR) under a Chief Land Claim Commissioner and four (later five) Regional Commissioners.

The CRLR was originally envisaged as an independent body, but it now falls under the control of the Department of Land Affairs (DLA), on which it depends for funds, administrative support, and research expertise and policy direction. A special court, the

land claims court, with powers equivalent to those of the High Court was also established to deal with land claims and other land-related matters (Lahiff, 2001).

One of the very first pieces of legislation that the new government promulgated was the Restitution Act No. 22 of 1994 as amended. The main aim of the Act was to provide for the restitution of land right to persons or communities dispossessed after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racial discriminatory laws or practices (RSA, 2003). The revised cut-off date for the lodgement of restitution claims was 31 December 1998 (Lahiff, 2001).

Since its establishment in 1994 South Africa's Commission of Restitution of Land Rights has settled 74808 out of 79696 land claim lodged at a cost of R16 billion. 289937 households and about 1.4 million individuals benefited across the country. The remaining 4888 outstanding claims hopefully, may be settled by 2010 (Masinga, 2008). The restitution policy as laid down in the Restitution of Land Rights Act No. 22 of 1994, only allows claims dating back to 19th June, 1913. This means that previous claim when most of the colonization and settlement took place in the country will not be allowed; including those who have lived in the country for very extended periods, people such as San, Strand lopers etc (Fourie, 2000).

The purpose of Land Restitution Programme is to restore land and provide other remedies to people dispossessed by racially discriminatory legislation and practices. This will be done in such a way as to provide support to the process of reconciliation and development, adhering to the over-arching consideration of fairness and justice for individual, communities and the country as a whole. The government's policy and procedure for land claims are based on provisions of the Constitution and the

Restitution of Land Rights Act, 22 of 1994. Four aspects are elaborated upon in The White Paper these are as follows: Qualification criteria, forms of restitution, compensation (for both claimants and land owners), and urban claims (RSA, 1998).

In 1995, the Commission on Restitution of Land Rights was established in terms of the Act to:-

- Provide equitable redress and restoration to victims of these dispossessions, particularly the landless and rural poor.

- Contribute towards equitable redistribution of land in South Africa.

- Promote reconciliation through the restitution process.

- Facilitate development initiatives by bringing together all relevant stakeholders, especially the Provincial Government and Municipalities (Lahiff, 2001)

According to Chapter 2 Section 25 (property clause) of the Constitution Act 108 of 1996, the new ANC government shows commitment to reverse the effect of colonialism and apartheid by introducing land restitution, which is one of the three legs of land reform in South Africa.

A restitution claim qualifies for investigation by the Commission on Restitution of Land Rights provided that the claimant was dispossessed of a right in land after 19 June 1993, as a result of racially discriminatory laws or practices, or was not paid just and equitable compensation.Claims arising from dispossession prior to 1913 may be accommodated by the Minister in terms of preferential status in the Land Redistribution Programme providing that claimants are disadvantaged and will benefit in a sustainable manner from the support (RSA, 1998).

2.3. 2. Form of land restitution

- Restoration of the land from which claimants were dispossessed.

- Provision of alternative land.

- Payment of compensation.

- Alternative relief comprising a combination of the above or

- Priority access to government housing and land development programmes.

The state will compensate certain successful claimants in a just and equitable way where restoration of the land and other remedies are not appropriate landowners' whose land is expropriated for the purposes of restoring land to successful claimants will be compensated in a just and equitable manner.

2.3.3. Benefits Received by Restitution Beneficiaries

According to RSA (2007), the majority of beneficiaries receive no material benefit from Restitution. The most striking finding from case studies revealed that the majority of beneficiaries across all restitution projects reviewed have received little, if any, tangible benefit from restitution in the form of cash income or direct access to land. In most cases, rental income has not been passed on to members, nor would it have made any great material contribution to their livelihood, given the amount of the income in relation to the size of group. In most cases, a small sub-group of community members have benefited through access to employments, often as part of strategic partnership agreements and it appears that more highly educated members, and men, are most likely to reap these benefits.

2.3.4. Challenges Confronting Restitution Projects

A number of challenges have confronted land restitution projects. These include:

- Lack of technical skills (agriculture, land use planning, commercial crop production, large-scale livestock farming, horticulture, game farming)

- Lack of business skills (finance, marketing, risk management, entrepreneurship, business process mapping and modeling)

- Lack of organisational skills (resource mobilization, co-operatives, roles and responsibilities, stakeholder commitments, joint venture, capacity building)

- Lack of development Planning Skills (social facilitation, rural livelihood, project management, group dynamics conflict resolution, rural development planning), finances and Financial Management (Land Bank and National Development Agency)

- Beyond land reform, the challenge is to find technologies and socio-economic frameworks that spread all the rural opportunities more equitably and make them economically viable (Turner, 2001)

- There is weak or absent support system for agriculture and other land-based livelihood, together with limited access to input and output marketing. The consequences of this are under cultivation and lack of interest in farming amongst the youth (Kepe, & Cousins, 2001)

According to RSA (2007) case studies reveal the following challenges that affect the sustainability of the settled projects:- Lack of skills as restitution claim beneficiaries lack training and technical support, particularly in agriculture and tourism to attain their development aims; Non receivable of settlement planning and discretionary grant by 5%

of the projects; Lack of business plan by 30% of all projects; Lack of finance and access to working capital by 58% of the projects; Lack of essential equipments for production by 50% of projects; Internal conflict experienced by 34 % of the projects.

Those black households who owned land outside the reserves were initially exempted from the provisions under the 1913 Act, however, from the 1950s until the 1980s these households or 'black spots' were subjected to forced removals. (The programme only considers those people that can prove that they were forcibly removed after 19th June 1913. They can prove this by producing documents or showing graves of their ancestors). A Land Claims Court and Commission that was established under the Restitution of Land Rights Act, 22 of 1994 is the body responsible for adjudicating these claims.

Fourie and Schoeman (2008) state that land restitution operates in a highly political environment, making it all the more visible and showing a need for land restitution to succeed. Since restitution addresses the loss of land rights through compensation for land whose claimants were dispossessed, meeting the expected results is therefore driven by political will to succeed and government's ability to create adequate support structures. Whilst various views highlight the significant role government and the Commission play in creating an enabling environment, it further contends that the role of the Commission does not culminate in the settlement of claims but instead underscores the importance and value that development initiatives provide by supporting a community-based natural resource management (CBNRM).

The initiative offers claimants the possibility to use the land in a feasible manner. Unfortunately, lack of adequately designed post-settlement support structures created major problems where claimants were unable to use the land as a basis for their livelihoods.

2.4. Rights-based

- **The Constitution (1996) and White paper on Reconstructive and Development (1994)**

The fundamental goals of the Constitution are rights and the freedom of its individual citizens, based on the Bill of Rights.

The importance of the Constitution lies in its normative principles and the relationship of power between the government and its citizens. The Constitution of 1996 and the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development, 1994 guide the development initiatives taken in South Africa. Development is framed within the concept of a social welfare state in which government is expected to create conditions of social advancement.

These principles form a pivotal point in the development-orientated approach endorsed within the Constitution as a mechanism for service delivery through which government has to respond to people's needs through community involvement and participation. Section 25(4) of the Constitution of 1996 records the nation's commitment to land reform and to bringing about equitable access to all South Africa's natural resources and compels the state to utilise available resources in such a way as to foster conditions which enable citizens to gain access to land on an equitable basis in order to redress

the results of past racial discrimination. This means that the role of government and the Commission does not stop with the settlement of claims.

The Constitution compels the state to engage in development initiatives supporting community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) interventions. The White Paper on Land Reform of 1997 indicates that land is an important resource that forms the cornerstone for the Reconstruction and Development strategy and the success of land reform contributes to economic development (Fourie & Schoeman, 2008; Rugege, 2004).

- **The Community Property Association Act 28 of 1996**

The Act enables communities to form juristic persons, to be known as communal property associations in order to acquire, hold and manage property on a basis agreed to by members of a community, in terms of a written constitution, and to provide for matters connected therewith (Policy.org.za).

- **Restitution of Lands Rights Act 22 of 1994**

This Act enforces restoration of land or provides some other form of compensation, for example, money to individuals and communities who had lost land after 19 June 1913 as a result of a racially-based legislation. In terms of this Act, a community is a group or part of a group having shared rules relating to land held in common. The Act, established a Commission on Restitution of Land Rights (CRLR) to manage the land claims processes; to provide advice on restitution claims; to appoint mediators in the event of conflicting or overlapping claims and to advise the responsible Minister if

restoring the actual land or providing alternative land to claimants is feasible. It also established a special court, the Land Claims Court (LCC), to hear land claims cases (Barry, 2010).

