

**Baseline study of the quality of life of Land Reform  
beneficiaries in Limpopo Province**

**A case study of Gertrudsburg**

**By**

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS

ANC	African National Congress
CLRD	Centre for Land-Related, Regional and Development Law and Policy
CPA	Communal Property Association
DLA	Department of Land Affairs
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organizations
GCPA	Gertrudsborg Communal Property Association
HSRC	Human Science Research Council
INCRA	Instituto <i>Nacional de Colonizacao e Reform Agraria</i>
LRAD	Land Redistribution for Agricultural development
NGOs	Non Governmental Organizations
LDA	Limpopo Department of Agriculture
RLCC	Regional Land Claims Commission
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
SACCAR	Southern African Centre for Cooperation in Agricultural Research
SADC	South African Development Community
S/LAG	Settlement/Land Acquisition Grant
SP	Strategic Partnership
UK	United Kingdom

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### **ABSTRACT**

During the apartheid era, Black South Africans in large numbers were forced to live in overcrowded reserves, which were impoverished, homelands and townships through decentralization. Because of the high level of poverty, people could not afford quality seeds and fertilizers for good harvests.

A government initiative known as the National Land Reform programme was established to address the issue of redressing the injustice of forced removals and historical denial to access land that was created by the apartheid policies. The initiative had to ensure security of tenure for rural dwellers, decongest overcrowding and supply of residential and productive land to the poorest section of the rural population, raise income and productivity, build the economy through the provision of support services by generating large scale employment, and increase rural incomes.

The international experience of land reform has broadened the issue of injustice and denials to access land by reversing the problems to create solutions. Land reform is a policy and legal understanding to increase access to land by giving poor people ownership rights and ensuring sustainable land use. Most of the objectives of land reform in other countries included improving the agricultural efficiency, distributing

land equitable, uplifting the standard of living, reducing poverty, and achieving equitable land redistribution.

The occurrence of land redistribution has been part of land reform in many developing countries. From land redistribution, it has been learnt that there should be greater emphasis on supporting productivity and access to input and product markets. On the other hand, land tenure reform aimed at motivating individual land ownership, increasing and protecting peoples land rights, and introducing more security by using effective system of cadastral surveys and title registration.

The source of revenue for local governments has been land taxes. Land tax does not discourage investments in land improvements. Although land reform has been unsuccessful at some point, its success has been achieved by addressing the equity in land distribution and upgrading livelihood and raising a number of successful Black agricultural producers.

Land dispossession is an ancient issue that still has an effect even in contemporary times. Because of the necessity for land reform to be utilized, it will promote equity as well as efficiency in South Africa. The equitable growth patterns created by land reform shifted income and power to the poor. Land reform promotes efficiency through redistribution of agricultural land to smallholders.

Smallholders become more efficient than large holders because they are more responsible for most farming activities. The land reform success in South Africa should be measured against its ability to address equity in land redistribution and livelihood upgrading, reduction in poverty, creation of rural employment, and income generating opportunities.

Land restitution programme is concerned with the communities who were victimised by the past racially discriminatory legislation. The programme provides specific compensation to victims of forced removals. The major outstanding issue is the level of compensation to which claimants should be entitled. A programme called tenure reform promotes security of tenure to all citizens of the country and prevents evictions

by the state or landowners. One of the aims of the tenure reform programme is to increase tenure security for about six million households.

The impact of land reform on the lives of people is that there has been an improvement on the quality of lives. Though within a restricted scale, the agricultural and non-agricultural productions are taking place; and there is better service delivery. Because of excessive bureaucracy and over centralization of the land reform programme, the implementation of the process has been slow.

A baseline study of the quality of live of land reform beneficiaries was undertaken in Limpopo Province at Gertrudsburg. The community of Gertrudsburg was forcibly removed from their land in 1963. They lodged a claim to the farm, Ledig 289 LS, in 1995 and succeeded in 2001. Gertrudsburg forms part of the Makhado Municipality in the Vhembe District. The area experiences a dry climate with consistent summer rainfall. Occasionally, summers are very hot while winters are cold.

The baseline study of Gertrudsburg has four basic steps that were followed that include determining what to measure, designing the questionnaire, fieldwork and data collection and data analysis. For the baseline study to be successful, important questions had to be answered, and the general information was gathered in a form of questionnaires and fieldwork.

Using both qualitative and quantitative approaches did data analysis. The two approaches were used in order to put more emphasis on the data of the quality of life of land reform beneficiaries. Qualitative approach has two phenomena in which one focuses on the natural settings, while the other involves studying the complexity. The quantitative approach was carried out in order to strengthen the importance of the quality of life of land reform beneficiaries.

In order for land reform and other aspects such as land redistribution to be implemented, there must be involvement with the government departments, local government, parastatal, and non-government organizations. The outcomes of land reform include reduction in poverty, change in agrarian structure, and increased

productivity. The success of the restitution process was achieved through the restoration of more than 887 000 hectares of land to more than 172 00 households.

The baseline study showed the presence of poor quality of life in Gertrudsburg. It generally indicated the basic needs of people, which are not yet accessible by others. Success in land reform is enhanced when all stakeholders are involved and when they work closely together. More attention is still needed in order to upgrade the services and facilities in Gertrudsburg.

The study generally recommends that for the improvement of the quality of life in Gertrudsburg, the following should be implemented: increment of commitment at national level to post-settlement support through conceptual, fiscal, strategic planning, monitoring and evaluation provisions; increment of the role of district and local municipality; promotion of integrated planning and implementation; introduction of project implementation support team; establishment of a provincial land reform post-settlement implementation strategy; and improvement of inter-departmental communication at project and government level. The results of the baseline study could be used for future evaluation and monitoring the improvement of the quality of life in Gertrudsburg.

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## CHAPTER 1

# INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 BACKGROUND

The social engineering that characterized the apartheid system in South Africa was directly linked to the way in which occupation of land was regulated. Land has been the key for empowering and disempowering people, and spatial segregation based on race started long before the National Party took power in 1948. This segregation was achieved through various means; *inter alia*, evictions and forced removals. It is therefore not surprising that the new democratically elected government is attempting to rectify some of the damage of the past, and among the most important are land-related issues (De Villiers, 1999).

According to Bowyer-Bower and Stoneman (2000), land reform is often viewed in moral and political terms as a necessary means by which land may be redistributed for example:

- To the landless and poor to help alleviate poverty;
- As a reward for liberation struggles;
- To help redress population-land imbalances brought about by apartheid regimes or unequal growth during colonial times;
- Or as part of a package of agrarian reform aimed at boosting agricultural outputs.

In South Africa, control of land was the backbone of apartheid. The most notorious Act, the Black Land Act of 1913, placed vast areas of South Africa under the sole control of whites, while blacks were given some traditional areas. This was followed in 1936 by the Black Trust and Land Act, which allocated 13% of South Africa to black people who constituted the majority (80%) of the population (De Villiers, 1999).

The Land Acts of 1913 and 1936, designated land areas called reserves where Africans could lawfully occupy and use (Okoth-Ogenda, 1993: 250; Sibanda, 2003). Africans could not buy or rent land outside the boundaries of the reserves. No Africans were allowed to live on white-owned land unless they were labour tenants or full-time wage-workers (Sibanda, 2003). Execution of these acts resulted in a spate of forced removals that saw thousands of sharecroppers and their families being driven off the land without alternative accommodation since the 1920s (Sibanda, 2003).

As of 1994, the new democratically elected government implemented a program of agricultural liberalization. A land reform program resting on the three pillars complemented this: tenure reform, restitution, and redistribution (Deininger, 2003).

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM**

### **1.2.1 GENERAL PROBLEM**

A large number of populations of black South Africans were forced, during the Apartheid era, into impoverished and overcrowded reserves, homelands and townships through decentralization. Because of the lack of industries or mines, this posed a serious problem as black South Africans depended on salaries for livelihood. Thus, subsistence farming was the only reliable option for most people. Because this form of farming was not backed by good access to finance to purchase quality seeds and fertilizers, it resulted in poor harvest.

National Land Reform Programme was a government initiative to address this issue by effectively redressing the injustice of forced removals and the historical denial to access land which was created by the Apartheid policies. The initiative was to ensure a number of aspects in rural areas, which includes:

- Ensuring security of tenure for rural dwellers;
- Decongesting overcrowding and supply of residential and productive land to the poorest section of the rural population;
- Raising income and productivity; and

- Building the economy through the provision of support services by generating large-scale employment and increase rural incomes (Department of Land Affairs, 1997; Miller and Pope, 2000; Palmer, 2000).

### **1.2.2 SPECIFIC PROBLEM**

Land Reform Programme tries to solve specific problem that include poverty issues, food insecurity, unemployment, lack of infrastructure and services.

The principal form of natural capital and basic livelihood asset in rural areas is land, from which people produce food to solve the problem of food insecurity. Poverty eradication in rural areas may be overcome by access to land and security of land rights. With access to land, peasants may practice subsistence farming which is their source of income generation. Farming can reduce unemployment from families having access to land which increases labour and production. Infrastructure and services are aimed to be promoted by land reform programme (Quan, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000). Since the land reform programme aims to redress imbalances, to what extent are the beneficiaries' socio-economic needs met? This question is borne out of a concern that since the land grant process has been introduced in South Africa, there are very few studies, if any, that assess the effectiveness of the programme in redressing the socio-economic conditions of the beneficiaries.