Pienaar (2007) as cited in Fourie and Schoeman (2008) argues that if appropriate legal institutional arrangements are not put in place from the outset, it will hamper future service delivery as municipalities lose large amounts of potential income that could have been used for economic development and upliftment of the communities. Restitution claimants are exempted from property taxes in terms of section 17(1) (g) of the Property Rates Act, 2004. A municipality may not levy a rate on a property belonging to a land reform beneficiary or his or her heirs, provided that this exclusion lapses ten years from the date on which such beneficiary's title was registered in the office of the Registrar of Deeds. Pienaar, (2007) further maintains that if no proactive action is taken from the onset this will continue to be the case after the 10-year rate grace period, complicating future planning and empowerment strategies.

2.5. Restorative justice

According to Fourie and Schoeman (2008) restitution is a rights-based programme conceived as a form of restorative justice that is ingrained within a community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) system. In each of these aspects of restitution, livelihoods outline a common currency in development planning and debates that support outcomes achieved within restitution. These outcomes are strengthened

through the use of sustainable livelihood approaches in which people share assets in terms of capital.

Restorative justice programmes should also go beyond the mere material restoration of the land, and they should address the psychological and emotional facets too. Lost land is a powerful symbol for those dispossessed, and trauma accompanied that dispossession. In South Africa, stories about human rights abuses were revealed to the Truth and Reconciliation Commission. Similar processes and institutions should have formed part of the land restitution programme (Barry, 2010). In contrast, Fourie and Schoeman (2008) indicate that the core problem for programme failure lies within the working definition for 'rights'. He explains that the working definition for 'rights' determines how restitution is applied to the nature and extent of land rights of individual users as opposed to the rights of members; how the process for the allocation of rights to members are executed and supported; in the formation and choice of legal entities as well as claimants' rights to benefits gained from land use.

2.6. Resource management

Mbaiwa (2004) determines that the driving force behind the introduction of Resource Management (RM) was factors such as, the threat of species extinction due to over utilisation of resources, the inability of the state to protect its declining resources, land use conflicts between rural communities living in resource areas and resource managers needing to link conservation and development. It is a reform of the conventional 'protectionist conservation philosophy' and 'top down' approaches to

development, and it is based on common property theory which discourages open access resource management, and promotes resource use rights of the local communities, As an attempt to find new solutions for the failure of top-down approaches to development and conservation, RM is based on the recognition that local people must have power to decide over their natural resources in order to encourage sustainable development. RM aims at alleviating rural poverty and advance conservation by strengthening rural economies and empowering communities to manage resources for their long term social, economic and ecological benefits. Mbaiwa (2004) further states that resource management projects are constrained by factors such as lack of entrepreneurship and managerial skills in projects, lack of training and capacity building, insecurity of tenure, conflicts between stakeholders, management problems of community trusts and misuse of funds. These problems affect the success and sustainability of resource management.

2.7. Legal entities: CPA

Some of the land being claimed back is communal land. Sometimes when the land is transferred back to the communities, they are ordered to form Communal Property Associations (CPA) in terms of the Communal Association Act 28 of 1996. Such associations enable communities or groups to acquire, hold and manage property under written constitution. The Act also requires a land-holding group to draft a constitution which sets out rules governing access to and management of jointly-owned land. The CPA constitution should conform to the requirements of the Act. The CPA in land restitution is a key in fostering public partnership and is made up of members who have

land rights. These rights can be for claimants to live on the land or to use other property that the CPA owns. This legal entity can own property like land or other things like tractors, tools or building, buy and sell property, borrow money from a bank and use its property to show a bank that it will pay back the money, take someone to court and have a set of rules that all members must follow (RSA, 1996).

The Act sets out conditions under which restitution beneficiaries would jointly acquire, hold and manage land. CPAs would be run according to a constitution; they define individual and group rights; provide equal rights for women; and function in a transparent, accountable and democratic manner (Alistair, 2006).

As traditional authorities grew more accustomed to power, they became obstacles given the powers they continue to excise. For example, traditional authorities, with respect to the distribution of land, can appoint allies to positions of power, or extract surpluses from their subjects; hence as long as their power remains, then land reforms runs the risk of providing a means to deepen their influence over redistributed land (Alistair, 2006).

All land which is redistributed, restored or awarded to beneficiaries must be registered to indicate ownership. It provides one vehicle for group ownership and if indeed the rights belong to a group, the group must be able, by democratic majority choose what forms of land holding system would be flexible and accommodate change over time (RSA, 1996).Although progress has been made in restitution claims, the process is full of complex issues that hamper progress. The manifestation of internal factionalism

between the CPAs and traditional leadership within a community compromises the pace of development and progress in the land restoration.

Delegations at the Johannesburg National Land Summit state that CPAs are not sufficiently equipped to deal with land use and planning issue. To upgrade them to the desired standard, capacitation should be vigorously implemented (RSA, 2005 (d)). The lack of capacity and accountability on the part of CPAs leaderships leads to multiple problems within communities and hampers development (RSA, 2006).

2.8. Sustainability of restitution projects

Fourie and Schoeman (2008) write that the concept of 'sustainable development' evolved at the Stockholm Conference of 1972 and is contained in two bodies of literature on development and environmental conservation which in turn encompasses the concepts of sustainable development and rural development. The challenge of improving governance and service delivery by promoting sustainable agriculture and rural development (SARD) are raised in Chapter 14 of Agenda 21 and the Rio Principles (UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2007).

Sustainability as a criterion is not necessarily related to any particular grant. Most grant providers are concerned with what will happen to the project after the grant's time period runs out- Will the project fall apart with no additional funding or is it self-sufficient? You have to make sure that any project you begin can either be fully completed within the timeframe allowed or is sustainable after the allotted time without additional grants. Fourie and Schoeman (2008) note that despite major investments from government in balancing land rights, outcomes continue to be unsustainable, since it is in only one out

of five restitution programmes that claimants have been able to utilize their claims in a sustainable manner.

The sustainability concept is anchored on three broad concerns, namely: economic efficiency, social equity and ecological sustainability. Economic efficiency aims at the optimal use of natural resources. The aim is to produce the maximum output in order to achieve a high standard of living for the people within the constraints of the existing capital. Economic efficiency should explain how the issues of economic benefits are shared not only among CPA members but also within the community as a whole. Social equity, advocates fairness and equal access to resources by all user groups. This is aimed at ensuring equity in the distribution of costs, benefits, decision-making and management, which in theory will eradicate poverty. Social equity refers to a situation where all individuals in a community have the same opportunity to be actively involved in, benefit from, make decisions about, and to manage natural resources. The sustainability of projects is founded on the notion of equity within the community. That is, the opportunity to benefit from the project should be the same for all CPA members irrespective of their ethnic background, gender, age or economic status.

Ecological sustainability emphasises that the rate of renewable natural resource use should not be faster than the rate at which the natural process renews itself. This is based on the assumption that the dynamic processes of the natural environment can become unsustainable as a result of stresses imposed by human activity. Ecological sustainability therefore refers to maintaining a system's stability, which implies limiting

the stress on ecosystems central to the sustainability of the global system. Ecological sustainability should provide an indication of whether the project is achieving its goal of natural resource conservation. The three concerns of economic, social, and ecological sustainability are inter-related. Impacts on one are likely to affect all others (Mbaiwa, 2004).

2.9. Indicators of sustainability

2. 9.1. Participation

Participation is a process by which the public is given the opportunity and/or responsibility to manage their own resources, define their needs, goals, and aspirations, and make decisions affecting their well- being (Fellizar 1994). It starts from the basic premise that people have the innate capacity to understand and act on their own problems (Katon *et al.* 1999). Participation at community level allows the choice of a project to reflect the needs and preferences within the community; a project design to reflect local information, ensuring that local conditions, preferences, and circumstances are taken into account. Equally important is that local participation engenders commitment which is necessary for important project sustainability over the long run, and participation in the project itself becomes part of the transformation process (Stiglitz, 1998).

Community participation implies the readiness of all beneficiaries to accept responsibilities and activities. It also means that the value of the beneficiaries is seen and used. Mere tokenism or propaganda will not make participation meaningful. The

honest inclusion of all beneficiaries in decision- making makes for successful community participation (Khan and Haupt, 2006).

Communities are no longer seen as recipients of development programmes; rather, they have become critical stakeholders that have an important role to play in the management of programmes and projects in their areas (NGO Management School Switzerland, 2009). Stiglitz (1998) further states that the opportunities for meaningful participation should not be limited to office bearers. Well designed projects can be catalysts for community development in land restitution projects. Khan and Haupt (2006) say that, first, meeting basic need requires the participation of all its beneficiaries; second, participation in implementation improves efficiency through the mobilisation of local resources; third, the development of the capacity of a community to plan and implement change will require greater intensity and scope of participation as the project proceeds.