### **1.3 RESEARCH AIM**

The general aim of the study was to identify socio-economic characteristics of the beneficiaries of land reform in Gertrudsburg village, Limpopo Province. This study would act as a basis for a future evaluation of the programme in the selected case study area. More specifically, this study aims to establish the “before” scenario by identifying a range of performance variables to be used in the future to evaluate the programme. These are based on the programme's broad objectives; namely:

- Access to land
- Access to services, and

- Poverty reduction

The research question pursued is: to what extent is land redistribution programme meeting the goals of poverty reduction, access to land, and basic services?

## 1.4 METHODS AND PROCEDURES

In this study a case study method was applied to evaluate the success of land reform in the Limpopo Province. A total of 105 questionnaires were used in collecting data. A community of a village called Gertrudsburg was chosen for the implementation of the case study. Additional data were obtained from survey questionnaires that were administered through personal interviews.

Three types of questionnaires were used:

**Firstly**, household questionnaires were administered to respondents who received land reform grants. The interviews were conducted with household heads or people most aware of household characteristics and expenditure.

**Secondly**, community questionnaires were conducted with members of the management committee who understood the overall picture of the project. Examples of such respondents are the Chairman, Secretary or Treasurer.

**Thirdly**, commonage questionnaires were administered to people that have access to commonage land and formed part of a commonage project.

Sampling was done by randomly selecting respondents from households, the community and the commonage.

## **1.5 THE RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY**

Before the democratic elections in 1994, the South African liberation movements in their separate manifestos prioritised land reform programmes because of the significance attached to the solution of the land question, with the aim to enable previously disadvantaged groups' access to land (Sibanda, 2003). This study seeks to evaluate the success of land reform and provide a basis for implementation of any land reform evaluations in the future by the Department of Land Affairs (DLA) and land reform role-players. It is intended to:

- help policy makers see how far their programme has met its objectives; and
- contribute towards improving policy and performance by feeding new findings and knowledge into appropriate strategic processes.

## **1.6 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY**

The study is concerned with a certain dimension of land reform where disadvantaged groups were denied access to land. Different cases are reviewed from broad perspectives and various models of land reforms are discussed.

The study is made up of six chapters. After the introductory chapter (Chapter 1), Chapter 2 discusses the concept of land reform and extracts lessons acquired by other countries in the process of implementing their land reform programmes. The chapter also reviews South Africa's land reform programme. It further assesses the evolution of South Africa's land reform programme and its significance to the lives of beneficiaries.

Chapter 3 describes the case study area. Chapter 4 presents the baseline methodology. Chapter 5 presents the results of the questionnaire surveys and discusses the findings of the investigation. Lastly, Chapter 6 presents discussion, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

## CHAPTER 2

# CONCEPT OF LAND REFORM

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Land reform has been a subject of research both in South Africa and abroad. The aim of this chapter is to provide a theoretical framework and literature that focused on the concept of land reform. By reviewing literature from developing countries other than South Africa, the chapter sought to extract lessons acquired by these countries in the process of implementing their land reform programmes. The chapter also reviews literature on land reform in South Africa, focusing on its socio-political genesis and the challenges of implementation.

## 2.2 THE CONCEPT OF LAND REFORM

### 2.2.1 DEFINITION

Land reform is a policy and legal understanding to increase access to land by giving (mostly) poor people ownership rights and ensuring sustainable land use (Binswanger and Elgin, 1992). According to Binswanger and Elgin (1992), land reform is seen to be successful when it increases people's income, consumption and wealth and it's also said or seen to have failed if the income, consumption and wealth do not increase or are reduced.

Land reform and agrarian reform are used interchangeably. Agrarian reform tended to canvass changes of rural agriculture, such as provision of credit, extensions services, marketing and inputs reforms, improvement in both land tenure and agricultural organisation to facilitate the productive use of the land reallocated (Moyo, 1995; Martin, 1995).

The concept of land reform is widely accepted to mean the redistribution of property or rights in land for the profit of the landless, tenants and agricultural labourers (Martin, 1995; Warier, 1969). It further stated that land reform is the process of

assessing and modifying laws, regulations and customs relating to land ownership and land tenure (Stibbe and Dunkley, 1997). Lastly, land reform can also be seen as an endeavour by governments, through public policies, at either influencing a change amid states of the agrarian structure or at preventing such a change (De Janvry, 1981).

### **2.2.2 THE PURPOSE OF LAND REFORM**

According to Deininger and Binswanger (1999), there is a wide range of objectives in addressing land reform. Some regimes aimed to augment productivity and lessen poverty, while others aimed at quickening social turmoil and allaying political pressure from peasant organisation. In particular, land reform aims at changing agrarian structure (De Janvry, 1981). Below, a few countries are randomly chosen in order to understand the objectives of the land reform programmes.

In Zimbabwe, the objectives of land reform are to:

- distribute land equitably,
- improve efficiency of agriculture,
- reduce poverty and uplift the standard of living of all Zimbabweans, and
- achieve national peace and stability by equitable land redistribution (Stoneman, 2000).

In Ivory Coast and Niger, the aim is to upgrade economic growth, agricultural development and more security and incentives to develop land (Toulmin and Quan, 2000).

In Uganda, land reform seeks to promote agricultural growth and to alleviate poverty (Palmer, 2000). In Mexico, land reform was intended as reparation for the dispossession of native Mexicans in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Land was expropriated from large private landholders, without compensation and redistributed at no cost to communal holding groups called *ejidos* (Soberon-Ferrer and Whittington, 1993).

The primary objective of land reforms in West Bengal was to remove structural anomalies in the rural economy of the state. This was achieved by rectifying the land tenure system. The main thrust of the land reform programme, was to eliminate the

intermediary interests on land and to distribute the land in excess of the ceiling to the landless and the land-poor and provide them with non-land inputs so that they may stand on their own feet and make an effective contribution to the national economy (Yugandhar and Iyer, 1993).

From the literature reviewed on the purpose of land reform in different countries, it appears that the main goal of land reform is to advance the socio-economic status of the people who were previously landless. South Africa follows exactly the same goals, but it is not known whether the programme is successful or not.

## **2.3 LAND REDISTRIBUTION**

The following section describes the objectives of land redistribution as found in previous studies.

### **2.3.1 OBJECTIVES OF REDISTRIBUTION**

Land redistribution has occurred in many developing countries as part of land reform. The literature reviewed show that land redistribution is being utilized as a policy instrument to capture the efficiency benefits of the family farm, decrease urban food prices and reduce poverty.

Several countries had a variety of objectives for land redistribution. For example, land redistribution in Ethiopia aimed at reducing landlessness and equalising land holding and quality (Benin and Pender, 2002). In the case of Zimbabwe, the chief goal was resettlement of the people who had been displaced by the war, the landless, the poor, the unemployed and the destitute (Moyo, 1995). But later on, land redistribution was focusing on the landless, poor and some war veterans were considered for resettlement (Bowyer-Bower and Stoneman, 2000). Currently, the main drive for land reform was to increase the number of small and medium-scale farmers, to intensify land use as well as enlarge the scope for enhancing rural incomes (Quan, 2000).

Two other countries had different goals. In Kenya, land distribution was aimed at easing off pressure from the reserves and to resolve the problem of chaotic tenure arrangements arising from large squatter settlements in the highlands (Okoth-Ogendo,



1997). This is radically different from the objectives set out in India, for example. According to Cohen (1978,) in the late 1940s and nearly 1950s, the central objective of land reform measures in India was the abolition of Zamindari, which was another form of colonialism. This abolition was fuelled by nationalistic motivations against semi-feudal intermediaries and the absentee landlords who were the allies of the British in India (see Krishna, 2001).

In South Africa, one of the main objectives of the redistribution programme has been to ‘un-pack’ very overcrowded communal areas. While elsewhere in Africa, they share similar aims with that of Vietnam of resettling refugees, former tenants, heirs of war heroes, war veterans and also non-farmers who wish to take up that occupation (Quan, 2000; Walinsky, 1977). Although the objectives were set for South Africa in 1994, the effectiveness of the reform has not yet received attention in research.

### **2.3.2 CRITERIA FOR THE SELECTION OF LAND REFORM BENEFICIARIES**

In Colombia, selection committees were established that included workers of existing farms to select land reform beneficiaries. They were careful not to admit too many contenders from outside. A questionnaire that provided basic information on beneficiaries’ educational level, their agricultural experience (if any), their income sources, and their access to other types of government services such as education or health was drafted. Based on this, a pre-qualification-essentially a means test based on assets -was conducted (Deininger, 1999).

The Colombia criteria for selection differed from that of Mexico in that, to be eligible to receive land in Mexico, the communities had to have at least twenty households. A farmer, to be eligible to receive land as part of the community, had to be a Mexican citizen by birth, be able to personally work the land and be either male over the age of sixteen or a male or female head of household (Seberon-Ferrer and Whittington, 1993). In Brazil, the process of beneficiary selection is less formal and bureaucratic than in Colombia because landowners select former workers as beneficiaries (Deininger, 1999: 663).

In Bihar (India), there was a provision for the selection of beneficiaries through village committees, and its ratification by block level land reforms committees. These committee meetings are not called for selecting beneficiaries and the actual selecting authority, in practice was the Karamchari (union for fighting for the land), who identifies the beneficiary, records his age, caste, landholdings, residence, lands, if settled earlier either him or anyone of his family, description of land, whether the land is free from title suit, Ceding or Bhoodan (movement of fighting for the land) (Yugandhar and Iyer, 1993). In the circle office, the proposals were consolidated and sent for approval to the higher authorities. Any person owning less than two hectares of agricultural land can be settled with government land for agricultural purpose. But the area of land which may be settled with such a person is restricted by the condition that the area proposed to be settled, taken together with the area already held by him, should not exceed two hectares (Yugandhar and Iyer, 1993).