There is often a multiplicity of interests from the beneficiaries. In such situations participation can be expected to be anything other than smooth. The most significant of these are the negative effects of structural limitations to the scope of participation, inefficiency and the difficulty in identifying who does what within the project. Participation programs require effort and investment on the part of participants. Purely community-level management can be difficult in a complex world of multiple stakeholders (Berkes 1997).

Khan and Haupt (2006) further add that a lack of community participation in projects can therefore be the result of professionals assuming the role of knowledgeable specialists who do not take users' views into account because users do not 'know enough' to make decisions.

However, sometimes users themselves hand over their participatory rights to professionals. Consequently they save themselves time, energy and, in some instances even conflict.

Khan and Haupt (2008) continue that it is also common for practitioners to assume that everyone in a community is participating, and that development will serve the needs of everyone. Khan and Haupt (2008) also highlight that the immediate risks of a participatory approach, as opposed to a top-down approach. The strategic vision/direction may be less clear, at least for the first year or so. Given the multiple perspectives incorporated, it may therefore be more difficult to focus on priorities. Momentum may be lost, as the time taken for participatory strategies is longer.

Khan and Haupt (2006) contest that the potential benefits of participation should be discussed in relation to the specific interest of each stakeholder. However, it is important to recognise that participation, as any process of socio-economic development, involves costs and risks as well as benefits. It is a process of give-and-take in which each side must surrender certain current positions and assume additional costs in the interest of a greater overall benefit. Experience has shown that the more a community makes inputs into and participates in projects, the more sustainable the

project. Participation could range from community decision making to hands on construction involvement. This extends the life span of both the projects and the benefits received by the community. There are eight principles to proper participation that were discussed by Terblanche, (2005).

- **Respect for human dignity**

Human dignity originates in self-respect, which in turn, is fundamental to the acceptance of others. The human being's ability and responsibility to deal with his own problems according to his own convictions, expectations and resources need to be taken into account. Human dignity opposes any authoritative management and it defends the autonomy of the community. It demands respect for others' opinions and their ability to make decisions and built up a life of their own. It is a need to become concerned with the ability of people to function socially and that one should have faith in people rather than provide assistance when not requested.

- **Individuality**

Every person is unique and therefore has the opportunity to create his own unique living space. The culture, social and economical structure and political factors all contribute to the unique character of a community. The individual however, is also part of a family and or household and therefore the family/household is unique. The human being (man/women) has the ability to recall images of past experience and to make value judgements about them and to project the lessons of such judgements into the future.

This enables man to establish in his mind the things he/she wants in future. Recognition of the uniqueness of the individual in the community is a prerequisite for participation.

- **Self-determination**

People would like to know that they have the ability to make decisions which affects their lives. All people have the same potential to improve their own interest, to speak for them selves, to help as well as be-helped and to effect change to help. It becomes clear that the imposing of projects (no participation), even in emerging situations, is coming into sharp question. When a community is forced into projects reactions of suspicion, hostility or increased insecurity can also be expected. Ways and means must be found to provide the average farmer/client with some sense of participation in and control over his changing environment.

- **Self-help**

It simply implies that the members of the community accept the responsibility to do something for themselves in order to improve their own circumstances. Self-help leads to the development of self-respect. It became clear that because the Levubu project was initiated as a self-help project, the women were able to operate from home without neglecting their household duties and they were identified as individuals who through their enthusiasm, drive and ambition have become economically active. This self-help program has provided residents with permanent employment.

- **Community needs**

It is necessary to identify and address the needs that the beneficiaries themselves indicate and not those imposed on them. The beneficiaries should conceptualise and prioritise their problems/needs. Starting where people are and learning from their ways; walking and working with them. Those farmers must design their own systems based on their needs, skills and resources and farmers are willing to be involved in needs identification and prioritisation.

- **Indigenous plans**

Clearly linked to self-determination, self-help and community needs is the principle of indigenous plans. No matter how good a plan is, if the people for whom it was made fail to feel it belongs to them, it will not work successfully. For many years this has been demonstrated where vast amounts of money and man power have been spent to launch projects, some of which have been little appreciated, a few of which have been thoroughly disliked and many with no cooperation from the local people.

An integral part of indigenous plans is indigenous knowledge and the CPA must strive to understand the members' systems and strive to adapt them if they cannot be used in the original form, but it must not be ignored.

- **Partnership**

When people participate, they develop their abilities and the individual's ability to grow and to develop depends on active association with other people. The first partnership that needs to be established is between the extension worker and his/her clients. This partnership depends on cooperation and mutual trust between the two parties and is

only possible if principles such as, respect for human dignity, self-determination, self-help, individuality have been dealt with. If there is no partnership there will be no participation.

- **Change**

Participation includes the principle of change and more specifically, behaviour change. Man is always in a process of becoming and is thus never static. Participation implies an intervention and that implies change and when will and desire are present, change can be greatly facilitated. Principles such as justice, equity and development of local leadership also need to be taken into consideration.

Figure 2: Levels of participation
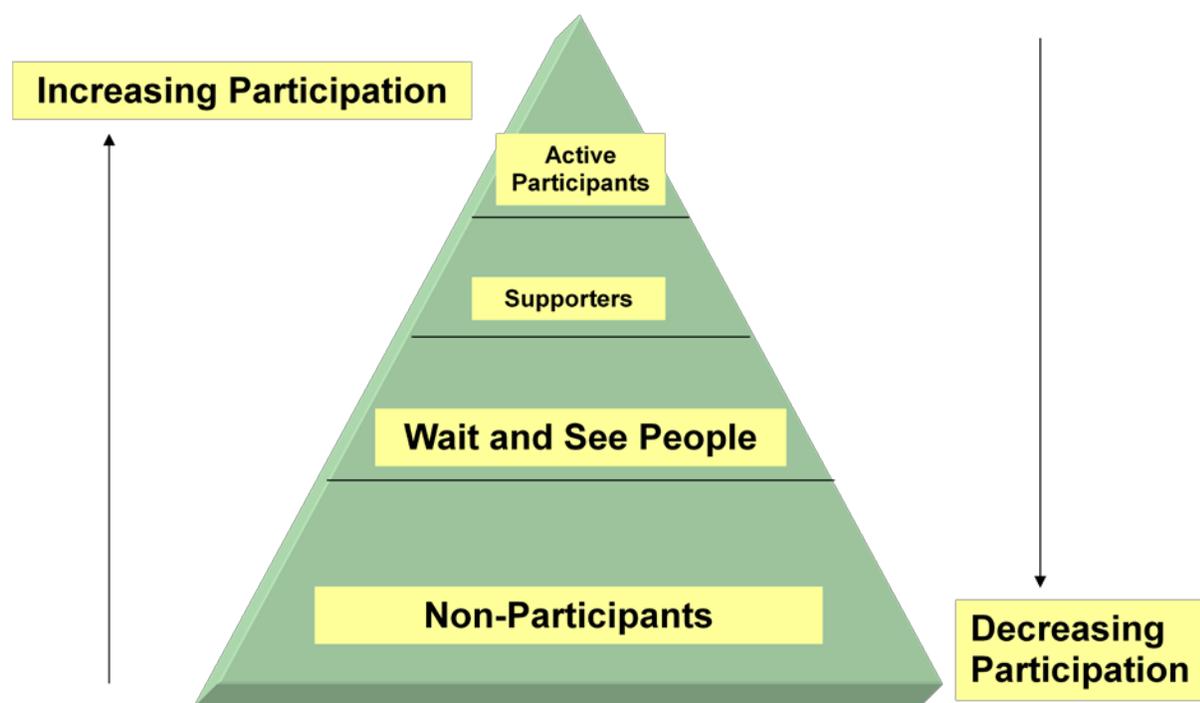
Source: sgp.undp.org

2.9.2. Capacity building

Capacity building as described by Been *et al.* (2004) is a commonly used term that holds many different meanings for different people. Generally, however, it is understood to be conditional upon improving knowledge and changing people's behaviour so that they can make more informed decisions, adapt better to changing conditions and be more effective in carrying out decisions. It is also defined by Botha (2009) as a complex term which can be defined in many ways, but essentially it is the building of human, institutional and infrastructural capacity to help communities develop safe, secure, stable and sustainable projects. Capacity building can also be assisting people to develop the technical skills to address their own needs for improving the living standards and prosperity of their own people and building an environmentally sustainable community.

For our purpose, we have defined 'capacity building' as 'a process whereby people are enabled to better perform defined functions either as individuals, through improved technical skills and or professional understanding, or as groups aligning their activities to achieve common purpose' in order to ensure the sustainability of the project. We envisage it as a personal growth process that leads to enhanced performance. This growth will thus benefit the entire group. As such, it is evident that capacity building is not an event, but rather a continuous process (Been *et al.,* 2004). Capacity building in developing projects is required during the establishment and development phase. Capacity building in developed projects is required during the renewal phase (Botha, 2009).

Been *et al.* (2004) state that capacity building can reflected in the diffusion, transformation and application of new knowledge and skills. Certain enabling conditions are essential pre-requisites for this to happen, efficiently and effectively. There is an implication that there is a need to create and sustain enabling conditions such as, the willingness and motivation of the participants to learn. This means that individuals, and through them, their CPA, have to redefine their roles and responsibilities so as to jointly create the learning environment and enabling conditions in which capacity building can occur. Once we adopt a paradigm for capacity building, that reflects strategic alliances interacting in a learning environment that is supported by enabling conditions, we appreciate that capacity building in projects is not the sole responsibility of the strategic partners but of all the beneficiaries, employees and institutions who promote the land restitution projects.

Botha (2009) says that capacity can be developed and maintained through mentoring, training, education, physical projects, the infusion of financial and other resources and, even more importantly, the motivation and inspiration of people to improve. Skills and capacity development are central in every developing nation. Necessary investment and penetration of global markets can only be attracted through the required skills and capacity development (Mabunda, 2008).

In 2008, 30 farmers and extension officers received training in Export Market Readiness. This training covers export requirements and standards for European Union

(Global gap/Euro gap), negotiating for markets, developing a market plan strategy and conducting market analysis (Mabunda, 2008).

Skills shortage in the farming sector is a major concern as farming is expected to contribute a big portion to the economy by making lands productive but they are failing due to lack of skills and experience. Skilled farmers in the small community of Jericho in North West are doing their part to ensure emerging farmers learn the necessary skills to manage their own farms. Five experienced farmers have pooled together under the African Farming Franchise project to train emerging farmers how to produce crops, thus transferring skills. There is great need for our government and private sector to support emerging farmers (BuaNews, 2008).

Skills development is a key requirement for economic growth and for empowering the previously disadvantaged majority economically. As a result, the Skills Development Act of 1998 provides a framework for developing skills in the work-place. The Act also makes provision for skills development by means of a levy-grant scheme and the establishment of 27 sector-specific Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) to administer the scheme's fund and manage the skills development process. A SETA must develop and implement a skills development plan, be responsible for quality control and payout development grants (Sowetan, 2008)

Through training and workshops, the management at the project will be able to develop in strategic planning, quality management, operational planning, project management, change management and human resource management development (Mokeki, 2007). Training in agricultural sector is a necessity due to the anticipated transformation in this

sector as the South African Government aims to have 30% of land in the hands of black owners by the end of 2014, so training institutes like agricultural colleges must deliver appropriate, accredited training courses that will support the development of black farmers (Mokeki, 2007).

Capacity building provides the technical and managerial 'on the job' training to nominated members of the CPA. The main aim of training about land is to make sure that beneficiaries are well equipped with skills of the enterprise they are engaged in. The training will be provided as determined by the programme of action. The objective of the training is to enable the nominated members, who are employees to completely manage land, as employees of the company, for the overall benefit of the company (Martinusses, 2004 and Reitz, 2007). Capacitation is done so that the claimants or land restitution beneficiaries would be able to eventually take over management of the farms (Umlimi, 2008). The strategic partner, in carrying out the marketing, will ensure that the training and exposure of the employees appointed by the CPA enable them to conduct the marketing and export function of the Operating Company within a period of 10 years of the effective date (Deneys and Reitz, 2007). Although the strategic partners are supposed to help the CPA within a period of 10 years, The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 1995; 2002) for example, has suggested that 'a realistic time frame for organisational strengthening is over 10 years and it must be an ongoing generative learning process'.

Building capacity in people is often included as a key objective of joint ventures. Building the capacity of small scale partners involved in joint ventures is also key in the

long term and integrated response from government and other actors is also required. But sometimes due to insufficient time, resources and coherent planning, little is achieved in many projects and expectations are often not met and that makes such projects fail (Mayton, 2004).

Mentoring is a process of forming relationships between a more experienced, seasoned and wiser person (mentor) and less experienced person (mentee), where the mentor assists the mentee to achieve a specific goal or develop a specific capacity. International experience shows that farmers find it easier to learn from other farmers than from formal training for several reasons. They share same interest and challenges, and there are no barriers to co-operation (RSA, 2005(f)).

The sustainability of a project requires closing the gap not only in 'objects', human and physical capital, but also in knowledge. Knowledge complements the sustainability of the project. Improving knowledge enhances the return on capital, while additionally providing the opportunity to make use of recently acquired knowledge. Incorporating knowledge in to the sustainability of project strategy requires creating capacities to absorb and adapt knowledge, investing in technology to facilitate the dissemination of information of knowledge and creating knowledge locally (Stiglitz, 1998).

The realities of contemporary South Africa, however, are that capacity building is commonly equated with providing opportunities for individuals from previously marginalised sectors, especially given the pressure to address past inequities (Been, 2004). There are extreme limitations both on the resources available to meet these needs and on local capacity to pay for services (Khan and Haupt, 2008). This element

of capacity building is acknowledged as necessary and urgent. Capacity building is not an end in itself; it is a means to improved efficiency of performance and productivity (Been, 2004).

Been (2004) said that therefore it is required to measure capacity building in participating organisations and individuals over and beyond the duration of projects. Been (2004) uses the term 'profound change' to describe organisational change that combines inner shifts in peoples' values, aspirations and behaviour with outer shifts in processes, strategies, practices and systems. The combination of these inner and outer shifts enables organisations to build their capacity for doing things in new ways and so to sustain change after a project has run its course.

2.9.3. Support service

According to The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, (2001), a strategy of support services in irrigation inputs, rural infrastructure, human capital and research and extension plays a dominant role in influencing food supply and productivity growth.

The role of government in land and agrarian support is to finance bulk infrastructure like irrigation equipments, also to continue to support and develop research, markets, extension services and information. For land and agrarian reform to grow, adequate funding is needed and the role of potential contribution of co-operatives should not be overlooked in future (RSA (b), 2005).

Though land reform beneficiaries are supposed to get support, however people disagree as to whether enough technical agricultural support is being offered to make land reform successful.

With 45, 000 commercial farmers comprising 86% of agricultural land, most of the government's extension services are focused towards commercial farmers instead of emerging farmers who require different types of support (http://hungercenter.org/international/Leland SA Trip Report.pdf).

2.9.4. Care for the environment

According to NEMA (2008) certain human activities have a bad effect on the environment and result in a serious ecological imbalance, which can surely bring very adverse consequences for the subsistence of human beings and risk the lives of other beings; these activities are called 'ecological crimes' or 'crimes against nature'. The integrity of the natural environment is of paramount importance, not only as a background of human activities but also due to the fact that the primary resources, such as air, water and soil, are the vital substances which human lives directly depend on.

He further explains that ecological crimes are and must be thought of as a serious problem, even though the consequences of this offence may not be immediately obvious, or may have no direct victims who can be identified. What matters in this situation is the accumulation of damages, since the cumulative costs of environmental damage and the long-range toll in illness, injury and possible death are not insignificant at all. For instance, if the environment is transformed in such a way that it exceeds the

limit of its capacity of restoring its equilibrium, it may not wholly recover and ultimately human beings will most likely not benefit from it.

First of all, nature should be regarded as a background of human activities. We are living within and we are supported by it since we are utilising or consuming natural resources. It is important, because nature provides us with the primary resources, such as air, water and soil, which are resources human lives directly depend on (Boudouris, 2005). The environment has been seriously degraded over decades by structural inequality, neglect and civil unrest (Khan and Haupt, 2008).

A study done in Terblance (2005) on the use of national plant materials as agro-chemicals among small-scale farmers in three villages in Nigeria reveals that 60% of the small-scale farmers used Azadirachata indica solution extracted from fermented leaves to control cowpea pests in the field. Small-scale farmers know that this plant is non-toxic, readily available and less expensive than agrochemicals available on the open market.

According to Fourie and Schoeman (2008) agricultural production relies heavily on man-made chemicals used as fertilizers and pesticides, and to regulate plant growth. Pesticides are released intentionally into the environment to control insects, weeds, plant diseases and other pests that affect crop or animal production, as well as to control insects that spread human diseases. Pesticides have a well-established role in agriculture and public health. The benefits of their use in terms of economic returns and

of improved human health and well-being have led to the rapid world-wide adoption of this chemical technology. However, their use in advanced countries is often regulated and monitored because of potential problems associated with their injudicious use. Unfortunately many developing countries lack the experience and expertise necessary to solve such problems. Pesticides may enter man's diet in many ways, but it is not only man that is at risk. There is also considerable concern for the environment.

Natural resources such as soil and water must be considered. Non-target species must be protected from the adverse effects of pesticide residues. Pesticide efficacy and safety are thus closely linked. Efficacious use also implies economical use. Pesticides are expensive. Excess pesticide use is not only uneconomical, but may hasten the development of pesticide resistance in insects or weeds, or reduce the number of beneficial organisms.