### **2.3.3 LESSONS LEARNT FROM LAND REDISTRIBUTION**

The literature on land redistribution recommends that, after redistribution, greater emphasis should be placed on supporting productivity and access to input and product markets (e.g., Quan, 2000). If infrastructure and extension services are not available, then the process does not necessarily bring increased production. Failure to redistribute rapidly generates further tensions and potential for conflict while demand led land reform often results in sporadic pockets of resettlement and poor overall planning. It is also learned that redistribution programmes are time consuming, expensive, difficult and fraught with problems (Quan, 2000).

Several countries developed supporting systems for land reform. According to Krishna, (2001) and Callison, (1983), after redistribution the state in Japan and in Mexico assumed the obligation to provide the peasants with credit facilities, credit and marketing, technical assistance, extension programs, social services and cooperatives were promoted (Krishna, 2001; Callison, 1983). In Italy under the Marshall plan, \$110 million were approved for agricultural development after the redistribution of land. Reclamation and development works were carried out and these included, among others, ploughing, erosion and flood control, irrigation dams and ditches, new roads and farm buildings. Badly eroded hillsides were being terraced and

olive, fruit and forest tree planted (Okoth-Ogendo, 1997). Given that none of these systems is available in South Africa, it is of paramount importance that the land redistribution programme be subjected to rigorous investigation.

## **2.4 LAND TENURE REFORM**

According to Adams, Sibanda and Turner (2000), land tenure reform refers to an arranged change in the terms and conditions for example, the adjustment of the terms of contracts between landowners and tenants or the conversion of more informal tenancy into formal property rights.

Objectives of tenure reform are to:

- introduce more security and this at more equitable terms, through introduction of an effective system of cadastral surveys and title registration (Cohen, 1978);
- increase and protect people's land rights;
- prevent arbitrary expulsion and landlessness (Adams et al 2000); and
- motivate individual land ownership in such a way as not to destroy the goodwill of traditional power, nor to prejudice good farming, nor to forsake such safeguards as are important for future progress of the people (Okoth-Ogendo, 1997).

Politics frequently plays a big and lawful function in tenure reform decisions. Politicians use tenure reform to construct constituencies, to undermine opponents and to realize their vision of a good society (Bruce, 1993). Land tenure reform also makes up major social surgery to originate a new socio-economic and political structure within which people were to stay and conduct their daily activities (Callison, 1983). Lack of tenure reform in Bihar (India) has an important constraint on productivity of rice and resulted in lack of investment (Yugandhar and Iyer, 1993).

## 2.5 LAND TAX

Land taxes have long been famous with economists for a diversity of reasons. They remain popular within the arsenal of land market reform policies (Carter and Mesbah, 1993).

Land taxes have long been identified as a source of own revenue for local governments that is associated with minimal distortions (Deininger, 2003). Their use promotes more efficient land use and has been used at times in an endeavour to break up large estates and to discourage concentration (Deininger, 2003; Johnson and Barlowe, 1954; Quan, 2000).

In theory, land tax as a source of revenue has several advantages: It is a direct tax. A land tax has minimal disincentive effects. It is much less regressive. A land tax does not discourage investment in land improvements. The payments of land tax provide proof of land ownership. It is a time-tested source of revenue. It contributes its due share to the state exchequer. It is possible to revive land tax (Binswanger, et al, 1993; Yugandhar and Iyer, 1993).

Binswanger, et al., (1993) and Deininger (2003) noted that managing a tax on land efficiently and fairly requires having an official record or cadastre, of the size, value and ownership status of each tract of land and its productive capacity along with information on the costs of outputs and inputs. Land tax administration also requires a property tax law that assigns property rights and tax obligations and an administration organisation that keeps the register up-to-date and assesses, collects and enforces the tax.

It has been argued by a number of authors that the implementation of progressive land taxes would be more appropriate for reducing the tendency to hold land unproductively than land ownership ceilings (Binswanger, et al., 1993; Deininger, 2003; Deininger and Feder, 2000). With progressive land taxes, the tax rate would increase with land area or value, as a means to make land speculation less attractive and to induce large landowners to use their land more intensively or to break up large

estates. Because they encourage intensive land use, land taxes could even be envisaged as a means to finance programs of redistributive land reform.

According to Deiniger and Feder (2000), experience with progressive land taxes has not been very positive, as implementation and collection have been frustrated by political difficulties, and landowners who often find ways around such taxes by establishing dummy divisions of their holdings to lobbying for exemptions from progress rates associated with effective use of the land (as in Brazil), which sharply diminish the effectiveness of progressive land taxes in breaking up large commercial farms. The progressive land tax approach was applied but failed in Argentina, Bangladesh, Brazil, Colombia and Jamaica (Binswanger, et al., 1993; Deiniger and Feder, 2000).

## **2.6 MARKET –ASSISTED APPROACH TO LAND REFORM**

The following section reviews literature that deals with market-assisted approach to land reform.

### **2.6.1 DEFINITION AND CHARACTERISTICS**

Market assisted land reform as a way of implementing land reform without coercion, has emerged in recent years as an alternative to more traditional land reform (e.g., Krishna, 2001). This approach is currently executed, notably in Kenya, Brazil, Colombia, South Africa and the Philippines. In these countries, differing terminology is used to refer to market-assisted land reform: market-friendly or negotiated land reform, land market reform, civil society demand-driven land reform and market-mediated land reform measures (Banerjee, 2000; Krishna, 2001).

Under market-assisted land reform, the state gives qualified landless people a grant or a subsidized loan to purchase land at going prices. It is like a fully compensated land reform (Banerjee, 2000; Binswanger et al 1993). Binswanger et al (1993) noted that although making beneficiaries pay for part of the land value is a useful screening mechanism, poor beneficiaries will have to be provided with a partial grant either in land or money, to help them pay for the land.

Researchers in South Africa found that negotiated land reform has been adopted in the context of the national reconstruction program, in an environment in which productive small-scale agriculture was eradicated almost a century ago (see Bowyer-Bower and Stoneman, 2000, for example). The program bears many similarities to an urban settlement project and greater effort is required to establish the decentralized infrastructure necessary to implement land reform, to provide complementary services such as marketing and technical assistance and to increase beneficiaries' entrepreneurial capacity (Bowyer-Bower and Stoneman, 2000; Krishna, 2001; Deininger, 1999).

Comparing research in on market assisted land reform in South Africa, Brazil and Colombia, the literature reveals that the state's role is limited to providing financial support mainly to individuals, trying to buy land from commercial farmers on the famous willing-buyer, willing seller basis. The potential beneficiaries are estimated at nearly one million landless workers, 200 000 labour tenants and as many as 7-8 million blacks in the reserves (Bowyer-Bower and Stoneman, 2000; Krishna, 2001; Deininger, 1999).

One of the problems of market-assisted land reform as noted by Bowyer-Bower and Stoneman (2000) in South Africa is similar with that of Zimbabwe in 1980 in that it is historical. According to Bowyer-Bower and Stoneman (2000), reform in both countries ignores all that has gone before and it also ignores the current reality that power on the ground still resides very much with the white commercial farmers (organised agriculture) who are in a position to dictate terms and price to would-be buyers and whose lack of enthusiasm for redistribution is well known.

The market-assisted approach is demand- rather than supply-driven, which means that areas and production systems are matched with beneficiaries' capacity and plans; and they must show ability to make good use of public funds. The potential beneficiaries decide whether they want to go through the various bureaucratic processes that they would need to before they get the land. Beneficiaries are obliged to come up with a productive project before approval of the purchase grant, a plan on

how to develop the land, identification of marketing channels etc (Banerjee, 2000; Reyes, 1999).

According to Reyes (1999), negotiated land reform performs better than the expropriative and administrative types because it is cooperative rather than confrontational. It encourages beneficiary initiative and participation. It utilizes capacity of local government and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). It builds on markets rather than work against them.

### **2.6.2 MARKET-ASSISTED LAND REFORM IN LATIN AMERICA**

The goal of market-assisted land reform in Colombia as noted by Deininger (1999) was to establish viable productive projects that would provide full employment of the family's labour force throughout the year. To create viable agricultural enterprises, rather than a "rural proletariat", a target income from full-time agriculture was legally required.

More recently, a programme of negotiated land reform has been in progress in Brazil. It was driven by individual states' initiatives. The purpose was to establish cheaper, more agile policy alternatives to centralised land reform in an environment where the issue of land reform is high on the political agenda and potential beneficiaries have an idea of what to do with the land (Deininger, 1999).

In 1999 FAO (Food and Agriculture Organisation) study in Brazil estimated the number of families who are potential candidates for land reform at 2.5 million. A land reform institute INCRA (*Instituto Nacional de colonizacao e Reform Agraria*) was established in 1969, distributing 10 million hectares to 200,000 families and colonizing about 14 million hectares for about 75,000 beneficiary families since then (Deininger, 1999).

Through this programme in Brazil, community groups on a willing seller – willing buyer basis, select land. Landlords are paid cash. The government role is to ensure that there are no problems with the land titles and that the price negotiated between community groups and landlords is within acceptable boundaries. Technical

assistance is provided on a strictly demand-driven basis. Beneficiaries under this process have access to a subsidized loan under a special programme (Deininger, 1999).