Fourie and Schoeman (2008) further explain that stored grains, especially in times of plentiful harvests, represent a large investment, but losses caused by pests may be substantial, especially in tropical areas. Fumigants are used to control heavy infestations of pests, and insecticides may be used to prevent pests becoming established. The use of pesticides in animal production is routine. However, animal feed and the environment may be contaminated with pesticide residues.

2.9.5. Ownership

Feinberg (1995) states that land ownership is a very sensitive issue for many South Africans in the 1990s. Politicians also discuss the gravity of this issue: one member of the Democratic Party wrote that the Party "is convinced that the land issue is of the gravest importance to the future of our country and is the key to the procurement of peace and stability". A page in the *Sunday Times* carried a headline of three centimeter high letters over three stories, which emphasized the theme: "This land is our land". The articles reflected the emotional tie Africans and Afrikaners have to the land because of birth, upbringing, history and traditions.

Feinberg (1995) further examines how African landowners defended their interests against pressures from their white neighbours or the government; the author demonstrates how Africans showed persistence in seeking permission to buy land after 1913, sometimes manoeuvring reluctant government officials into approving a purchase. Another emphasis is on the topic of debt and how officials of the Native Affairs Department tried to help Africans avoid foreclosure. The ultimate aim of the article was to emphasize the complicated relationship between government officials and African landowners in an effort to suggest that the Mandela government must use caution as it evaluates claims from African owners who may have lost their land before the apartheid era.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.1. Introduction

This chapter seeks to discuss the research methodology used to collect, interpret and analysis data from various sources such as, the distribution of questionnaires, review of secondary data and observations. According to Mouton (1996) the first general principle in data collection is that the inclusion of multiple sources of data collection in a research projects is likely to increase the reliability of the findings. The term, 'triangulation' was coined to refer to the use of multiple method of data collection. The underlying assumption is that, because various method complements each other, their respective shortcomings can be balanced out.

Section 3.2 covers the research design which indicates that both a qualitative and quantitative design will be used. Section 3.3 describes the study area in terms of location, population, number of households and jurisdiction in terms of municipal area. Section 3.4 covers the population and how it is distributed while section 3.5 explains how the sampling was done, as it is the procedure by which a given number of subjects are selected in order to represent the population.

3.2. Research design

It can be appreciated that both qualitative and quantitative analyses have something to contribute to this research. There has been a recent move in social science towards multi-method or triangulation approaches which tend to reject the narrow analytical

paradigms in favour of the breadth of information which the use of more than one method may provide.

Qualitative research is a much more subjective form of research, in which the research allows participants to introduce their own bias to help form a more complete picture. Qualitative research may be necessary in situations where it is unclear what exactly is being looked for in a study, hence the researcher needs to determine what data is important and what is not. While a quantitative researcher generally knows exactly what he/she is looking for before the research begins; in qualitative research the focus of the study may become more apparent as time progresses (Brendan, 2010).

Remaining separate from the research emotionally is a key aspect of quantitative research, as it removes researcher bias. For subjects like astronomy or other hard sciences, this means that quantitative research has a very minimal amount of bias. For sociological data, this means that the extent of bias is hopefully limited to that introduced by the people being studied, which can be accounted for in models. Quantitative is ideal for testing hypotheses, and for the hard sciences trying to answer specific questions.

The aim of qualitative analysis is for a complete, detailed description to be obtained. Qualitative analysis allows for fine distinctions to be drawn because it is not necessary to condense the data into a finite number of classifications. Ambiguities, which are inherent in human language, can be recognised in the analysis

The main disadvantage of qualitative approaches is that their findings cannot be extended to wider populations with the same degree of certainty that quantitative

analyses can. This is because the findings of the research are not tested to discover whether they are statistically significant or due to chance.

In quantitative research we classify features, count them, and even construct more complex statistical models in an attempt to explain what is observed. Findings can be generalised to a larger population, and direct comparisons can be made. Thus, quantitative analysis allows us to discover which phenomena are likely to be genuine reflections of the behaviour of a language or variety, and which are merely chance occurrences.

However, the picture of the data which emerges from quantitative analysis is less rich than that obtained from qualitative analysis. For statistical purposes, classifications have to be hard and an item either belongs to class *x* or it does not. It is essential that minimum frequencies are obtained - meaning that categories may have to be collapsed into one another resulting in a loss of data richness.

3.3. Area of study

This study was conducted in Limpopo province in Makhado municipality, Vhembe district. The research concentrated on the Levubu farms. Figure 3 below shows the map of where the study was conducted. The study area is marked by a dot on the map below.

Figure 3: Limpopo province map

Source: Google

There are seven CPAs (which occupy about 258.7889 hectares of land); Ravele, Masakona, Tshakuma, Shigalo, Tshivhazwaulu, Tshitwani, Ratombo but this research will concentrate only on the Shigalo CPA.

3.4. Population

The total population of the Shigalo CPA is 915 beneficiaries. These beneficiaries make up 120 households. The research will concentrate on those beneficiaries who are 21 years and older.

Figure 4 below indicates the Shigalo population distribution.

Males	503	55%
Females	412	45%
Youth	275	30%
Adults	256	28%
Pensioners	302	33%

Disabled	82	9%
Employed	201	22%
Unemployed	714	78%
Incomes		
<R800 pm	375	41%
R800-R2 000pm	256	28%
> R2 000 pm	55	6%
None	229	25%

Source: Makhado Municipality

3.5. Sample size and selection method

The sampling method that will be used in this research is the stratified-random sampling. The population will be stratified according to age, namely, youth, adults and pensioners. This criterion was chosen because it is less discriminatory than using gender and income. Looking at the objectives of the research, this criterion will give the best results as compared to the other criteria because we are trying to deal with questions of participation, ownership, capacity building and care for the environment in order to create a sustainable project.

According to the formula given in ECSC (2009) 'Research methods and techniques', when

N<10 000

N = population size

n   **= desired sample size**

z   **= standard normal variable at the required confidence level (z statistic).**

p   **= estimated characteristic of target population**

q   **= 1 – p**

d   **= level of statistical significance set/margin of error**

The proportion of a target population with a certain characteristic is 0.50, the z-statistic is 1.96, and we desire accuracy at the 5% level of significance, then the sample size is:

$$n = z^2 pq/d^2 \qquad \text{where } z = 1.96, \quad p = 0.5, \quad q = 1 - 0.5 = 0.5, d = 0.05$$

$$= (1.96)^2 (0.5)(0.5) / (0.05)^2$$

$$= 384$$

$$n_f = n/\{(1+n/N)\}$$

$$= 384/\{(1+ 384/915)\}$$

$$= 270$$

3.6. Data collection methods

Data was collected in the form of structured research questionnaire, 270 Shigalo beneficiaries and workers were interviewed. During the data collection, eleven research assistants were appointed to help during the process.

3.6.1. Secondary data collection

- South African Land Reform Policy of 1997

- Restitution of Land Rights Act, 22 of 1994

- CPA, Act, 28 of 1996

- Business plan of Shigalo restitution claim settlement and business plans of similar events

- Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme Policy document of 2004

3.6.2. Primary data collection

- KII (Key Informant Interviews)

These are the people who were able to give valuable information about the project. This included the Chairperson of the CPA, an elder from the beneficiaries, strategic partners and representatives from the Department of Land Affairs, Regional Land Claims Commission and Department of Agriculture.

- **General interview**

These interviews were conducted with some of the beneficiaries who had benefited from the Shigalo Land Restitution project. The interviewer avoided asking questions that were not related to the study. Some of the interviewees did not understand English, so the interviewer translated the questions.

- **Checklist/ Matrices**

A checklist and/or matrix was prepared beforehand so that the researcher could identify items that should be found in the farms rather than personally going there.

- **Questionnaire administration**

The questionnaires did not have more than 20 questions. The questionnaires were closed-ended so that the results were easy to analyze. The questions were constructed in such a way that they were not misleading or ambiguous.

3.7. Data analysis methods

Data was analyzed by the micro-soft excel package, for data capturing and the analysis was performed by SPSS (Statistical package for the social science). SPSS is among the most widely used programs for statistical analysis in social science. It is used by market researchers, health researchers, survey companies, government, education researchers, marketing organizations and others. In addition to statistical analysis, data management (case selection, file reshaping, creating derived data) and data documentation (a metadata dictionary is stored in the data file) are features of the base software (Bagley, 1968).

Statistics included in the base software:

- Descriptive statistics: Cross tabulation, Frequencies, Descriptives, Explore, Descriptive Ratio Statistics

- Bivariate statistics: Means, t-test, ANOVA, Correlation (bivariate, partial, distances), Nonparametric tests.

- Prediction for numerical outcomes: Linear regression

- Prediction for identifying groups: Factor analysis, cluster analysis (two-step, K-means, hierarchical), Discriminant.