This programme consists of two main schemes. One involves the transfer to rural workers of property titles to land purchased by the government. The other provides credit services to beneficiaries. The programme is monitored and evaluated by a national committee. Available information suggests that landlords sell low quality land and that the complex administrative and legal procedures are very slow and costly (Krishna, 2001).

The challenge faced by this programme in Brazil as noted by Krishna (2001) is to resolve the four critical problems experienced in Brazil that is:

- High land concentration,
- High landlessness (39 per cent of total rural population),
- High incidence of rural poverty (73 per cent of total rural population), and
- Highly skewed income distribution, whereby the share of the richest 20 per cent of households is over 30 times that of the poorest 20 per cent.

### **2.6.3 CRITICISMS AGAINST THE MARKET-ASSISTED APPROACH**

Market-assisted land reform programmes are heavily criticized by local NGOs in Philippines and Indonesia. These NGOs are focusing on the negative impacts of the programmes. In these countries, for instance, it is said that instead of benefiting small producers, market-assisted land reforms have served to tighten the hold of powerful landowner and commercial enterprises backed by the government and ironically have helped them gain access to even more land through market mechanisms.

In Brazil, market-assisted programmes are considered as tending to seek revenge manoeuvre by the government. Landed interests and financial institutions tended to weaken the organised popular demands for radical land reform in the country (Krishna, 2001).

Market-assisted land reform measures lost political momentum in many developing countries during the past two decades. This was in part due to economic difficulties,



for example, debt burden, budget deficit and reduced public spending resulting from structural adjustment programmes (Krishna, 2001).

One country to call for radical land reforms in the 1980s due to budget constraints was Zimbabwe. After independence in 1980, land redistribution was occurring on 'willing-buyer, willing-seller' basis (as defined by the Lancaster House Agreement). In this first ten years, 3 million hectares of commercial farmland was purchased by the government at market value, assisted by grants from the UK (United Kingdom) government (UK funds to be met 50:50 by the government of Zimbabwe, including the 1981 Land Resettlement Grant, which expired in 1996) (Bowyer-Bower and Stoneman, 2000). The government had no cash to purchase the land owned by white commercial farmers on the open market. Due to Lancaster House Agreement with Britain, government was prevented from expropriating commercial farms without payment until April 1990. In November 1997, attempts were made by the government to accelerate the pace of reform by gazetting 1471 farms for immediate compulsory acquisition and with only partial compensation for infrastructural developments on the land. This proposal was commonly called "land grab" (Bowyer-Bower and Stoneman, 2000; Krishna, 2001).

In the first 10-15 years after independence in 1963, the planner in Kenya was occupied with the settlement of Africans on high potential land distanced from Africans in the early years of the century. This programme covered 1,25 million acres and absorbed a large portion of the staff and money available for agricultural development. On land formerly occupied by white settlers which constituted one million acre, 34 000 families were settled in 135 new settlements that took place. UK and other donors contributed with additional finance for this programme (Martin, 1995).

Empirical studies show that in Kenya's Nyanza province, for example, only three per cent of all land owned in 1990 was purchased in the open market by large farmers and government officials, while the remaining land was inherited. Small farmers, landless workers and poor peasants were faced with an obstacle of collateral (in the form of land) when seeking loans from both commercial banks and agricultural cooperatives for the purchase of land in the open market. In one study it is shown that Kenya's

individualization of customary tenure on economic efficiency grounds has resulted in landlessness and loss of food security, more especially by women (Krishna, 2001).

In Colombia law no. 160 of 1994, was passed to allow for a more decentralized and demand-driven land reform process. The government expressed determination to distribute one million hectares within four years. The Colombian Land Reform Law provides for a land purchase grant. Potential buyers of land were granted 70 % of the negotiated land purchase price, up to a maximum that was based on historical land reform allocations (Deininger, 1999; Krishna, 2001). High prices imposed by violent coercion from landlords and narcotic dealers made this programme's success to be limited. The refusal of willing buyers to purchase land in any locality and cumbersome bureaucracy also contributed to this limited success. According to one study, it was found that most land buyers were urban, transaction costs were prohibitive for small peasants and that transfer of property rights through the existing market mechanisms had failed to shift to poor peasants (Deininger, 1999; Krishna, 2001).

#### **2.6.4 LESSONS FROM MARKET-ASSISTED LAND REFORM**

According to Deininger (1999), negotiated land reform requires beneficiaries to take considerable initiative and perform tasks such as group formation, selection of a viable form model, adaptation of general model to the condition of a specific farm, identification of the productive value of at least a number of farms available for sale, negotiation of a purchase price with the farm owner, arrangement for a credit to finance the land and capital requirements that are not covered by the purchase grant, formulation of a strategy to establish needed on-farm infrastructure and eventually cope with the challenges and risks associated with sustaining an economically viable farm enterprise.

Land reform through negotiation can only succeed if measures are taken to make the market for land sales and rental more transparent and fluid. Productive projects must be a core element of market-assisted land reform. Effective co-ordination of the various entities involved in this process can be achieved through demand-driven and decentralised implementation. The long run success of land reform is likely to depend

critically on getting the private sector involved in implementation and the ability to utilize the land purchase grant to “crowd in” private money (Deininger, 1999).

## **2.7 FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO THE FAILURE AND SUCCESS OF LAND REFORM**

This section broadly reviews literature on factors that contribute to failure and to success of land reform.

### **2.7.1 CAUSES FOR THE FAILURE OF LAND REFORM**

A review of unsuccessful land reform programmes indicated the following reasons for failure (Yugandhar and Iyer, 1993). According to Yugandhar and Iyer, (1993), the failure of land reforms in Bihar (India) is because of the strong persistence of feudalism and semi-feudalism in the state. In Colombia the problem was related to the lack of access to credit and output markets. The absence of a fully funded plan to undertake the investments needed to convert the large farm into an enterprise suitable for small farmer cultivation and the lack of funds to carry beneficiaries through to the first harvest (Deininger, 1999)

Another cause is the failure to bring in additional resources to provide for simple tasks like cleaning of pastures, fencing, and construction of basic infrastructure etc., during the start-up phase and to ensure the availability of productive assets and technical assistance to go with the land. Land reform beneficiaries are rarely accustomed to making independent entrepreneurial decisions. Difficulties in obtaining training and technical assistance by land reform beneficiaries also contributed to the failure of land reform (Deininger, 1999).

Other obstacles to the participation in the land redistribution are that participating households must have abundant free household labour time and considerable farming skills or experience. They must be willing to bear the risks of farming in areas unknown to them and to pay potentially high up-front costs out of their pocket (Zimmerman, 2000).

### **2.7.2 ELEMENTS OF SUCCESS OF LAND REFORM**

Success of land reform depends on the form of production into which it is introduced. It also depends on getting the private sector involved in implementation and the ability to utilize the land purchase grant to “crowd in” private money (Deininger, 1999) and commitment of political leaders (Yugandhar and Iyer, 1993). Zimmerman (2000) noted that success with land reform is most likely when farmers work on land they are familiar with.

Success of land reform programme in South Africa should be tested against its ability to address equity in land distribution and livelihood upgrading, reduction of poverty, creation of rural employment and income-generating opportunities, **inter alia** raising the number of successful black agricultural producers and enhancing overall productivity, whilst maintaining sustainable natural resource management and utilisation (Van Zyl, Kirsten and Binswanger, 1996).

### **2.8 REVIEW OF SOUTH AFRICA’S LAND REFORM PROGRAMME**

This section provides a review of literature that evaluates the development of South Africa’s land reform programme and its significance to the lives of beneficiaries.

### **2.9 HISTORICAL SITUATION OF LAND DISPOSSESSION**

According to Sibanda (2003), the history of land dispossession in South Africa goes back to the time when Jan Van Riebeeck landed in the Cape in 1652. Following the initial settlement of the white people in the Cape from Holland and later Great Britain, large-scale dispossession of the indigenous people of their land took place. The aim was to control and dominate black majority of this country. By the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, millions of African people were displaced from their ancestral land and pushed into smaller and poorer patches of land (Department of Land Affairs, 1997; Okoth-Ogendo, 1993).

The white people worked out a system of “native” control, which they later perfected and legislated in the form of the 1910 Act of Union and the Native Land Act of 1913. Under the Native Land Act of 1913, the reserves became the only areas where Africans could lawfully occupy, use and have access to land (Okoth-Ogendo, 1993; Sibanda, 2003). In 1936, the enactment of the Development Trust and Land Act of 1936 sealed the compromise of the allocation of land to the reserves (Sibanda, 2003).

When the National Party government came into power in 1948, it started to review the so-called “native” policy. The review resulted in the introduction of the separate development policy. In 1959, the promotion of Bantu Self-government Act was promulgated to establish the Bantustans. Africans were divided along ethnic lines and grouped together accordingly to form what was called ‘separate self government Bantu national units’. This system entrenched the position of traditional leaders and headmen as colonial and apartheid agents of indirect rule (Sibanda, 2003).

The implementation of separate development resulted in the second spate of mass forced removals, which took place from the 1960s through to the 1980s. Africans in ‘black spots’ (areas where Africans had acquired freehold title to their land outside the Bantustans) were forced to move to the Bantustans. About 3.5 million people were removed from urban and white rural areas including ‘black spots’ areas into Bantustans (Sibanda, 2003).