Chapter 4

Presentation and discussion of findings

4.1. Introduction

When a researcher analyses qualitative data, he/she has to sieve that data so that irrelevant information is not included in the analysis. McMillan and Schumacher (2006:364) define 'data analysis' as a process of organizing and categorizing data into patterns in an inductive way. This process involves the coding, categorizing and the interpretation of data in order to provide explanations important and relevant to the data gathered.

This chapter presents a discussion of the collected data generated from individual interviews with CPA, community members and employees of Shigalo land restitution project. It also presents a discussion of the findings of the study. It starts off by providing the general information on the participants.

4.2. General information on the participants

Equally important local participation engenders commitment which is necessary for project sustainability over the long run, and participation in the project itself becomes part of the transformation process (Stiglitz, 1998). Table 1 below indicates that 79.6% of the respondents are Shigalo beneficiaries; 20.4% are not beneficiaries; 65.9% of them are females; 34.8% are males;31-40 years are the ages of 51.9% of the respondents; 20% of the respondents are aged between 41-50 and 10.4% of the respondents are

more than 51 years. About 44.8% of the respondents are single; 38.1% are married;

12.2% were divorced, 2.6% are widows and 2.2% are widowers.

Table 1: General information of Shigalo land restitution beneficiaries

Beneficiary of Shigalo	**Variables**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
	Yes	215	79.6
	No	55	20.4
	Total	270	100
Gender			
	Male	94	34.8
	Female	176	65.9
	Total	270	270
Marital status			
	Single	121	44.8
	Married	103	38.1
	Divorced	33	12.2
	Widow	6	2.2
	Widower	7	2.6
	Total	100	100
Age	Less than 18	14	0
	19-30	48	17.2
	31-40	140	51.9
	41-50	54	20

	51 and above	28	10.4
	Total	284	99.5

Shigalo land restitution projects consist of beneficiaries of different ages and gender. It is important for the land restitution projects to balance age and gender using employment findings in the study confirms part of the point made by Stiglitz, (1998) state that equally important local participation engenders commitment which is necessary for project sustainability over the long run, and participation in the project itself becomes part of the transformation process.

4.3. Job creation by Shigalo Land Restitution projects

Agriculture is considered as the engine for development because it is the biggest employer and contributor to GNP, and through the provision of inputs for production and marketing. Through employment, poverty is alleviated, so, restitution claims projects should be supported by increasing investment, improve trade and promote private sector investment (www.sadc.int/conference). Job creation is an important aspect of poverty eradication and economic development. Table 2 shows that, 91.8% of the respondents are employed in Shigalo restitution farms, whilst only 8.2% of the respondents were not employed. It is also reflected in the Table below that 95.8% of the respondents were employed in the restitution farms, and only 2.9% were employed in the private sector.

Table 2: Employment status of beneficiaries

Employed beneficiaries	Variables	Frequency	Percentage
	Yes	248	91.8
	No	22	8.2
	Total	270	100
Place of employment			
	Private	8	2.9
	Restitution	258	95.8
	Other	1	0.4
	No response	3	1.1
	Total	270	100

The finding in the study shows that the majority of the respondents are beneficiaries of Shigalo restitution community and they are employed on the restitution farms. Agriculture is considered as the engine for development because it is the biggest employer and contributor to GNP, and through the provision of inputs for production and marketing. These findings are in line with the results reported by www.sadc.int/conference that through employment, poverty is alleviated, so, restitution claims projects should be supported by increasing investment, improve trade and promote private sector investment.

4.4. Position of the Shigalo employees

Figure 5 below show that 47% of the respondents are general workers; 29.6% are placed in Shigalo market; 4.8% are supervisors; 0.74% are managers; 8.2% are domestic workers, and 22.6% of the respondents did not respond to that question. The sustainability of the projects will be guided by empowering employees, mainly general workers. The findings in the study indicate that Shigalo restitution project has managed to create employment for some beneficiaries around Shigalo villages. Participation at community level allows the choice of a project to reflect the needs and preferences within the community; a project is then designed to reflect local information, ensuring that local conditions, preferences, and circumstances are taken into account. Equally important is that local participation engenders commitment which is necessary for important project sustainability over the long run, and participation in the project itself becomes part of the transformation process (Stiglitz, 1998). The productivity of the agricultural projects depends on the effectiveness of the workers' positions on the farms. 75.2% of the respondents were employed temporally on the restitution projects and about 24.8% were permanently employed beneficiaries as outlined during a focus group discuss with the CPA and top management of Shigalo land restitution farms.

Figure 5: Beneficiaries' work position on Shigalo restitution farms
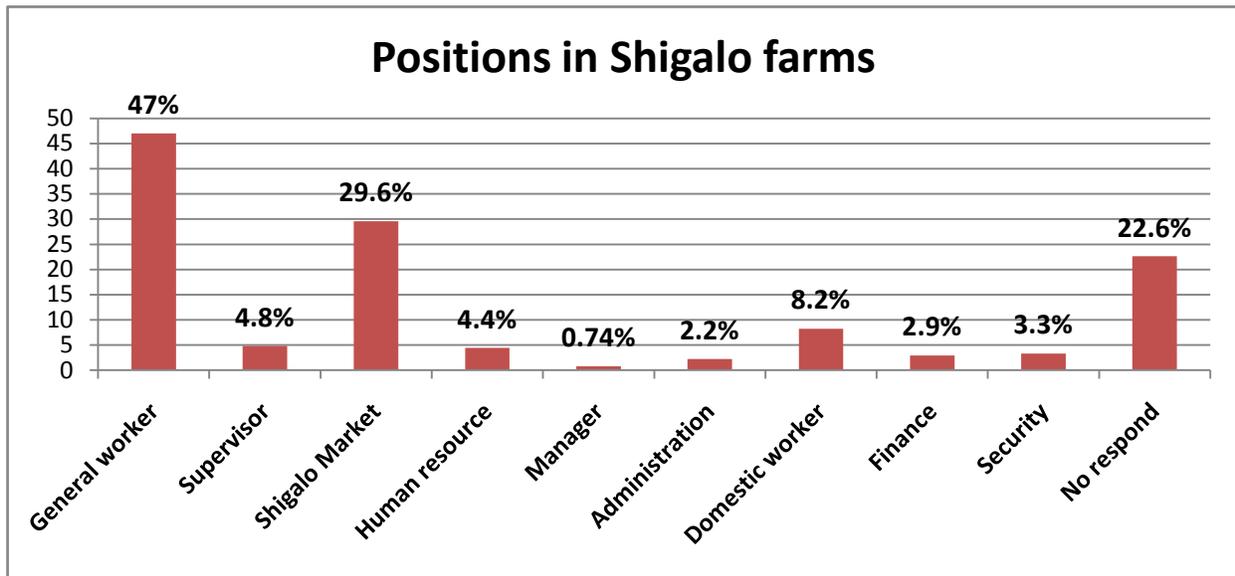
The finding in the study shows that the majority of the respondents are general workers and workers in the Shigalo market. Most of the labourers are also the heads of their households. This finding arees with of results reported by Stiglitz, (1998), Participation at community level allows the choice of a project to reflect the needs and preferences within the community; a project designed to reflect local information, ensuring that local conditions, preferences, and circumstances are taken into account. Equally important is that local participation engenders commitment which is necessary for important project sustainability over the long run, and participation in the project itself becomes part of the transformation process

4.5. Shigalo beneficiaries' income

According to RSA (2007), the majority of beneficiaries receive no material benefit from restitution. The most striking finding from the case studies revealed that the majority of beneficiaries across all restitution projects reviewed have received little, if any, tangible

benefit from restitution in the form of cash income or direct access to land. In most cases, rental income has not been passed on to members, nor would it have made a great material contribution to their livelihood, given the amount of the income in relation to the size of group. In most cases, a small sub-group of community members has benefited through access to employments, often as part of strategic partnership agreements and it appears that more highly educated members, and men, are most likely to reap these benefits. Though land reform beneficiaries are supposed to get support, however people disagree as to whether enough technical agricultural support is being offered to make land reform successful. With 45, 000 commercial farmers comprising 86% of agricultural land, most of the government's extension services are focused towards commercial farmers instead of emerging farmers who require a different type of support (http://hungercenter.org/international/Leland SA Trip Report.pdf). The income is an important aspect for the sustainability of agricultural projects. Table 3 below indicates that the majority of the respondents earn monthly salary of more than R1000 as is reflected by 68.2% of the respondents, whilst 13.7% earn monthly salary of R2000 – R3000. These range of income show constant change as indicated by 91.1% of the respondents. There were changes in the monthly income of households beneficiaries' due to fluctuating monthly salary of the respondents.

Table 3: Salary of Shigalo beneficiaries

Range of Shigalo beneficiaries salary	Variables	Frequency	Percentage
	Less than R500	10	3.7
	R500-R1000	33	12.2
	R1001-R2000	184	68.2
	R2001-R3000	37	13.7
	R3001 & above	6	2.2
	Total	270	100
Change of income trends of household beneficiaries			
	Decreasing	16	5.9
	Increasing	8	2.9
	Constant	246	91.1
	Total	270	100
Reason for change of the income trends			
	Monthly salary	29	10.7
	Increasing salary	6	2.2
	Low salary	24	8.9
	Other	2	0.74
	No response	209	77.4
	Total	270	100

The findings in the study show that the majority of the respondents receive less than R2000 per month on the restitution farms. There were no changes in household income due to no changes in the wages and this agrees with a part of results reported by RSA (2007), the majority of beneficiaries receive no material benefit from restitution. The most striking finding from the case studies revealed that the majority of beneficiaries across all restitution projects reviewed have received little, if any, tangible benefit from restitution in the form of cash income or direct access to land. In most cases, rental income has not been passed on to members, nor would it have made any great material contribution to their livelihood, given the amount of the income in relation to the size of group. In most cases, a small sub-group of community members has benefited through access to employments, often as part of strategic partnership agreements and it appears that more highly educated members, and men, are most likely to reap these benefit.

4.6. Capacity building

Botha (2009) says that capacity can be developed and maintained through mentoring, training, education, physical projects, the infusion of financial and other resources and, even more importantly, the motivation and inspiration of people to improve. Capacity building is an important aspect in the restitution farms to promote sustainability of the project. Most of the restitution land beneficiaries do not have enough skills (financial management, farm management, and marketing management, supervisory), so skill development is essential. This fact, is presented in Figure 6 below that 72.2% of the respondents had passed grades 8 -12, 12.6% have passed grade 1-7; 13.7% of the respondents have tertiary education and 1.5% do not have formal education.

Figure 6: Education background of Shigalo beneficiaries
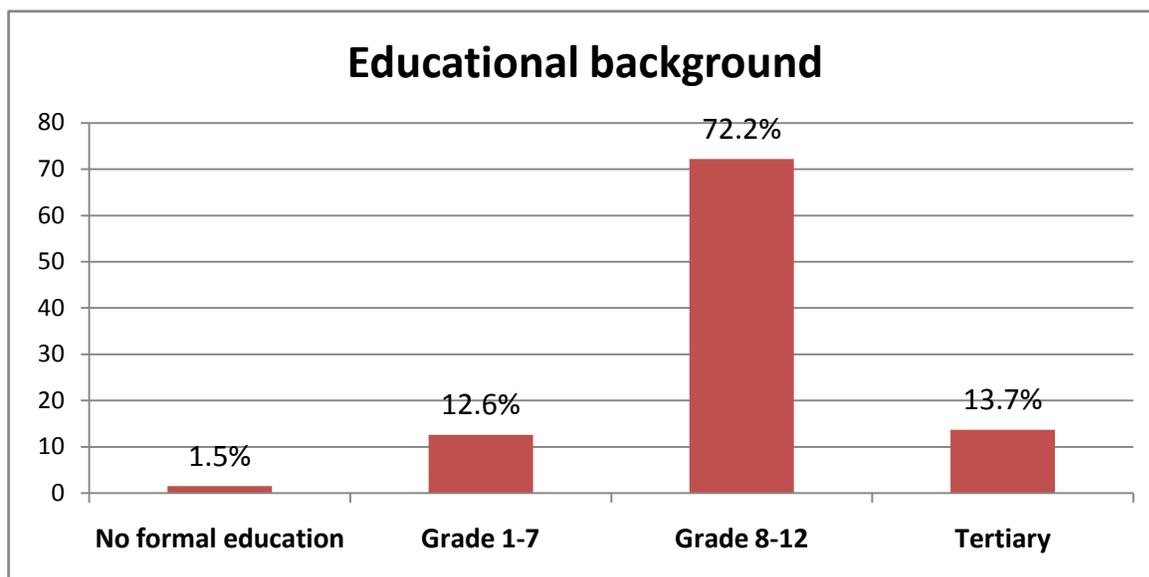
The findings to this question show that the majority of the respondents have modest educational background and agrees with the discussions by Botha (2009) that capacity can be developed and maintained through mentoring, training, education, physical projects, the infusion of financial and other resources and, even more importantly, the motivation and inspiration of people to improve.

The effective implementation of a project is possible through training, in particular the strengthening and/or development of trained human resources and institutional capacities in terms of techniques and skills necessary to carry out the assessment and management of risks. Training involves the transfer of know-how and the development of appropriate facilities (ec.europa.eu). It is outlined in Table 4 below that 39.3% of the respondents have chemical application skills, 9.3% have computer skills, whilst 7% of the respondents have farming skills. 45% of the respondents acquired their skills through formal training; about 28.9% acquired their skills from in-service training and

21.1% received their skills from informal training. Some of Shigalo beneficiaries were trained in crop production as is reflected by 35.6% of the respondents and 25.9% of the respondents were trained in pest control. There were a few managers and supervisors who need to be capacitated mostly in financial management.

Table 4: Skills of Shigalo restitution project beneficiaries

Skills of Shigalo beneficiaries	**Variables**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
	Chemical application	106	39.3
	Mechanical	19	7.0
	Computer skills	25	9.3
	Farming	19	7.0
	First aid	10	3.7
	Driving	53	19.6
	No response	38	14.1
	Total	270	100
Ways in which skill were acquired			
	In-service training	78	28.9
	Formal training	122	45.2
	Informal training	57	21.1
	No response	13	4.8
	Total	270	100
Field of training			

	Crop production	96	35.6
	Mechanical	18	6.7
	Farm management	9	3.3
	Fist aid	14	5.1
	Financial management	10	3.7
	Irrigation	4	1.5
	Pest control	70	25.9
	No response	49	18.1
	Total	270	100

The findings in the study show that the majority of the respondents have crop production skills and a few respondents have farm management skills. Skills development is a key to project sustainability and agrees with the literature that the objective of training is to enable the nominated members who are employees to completely manage land as employees of the company for the overall benefit of the company (Martinusses, 2004 and Reitz, 2007).

Capacity building provides the technical and managerial 'on the job' training to nominated members of the CPA. The main aim of training in land is to make sure that beneficiaries are well equipped with skills in the enterprise they are engaged on.

The training will be provided as determined by the programme of action (Martinusses, 2004 and Reitz, 2007). The training received by Shigalo beneficiaries were satisfactory as is reflected by 70% of the respondents in Table 5 below although 30% reported that

the training they received did not satisfy them. The majority of the beneficiaries want to be trained in farm managements as is shown by 58.5% respondents; 24.8% want training to be secretaries (Shigalo restitution project is divided into 14 portions of different commodities) ; 8.2% want to be trained in sales management; 3.3% in marketing and 1.5% in spray calibration. There were about 34.8% of the respondents who last received training 7-12 months ago, whilst 32.2% last received training more than 12 months ago.

Table 5: Other training required by Shigalo beneficiaries

Rate of training received	**Variables**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
	Satisfied	189	70
	Not satisfied	81	30
	Total	270	100
Other training required			
	Farm Manager	158	58.5
	Secretary	67	24.8
	Sales management	22	8.2
	Financial management	2	0.74
	Computer	8	2.9
	Marketing	9	3.3
	Spray calibration	4	1.5
	Total	270	100

Last training received			
	Less than 6 months	57	21.1
	7-12 months	94	34.8
	More than 12 month	87	32.2
	I don't know	32	11.9
	Total	270	100

The findings in the study shows that training received in Shigalo land restitution projects satisfied the respondents and they had received training in different field as is outlined in the above table and agrees with the literature by Umlimi, (2007) that capacitation is done so that the claimants or land restitution beneficiaries would be able to eventually take over management of the farms.

4.7. Support services received in Shigalo Land Restitution project

Tables 6 below shows that 53.3% of the respondents did not receive individual support services whilst 46.7% of the respondents received support services in the work place. The type of support that Shigalo beneficiaries received are in the form protective clothing as is reflected by 25.5% of the respondents; 71.9% of the respondents did not mention the support that they got in the workplace. In contrast to Table 6 below, 46.7% of the respondents want to receive protective clothes in the workplace; 24.8% want to receive training; 20.4% want to receive bonus, medical aid and pension fund as benefits in the workplace, and 4.8% want health & safety in the working environment.

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (2001) note that a strategy for support services in irrigation inputs, rural infrastructure, human capital and research and extension play a dominant role in influencing food supply and productivity growth.