## **2.10 WHY IS LAND REFORM NECESSARY IN SOUTH AFRICA?**

There is considerable evidence that land reform may promote equity as well as efficiency in South Africa. According to Van Zyl, et al (1996), land reform will lead to equality of opportunity, which starts, from the present distribution of rights, privileges, wealth and power. In addition, land reform can promote more equitable patterns of growth, which shift income and power to the poor. This can generate multiplier effects by stimulating employment in urban and industrial development, as a result of the growing consumer demands of increasingly prosperous smallholder farmers (Quan, 2000). Giving the rural poor productive assets, notably land, will

promote equity and enable them to get more credit and better insurance, which in turn, will help them to invest more effectively (Banerjee, 2000).

The efficiency argument for land reform is that the redistribution of agricultural land to smallholders will increase total factor productivity and efficiency in the farmers' term (Van Zyl et al., 1996). Smallholder farmers may use land much more profitably and lead to more economic growth than do commercial farmers. One example is that smallholder farmers apply inputs much more intensively than commercial farmers (Van Zyl, 1996).

Finally, equitable distribution and efficient use of land are indispensable for rural development, for the mobilisation of human resources, for increased production and for the alleviation of poverty (De Janvry, 1981).

### **2.10.1 WHY ARE SMALL FARMS MORE EFFICIENT THAN LARGE FARMS?**

The reason why small farms are more efficient is that large farms have lower productivity because they use hired labour. Smaller family farms, on the other hand, use family workers who are cheaper and more efficient than hired workers (Binswanger and Elgin, 1992). They have better land (Banerjee, 2000) and also use few inputs (Cohen, 1978).

In Sub-Saharan Africa farmers rely primarily on family labour (Ngqangweni, 2000) because family labour obtains a share of profits and therefore have more encouragement than hired waged workers. There are no hiring and search cost for family labour. And each family labour takes a share of the gamble (Binswanger and Elgin, 1992). For the rest of Africa and other developing countries, it was discovered that smallholders are more responsible for most farming activities. They adapted agricultural strategies to achieve high productivity on scarce resources (that is land) through greater application of the abundant resources (that is labour) (Ngqangweni, 2000). Through smallholder farming the production growth has been generally impressive (Delgado, 1997).

## **2.11 HOW SHOULD LAND REFORM SUCCESS IN SOUTH AFRICA BE MEASURED?**

According to Van Zyl, et al (1996), the success of land reform programme in South Africa should be tested against its ability to address equity in land redistribution and livelihood upgrading, reduction of poverty, creation of rural employment and income-generating opportunities, inter alia, by raising the number of successful black agricultural producers and enhancing overall productivity, whilst maintaining sustainable natural resource management and utilisation.

## **2.12 A NEW LAND REFORM PROGRAMME FOR SOUTH AFRICA**

A new land reform programme started soon after the 1990 unbanning of black liberation movements and the release of political prisoners (De Villiers, 1999). The Native Land Act of 1913 was repealed in 1993. The government that entered power following the 1994 elections was left with the momentous task of a comprehensive reversal of these policies and their consequences (Deininger, 1999).

Prior to the elections in 1994, the African National Congress (ANC) set out its proposals for land reform in the policy framework for the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). It stated that national land reform programme was to be the central and driving force of a programme of rural development (Department of Land Affairs, 1997; Palmer, 2000).

According to the Department of Land Affairs (1997); Palmer (2000) and Van Rooyen et al (1998), land reform programme aims to effectively redress the injustices of forced removals and the historical denial of access to land; ensure security of tenure for rural dwellers; eliminate overcrowding and the supply of residential and productive land to the poorest section of the rural population; to raise incomes and productivity; and implementing provision of support services. The government will build the economy by generating large-scale employment and increase rural incomes.

## **2.13 THE PILLARS OF THE LAND REFORM PROGRAMME IN SOUTH AFRICA**

According to Deininger (2003), the case of South Africa illustrates that land reform is one of a number of ways to increase access to land and productive assets by the poor. When constitutional reforms were instituted in 1995, the white minority population represented nearly one-tenth of the total-owned most of the agricultural land (83 per cent). In contrast, native Africans representing 77% of the country's population of 41 million (1993 data on the distribution of family consumption), accounted for 61% of all the poor, including 31% of rural households who were landless and who had no grazing rights (Krishna, 2001).

As from 1994, South Africa began implementing a program of agricultural liberalization. This was complemented by a land reform programme resting on the three pillars of tenure reform, restitution, and redistribution (Deininger, 2003).

### **2.13.1 LAND RESTITUTION**

Land restitution programme deals with persons or communities dispossessed in the past by racially discriminatory legislation. The programme is a direct response to the negotiated political settlement concluded in 1994 (Meyer, 1998; Sibanda, 2003). In giving effect to this political negotiated settlement, Section 25(7) of the South African Constitution states that: "a person or community dispossessed of property after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled to the extent provided by an Act of Parliament, either to restitution of that property or to equitable redress".

This programme provides specific compensation to victims of forced 'black spot removals', that is, wholesale eviction of black farmers located in white areas undertaken since 19 June 1913. Cases, which had to be lodged before the end of 1998, are dealt with by a Land Claims Court and Commission, established under the Restitution of Land Rights Act, 22 of 1994 (Deininger, 2003; Deininger and May, 2000; Department of Land Affairs, 1997; Miller and Pope, 2000, Krishna, 2001; Palmer, 2000).



According to Palmer (2000), by the cut-off date in March 1999, over 60 000 claims by groups and individuals had been lodged. By March 2000, some 1,450 property claims, mostly in urban areas, had been settled and about 300 rejected. Amendments to the Act in 1999 provided for simpler administrative processes for the resolution of cases. A major outstanding issue is the level of compensation to which claimants should be entitled. The high cost of compensation is in danger of swallowing up the budget at the cost of other land reform components. Furthermore, the need for written documentation of land ownership implies that the restitution programme is heavily biased in favour of urban areas, which account for more than 90% of the cases lodged (Deininger and May, 2000).

### **2.13.2 TENURE REFORM**

This programme seeks to promote security of tenure for all South African citizens and to prevent arbitrary evictions by the state or landowners. It further enables individuals or groups to earn the benefit of their property and enjoy recognition and protection. Like the restitution and redistribution programmes, it has its foundation in the Constitution (Meyer, 1998; Kirsten et al, 1996 and Sibanda, 2003).

Section 25(6) of the South African Constitution (1996), guarantees that a person or community whose tenure of land is legally insecure as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided by an Act of Parliament, either to tenure which is legally secure or comparable redress. Section 25(9) reinforces the obligation on government to legislate so that tenure can be legally secure for the persons referred to in Section 25(6).

The White Paper (1997) describes tenure reform as a particularly complex process. It involves interests in land and the form that these interests should take. In South Africa, tenure reform must address difficult problems created in the past. The solutions to these problems may entail new systems of land holding, land rights and forms of ownership and therefore have far-reaching implications.

Land tenure security for strengthening tenants lease rights and the protection of customary land tenure arrangements, with emphasis on the rights of women (Krishna, 2001). Currently the Department of land Affairs (DLA) is having some goals to meet

the demand of about 10-15% for people with insecure tenure and this is about 600 000 to 900 000 households (Deininger and May, 2000). The aims are to increase tenure security for about 6 million households, 3,9 million in former homelands, 0,8 million permanent farm workers and 1,3 million households in informal and squatter housing in and around urban areas (Deininger, 2003) and to accommodate diverse forms of tenure, including communal tenure (Palmer, 2000).

Various pieces of new or relatively new legislation are intended to play a role in the tenure reform process. For example, the Communal Property Associations Act of 1996 enables a group of people to acquire, hold and manage property under a written constitution. The Land Reform (Labour Tenants) Act 3 of 1996 provides for the purchase of land by labour tenants and the provision of a subsidy for that purpose. The Extension of Security of Tenure Act 62 of 1997 helps people to obtain stronger rights to the land on which they are living or on land close by. It also lays down certain steps that owners and persons in charge of the land must follow before they can evict people. The Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act 1996 protects those with insecure tenure pending longer-term reforms (Palmer, 2000).

The proposed Land Rights Bill of 1998, covering the rights of people living on state land in the former homelands, was to finalise the programme of tenure reform set out in the 1997 White Paper on South African Land Policy (Palmer, 2000). Tenure Newsletter (July, 2004) indicated that President Thabo Mbeki signed a Communal Land Rights Bill into law on Wednesday, 14 July 2004. This piece of legislation is now the Communal Land Rights Act, 2004 (Act No. 11 of 2004).

Amongst other things, the Communal Land Rights Act No. 11, (2004) provides for legal secure tenure by transferring communal land, including KwaZulu–Natal Ingonyama Trust land, to communities, or by awarding comparable redress; to provide for the conduct of a land rights enquiry to determine the transition from old order rights to new order rights; to provide for the democratic administration of communal land by communities; to provide for Land Rights Boards; to provide for co-operation performance of municipal functions on communal land; to amend or repeal certain laws; and to provide for matters incidental thereto.

### **2.13.3 LAND REDISTRIBUTION**

It can be said that the redistribution leg of the land reform strategy is less about actual legal change and more about the facilitation of access to land (Miller and Pope, 2000). This interpretation would be compatible with the meaning of Section 25(5) of the South African Constitution of 1996, which requires the state to take reasonable legislative and other measures, within available resources, to foster conditions, which enable citizens to gain access to land on an equitable basis (Meyer, 1998).

The aim of the programme of redistributive land reform is to provide the poor with land for residential and productive purpose in order to improve their livelihoods. Its scope includes the urban and rural poor, labour tenants, farm workers as well as new entrants to agriculture (Miller and Pope, 2000; Palmer, 2000; Van Rooyen, et al, 1998 and White Paper on South African Land Policy, 1997). It provides opportunities for the large number of black households who wanted to gain access to land but did not have specific documentation to enter the restitution program, were eligible to benefit from tenure reform (Deininger, 2003; Deininger and May, 2000).

Land redistribution is carried out by way of market-based property title transfer between willing buyers and willing sellers, with government financial support; the potential beneficiaries are estimated at nearly one million landless workers and 200 000 tenants (Krishna, 2001).

Originally the programme provided a grant of up to about R 16 000 (The Settlement/Land Acquisition Grant or S/LAG) per household equal to the maximum subsidy under the National Housing Program (Deininger, 2003; Deininger and May 2000). The government set very ambitious targets for land redistribution aiming to transfer 30% of South Africa's 99, 07 million hectare farmland or 29,72 million hectares, to about 3 million people between 1994 and 1999. After three years of operation, about 700 000 hectares were provided to over 55 000 households by the end of 1999 (Deininger and May, 2000; Palmer, 2000).

Various pieces of new legislation are intended to play a role in the redistribution process for example, the Communal Property Associations Act 28 of 1996. Under this Act communities are expected to pool their resources to negotiate, buy and jointly

hold land under a formal title deed. The multi-faceted Development Facilitation Act 67 of 1995 has a major role to play in the redistribution process by introducing measures to speed up land development, specially the provision of serviced land for low income housing as well as introducing the concept of ‘initial ownership’, unknown to Common Law (Miller and Pope, 2000).

#### **2.13.3.1 THE SETTLEMENT/ LAND ACQUISITION GRANT (S/LAG)**

The S/LAG was aimed at making it possible for poor and disadvantaged people to buy land. The grant was set at R 16 000 per household for the purchase of land directly from willing sellers, including the state, acquisition of items, enhancement of tenure rights and investments in internal infrastructure, top structure and fencing, according to beneficiary plans (Kirsten et al, 1996 and White Paper on South African Land Policy, 1997).

#### **2.13.3.2 LAND REDISTRIBUTION FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT (LRAD)**

LRAD is another sub-programme of the land redistribution programme designed to provide grants to previously disadvantaged groups including Africans, Coloureds and Indians to access land specifically for agricultural purposes. The strategic objectives of the sub-programme include: contributing to the redistribution of 30% of the country’s commercial agricultural land (i.e. formerly white ‘commercial farmland’) over 15 years; improving nutrition and incomes of the rural poor who want to farm on any scale; de-congesting overcrowded former homeland areas; and expanding opportunities for women and young people who stay in rural areas (Ministry for Agriculture and Land Affairs, 2001).

Under LRAD, beneficiaries can access a range of grants between R 20 000 to R 100 000 depending on the amount of their own contribution in kind, labour and /or cash. Beneficiaries must provide an own contribution of at least R 5 000. The grant and own contribution are calculated on per individual adult basis (18 years and older). If people apply as a group, the own condition and total grant are both scaled up to the number of individuals represented in the group. The approval of the grants is based on

the viability of the proposed project, which takes into account total project costs and projected profitability (Ministry for Agriculture and Land Affairs, 2001).

## **2.14 OVERALL ASSESSMENT OF THE IMPACT OF LAND REFORM PROGRAMME ON THE LIVES OF BENEFICIARIES**

Research shows that it is still an empirical question as to how much land reform programme has contributed to the improvement of the quality of life of the beneficiaries, on the reinforcement of the position of women in the ownership, allocation, use of and access to land and the achievements of an integrated rural development programme. A study commissioned by the Department of Land Affairs (DLA) shows that there has been an improvement in both the performance and impact of land reform programme, as in the improvement of the quality of the life of the broad masses of the people in the reformed sector since the previous monitoring and evaluation activities were undertaken in 1998 (Sibanda, 2003). The empirical study by Sibanda shows that

- the rate of delivery has improved;
- the targeting of the most vulnerable sections of rural society has taken place;
- both agricultural and non-agricultural productions are happening though on a restricted scale;
- service delivery directed to land reform beneficiaries is better than the services provided to the entire rural population; and
- there is less evidence of institutional problems this time around compared to what was acquired before in the 1998 land reform programme activity appraisal (Sibanda, 2003).

## **2.15 REMAINING CHALLENGES**

The land reform programme has been implemented with a strong political commitment and partnership between the NGOs and Ministry for Agriculture and Land Affairs (Krishna, 2001). However, implementation has been slow due to a

combination of excessive bureaucracy and over-centralization of the process and legal challenges, owing partly to still rigid radical land reforms (Kirsten, et al, 2000). Exorbitant land prices, which are negotiated from very unequal bargaining positions in face-to-face encounters between the many poor peasants willing to buy and few powerful landowners, remain the obstacle too (Krishna, 2001). According to Krishna (2001) these and other obstacles are manifested in the fact that merely 7.5 % of all potential land buyers had completed transactions in the pilot area (of all nine provinces) by July 1997. The slow progress is also reflected in the fact that only one-fifth of the beneficiaries are provided with basic services, and that support for production following land transfers is still lacking.

### **2.15.1 KEY CHALLENGES IN RESTITUTION**

To date, there is no systematic review of the impact of restitution on the livelihoods of beneficiaries has been done. But case studies have revealed some major problems such as inadequate infrastructural development, poor service provision and lastly unrealistic business planning. The cost of restitution is another major challenge, which needs to be investigated (Sibanda, 2001)

### **2.15.2 KEY CHALLENGES IN TENURE SECURITY**

Land tenure reform has been the slowest and most difficult aspect of the land reform programme to date under Land Reform (Labour Tenants) Act No. 3 of 1996. Department of Land Affairs' (DLA) ability to act on this is restricted as noted by Sibanda (2001) by the following issues: limited capacity within the DLA itself and changes in Legal Aid Board tariffs, coupled with the closure of the Independent Mediation Services of South Africa.

Research has shown an increase in illegal evictions and a decrease in legal evictions. Extension of Security of Tenure Act (Act 62 of 1997) has had little success in preventing these illegal evictions and a decrease in legal evictions due to disregard for the law by land owners (Sibanda, 2001).

### **2.15.3 KEY CHALLENGES IN LAND REDISTRIBUTION**

Various problems experienced by land redistribution programme have increasingly become evident. According to Sibanda (2001), these included the inexperience of

DLA officials in conducting land transactions, leading to lengthy delays and loss of interest from sellers; reliance on current land owners to decide the price of land; weak co-ordination with provincial department of agriculture and local government leading to poorly designed projects and lack of post-settlement support; unwieldy endorsement technique that needed ministerial approval for every project and the imposition of irrelevant plans on needy communities.

## **2.16 CONCLUSION**

This chapter reviewed key concepts pertaining to land reform, its objectives, challenges as studied in Africa and other developing countries such as Mexico, Brazil and India. There seems to be slightly variations on the objectives of land reform, but the general view is that reform attempts to address the socio-economic status of those who were previously dispossessed of their land. Secondly, the chapter provided a synopsis of the history of land reform in South Africa, where the case study is carried out, the challenges of restitution and redistribution and tenure reform as legislated in the new socio-political dispensation. The main finding in the literature is that there has never been a systematic enquiry on the effectiveness of land reform programme among the beneficiaries. It is in the light of this knowledge gap that the present study seeks to investigate the conditions of the land grant beneficiaries in a selected community in the Makhado Local Municipality to fill the gap and provide a basis for future evaluation studies.

## CHAPTER 3

# DESCRIPTION OF GERTRUDSBURG

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Gertrudsburg village was selected as the case study for the conditions of the land grant beneficiaries. The aim of the chapter is to provide vivid description of the case and to justify why it is a necessary case for assessment of land redistribution programme.

### 3.2 BACKGROUND

In May 1963, the Gertrudsburg community were forcibly removed from land they had occupied since 1863 to a farm known as Zaamkomste by the past regime. Others were settled in the neighbouring areas. The land was allocated to white farmers who established a farm in 1963 called Ledig 289 LS. Members of the community say they were deprived of their land rights in the furtherance of discriminatory policies and practices. They were removed from the land against their will and no compensation was ever paid to them.

After the 1994 elections, these people formed the Gertrudsburg Communal Property Association (GCPA) and a committee under a chairman was also formed. They lodged a land claim to the farm Ledig 289 LS on the 22 May 1995. After seven years of battle to get their land back, they succeeded on the 28<sup>th</sup> November 2001. According to Mbusedzo Newsletter (2003), the total number of beneficiaries is 6 180 and the number of households is 1 030. The total grant award is R7 973 200.00 (see table 3.1).