Table 6: Support services received in Shigalo land restitution farms

Support service of Shigalo beneficiaries	**Variables**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
	Yes	126	46.7
	No	144	53.3
	Total	270	100
Type of support service received by beneficiaries			
	Protective clothing	69	25.6
	No response	194	71.9
	Health & safety	4	1.5
	Other	3	1.1
	Total	270	100
Support services that Shigalo beneficiaries want to receive			
	Protective clothing	126	46.7
	Health & safety	13	4.8

	Bursary	4	1.5
	Training	67	24.8
	Bonus, Medical, Pension	55	20.4
	No response	5	1.9
	Total	270	100

The findings in this study show that the majority of the respondents wish to receive protective clothes, bonus, medical aid, pension fund, training, health and safety services in the workplace and this also agrees with the information from The International Bank for Reconstruction and development (2001) that a strategy of support services in irrigation inputs, rural infrastructure, human capital and research and extension play a dominant role in influencing food supply and productivity growth.

Table 7 below shows that Shigalo land restitution farm workers wish to get access to various services, such as finance as indicated by 46.7% of the respondents; 24.8% training for beneficiaries; 21.9% extension services, whilst 4.8% wish to receive access to production inputs and also monitoring and evaluation skills. The land restitution projects need support services for the projects to be sustainable. Although land reform beneficiaries are supposed to get support, however people disagree as to whether enough technical agricultural support is being offered to make land reform successful (http://hungercenter.org/international/Leland SA Trip Report.PDF).

Table 7: Support services that Shigalo land restitution workers wish to receive

Support services that Shigalo land restitution workers wish to receive	Variables	Frequency	Percentage
	Access to finance	126	46.7
	Access to production inputs	13	4.8
	Extension service	59	21.9
	Training of beneficiaries	67	24.8
	Monitoring & Evaluation skills	5	1.9
	Total	270	100

The findings in this study show that for the land restitution projects to operate for long periods, they need to be supported financially, training for the beneficiaries, advisory services and also access to production inputs and infrastructure. These results agree with the points reported by RSA, (2005) that the role of government in land and agrarian support is to finance bulk infrastructure like irrigation equipments, also to continue to support and develop research, markets, extension services and information for land and agrarian reform. For the farms to grow, adequate funding is needed and the role of potential contribution of co-operatives should not be overlooked in future.

4.8. Environmental issues that affect farming

The sustainability of agricultural projects is also controlled by good agricultural practices that are environmental friendly. First of all, nature should be regarded as a background of human activities. We are living within and we are supported by it as we are utilising or consuming natural resources. Nature is important, because it provides us with the primary resources, such as air, water and soil, which are requirements that human lives directly depend on (Boudouris, 2005). Figure 7 below shows that 65.2% of the respondents were affected by drought; 12.6% were affected by frost and11.1% had a problems with veld fires.

Figure 7: Environmental issues that affect farming
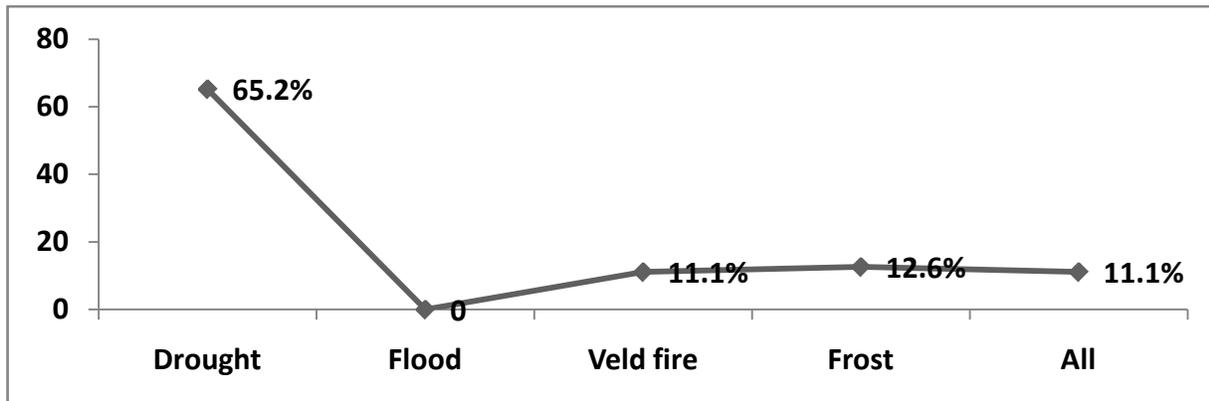
The findings in the study show that the majority of the respondents were affected by drought, frost and flood. If these environmental factors will be addressed effectively the project will also be productive. This is in line with Boudouris (2005) who notes that the integrity of the natural environment is of paramount importance, not only as a background of human activities but also due to the fact that the primary resources, such as air, water and soil, are the factors that human lives directly depend on.

Table 8 below show that 65.9% of the respondents were assisted by Department of Agriculture when they were affected by adverse environmental condition, but in co-operation with the Department of Water Affairs and Department of Land Reform.

Table 8: Stakeholders that offer support to restitution projects

Stakeholders that assist	**Variables**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
	Dept. Agriculture	178	65.9
	Dept. Water Affairs	12	4.4
	Dept. Land Reform	10	3.7
	Dept. Agriculture; Dept. Land Reform	9	3.3
	Dept. Agriculture; Dept. Land Reform	8	2.9
	All	30	11.1
	Other	0	0
	No response	23	8.5
	Total	270	100

The findings in the study show that the majority of the respondents were assisted by the Department of Agriculture and agrees with the points of Boudouris (2005) that if the environment is transformed in such a way that it exceeds the limit of its capacity for restoring its equilibrium, it may not wholly recover and ultimately human beings will most likely not benefit from it.

Chapter 5

Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1. Introduction

Most of the restitution projects are not sustainable due to poor leadership, lack of agricultural production skills, no project management skills as well as book and record keeping skill. Products of these farms were regularly exported to European market thus these enterprises have made substantial contribution to the nation's export economy and lots of people were employed on those farms for their day to day operations. This study is conducted in order to come up with strategies to sustain these projects. Levubu was well known as the fruit basket of the Limpopo province. Since the land restitution programme was initiated in Levubu, farms have lost their value in terms of agricultural production. This study will be act as a trigger to sustain most of restitution projects around South Africa.

This research attempted to explore the sustainability of land restitution projects within the South African-based land reform programme. The conclusion will concentrate on the extent of ownership and participation of the beneficiaries in Shigalo land restitution farms; the level of capacity building and it will also strengthen the environmental impact for a sustainable and productive land and the role of support services that Shigalo beneficiaries get from different stakeholders.

The main research questions answered were:

- What is the level of ownership and participation of Shigalo beneficiaries?

- What is the level of capacity building amongst Shigalo beneficiaries?

- What is the impact of the environment on Shigalo project?

- What is the level of support services to Shigalo project?

- What are the challenges and possible solutions for Shigalo project?

5.2. Conclusion

The results of the research show that the average productivity of the restitution projects is low due to lack of financial support, capacity building, high level of disease, environmental factors which affect productivity and lack of support services from relevant stakeholders. Shigalo restitution project has faced financial difficulties, this project was dependent on government grants and strategic partnership that were appointed by the Department of Agriculture to come up with the production input (skill transfer, financial management, and farm management). The strategic partnerships were appointed on the basis that they can loan money towards an operating company that was formed by both them and the CPA.

Shigalo beneficiaries depend on in-service training and there were no formal training to capacitate the beneficiaries. There is more training that is needed such as, crop production, pest control, financial management, record keeping, and farm management. Shigalo project faces drought problems, veld fire and frost in winter. The environmental issues were addressed by the Department of Agriculture, Water Affairs and Environment. The results also show that there is a great deal of variation among the household of Shigalo community in terms of income and job opportunities. The

restitution farms play a vital role in the livelihood of villagers, for the generation of income and provision of food.

5.3. Recommendation

It is recommended that CPA members should form part of the board of directors and the partnership should be constantly reviewed. In addition, the partnership should always be monitored and audited. Some kind of capacity building is recommended for the beneficiaries such as, formal training by reputable institutions. Also vital is to change the mind set of the beneficiaries not only economically and physically but also mentally for them to own the project. Beneficiaries should be given opportunity to run their own business in order to prove their capability. Insurance of the restitution project is recommended to guard against forces of nature. It is also recommended that such initiatives should be implemented after ascertaining the wishes and desires of the beneficiaries to reap the good work. Government intervention (monitoring and evaluation), technical support (training, mentorship), institutional support (financial and research) are required for the land restitution projects. Financial support (access to credit, grant and sponsorship) is recommended for the restitution projects for their growth and development and this will lead to sustained restitution projects in the Republic of South Africa.

5.4. Areas of further research

Further research is recommended on:

- On the feasibility of establishing commercial markets for the restitution farms,

- Ways and methods of inculcating ownership mentality to the beneficiaries as a route map to sustainability.

- Types of appropriate extension support and training for beneficiaries of restitution projects,

- The types of job creation and to ensure economic viability of restitution farms

- Extension education and workshop to assist farmers on record keeping and production knowledge,

- Establishment of commercial markets for the restitution projects, and

- The impact of storage on production of good quality product to sustain international trade.

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