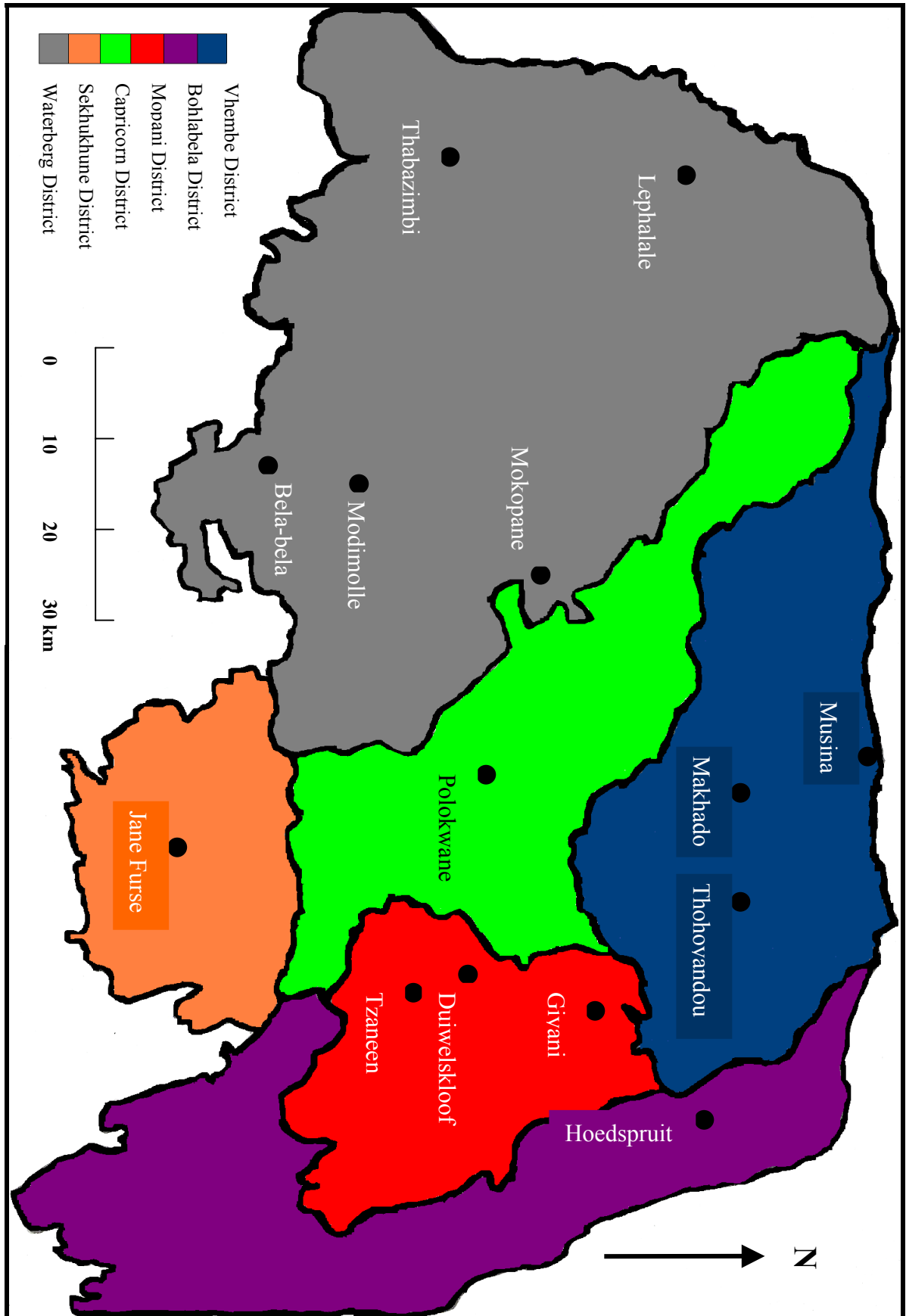
**Table 3.1:** Schematic representation of Gertrudsburg Communal Property Association

Name	Urban/ rural	Households	Beneficiaries	Hectares	Total award (R)
Gertrudsburg	Rural	1030	6180	673,9	7973 200.00

**Source:** Adapted from Mbusedzo Newsletter, 2003

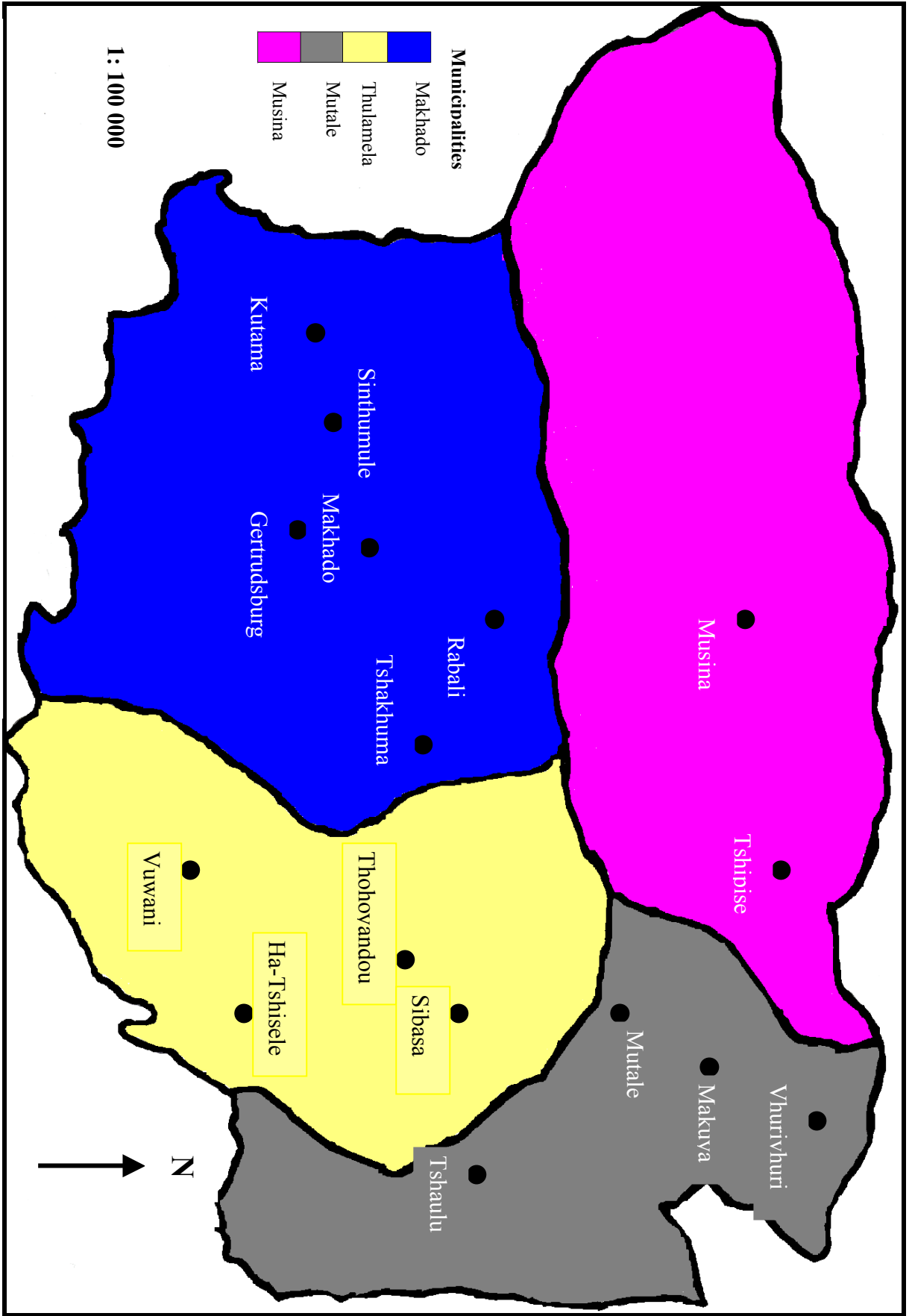


### 3.3 DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA



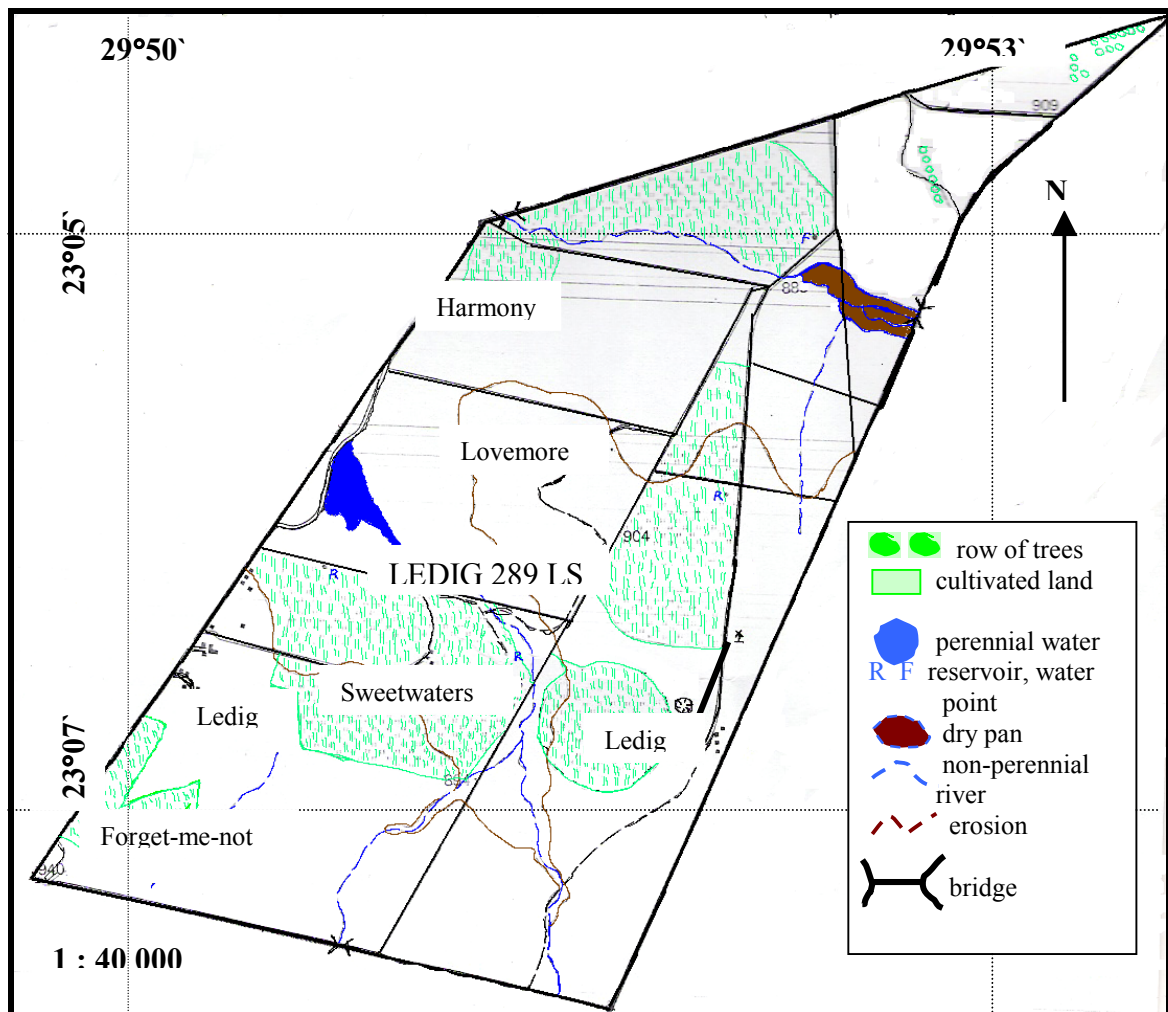
Map 3.1: Limpopo Province with different districts

Source: Mirror, 2004



**Map 3.2:** Vhembe District with its municipalities  
 Source: Mirror, 2004

Gertrudsburg is a village located near Makhado town in Makhado Local Municipality, in Vhembe District. The study area is within the Limpopo Province that is constituted of 6 districts, which are shown on the map 4.1. Vhembe District is situated in the far northern direction of the province. The same district consists of 4 Municipalities; namely: Makhado, Musina, Mutale and Thulamela Local Municipalities. The study area is one of the places within the Makhado Local Municipality (Map 4.2).



**Map 3.3:** Map of the study area.

**Source:** Adopted from Map 2329 BB Louis Trichardt, 4<sup>th</sup> edition, 1994

The size of the farm Ledig 289 LS is about 673,9 ha. It comprises of Harmony farm, Lovemore farm, Ledig farm, Sweetwaters farm, and Forget-me-not farm. The Ledig 289 LS farm forms part of the Makhado Local Municipality in Vhembe District. Geographically, it is situated within longitude 29°49'E and 29°54'E, and latitude 23°04'S and 23°08'S.

### **3.4 LANDUSE**

#### **3.4.1 SIZE OF THE LAND AND ITS ALLOCATION TO MEMBERS**

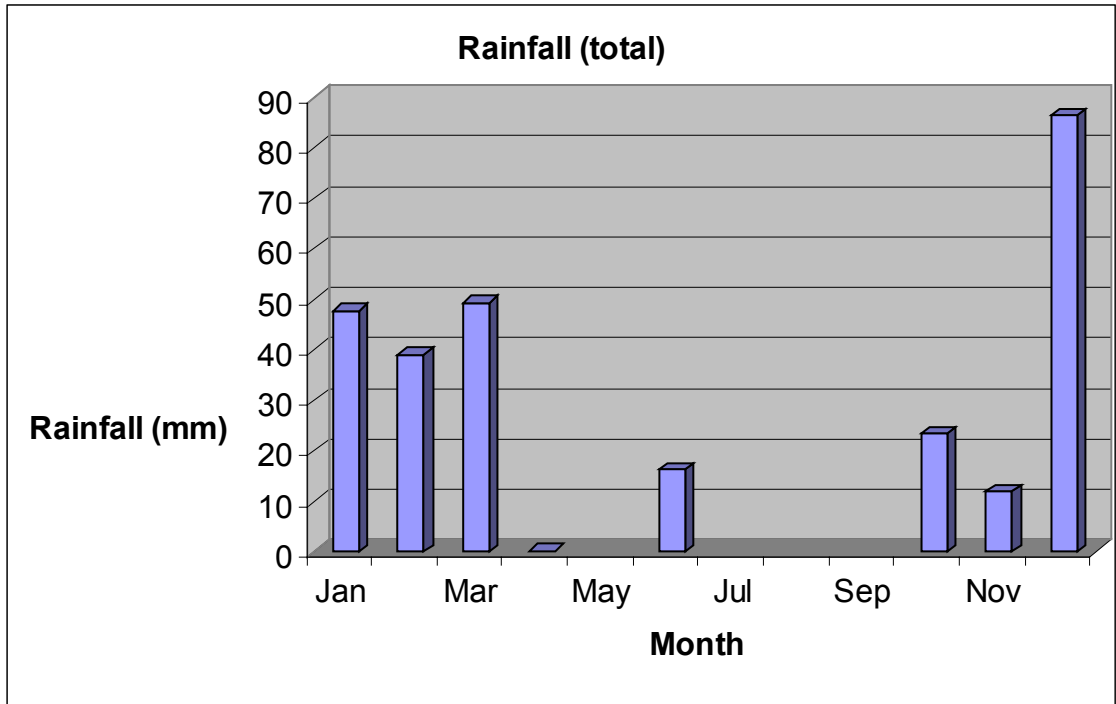
The farm Ledig 289 LS covers about 673,9 ha. Each residential site shall be 35 x 50m in size. Members shall be entitled to own immovable property and will be issued with individual Title Deeds. One joint Title Deed will be issued in respect of the Common Property Association (Ramaite, 2004).

Of the communal land at the disposal of the association, 531 ha shall be utilised for present and future residential sites, while 22 ha shall be earmarked for schools, religious centre, civic centre, shopping centre and health centre, etc. Up to 20 ha will be reserved for the present plantation and structures, and 100 ha set aside for the development of food-safety-net projects e.g. crop and/or livestock production to improve household food security (Ramaite, 2004).

### **3.5 CLIMATIC CONDITIONS OF THE STUDY AREA**

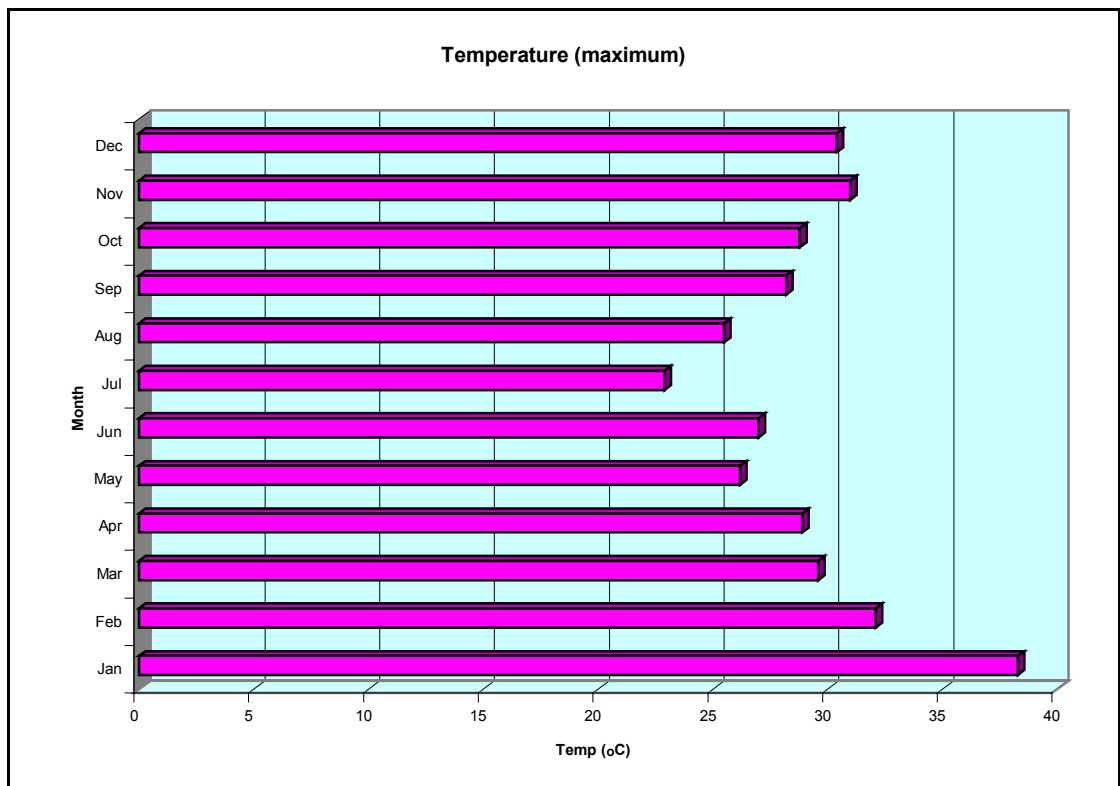
A report by the Department of Agriculture (2004) reveals that the area experiences a dry climate with inconsistent summer rainfall. The total rainfall experienced regularly is 274.3mm per annum. Summers are occasionally very hot while winters can be quite cold. Normally, the temperature ranges between a minimum of 8.3°C and a maximum of 38.3°C.

These, coupled with low relative humidity, are usually responsible for high evaporation rates and plant stress. Sometimes strong winds are experienced between July and September. The report also indicates that the area experiences frost mostly between early June and early August. The figures 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3 indicate the actual climate of the area.



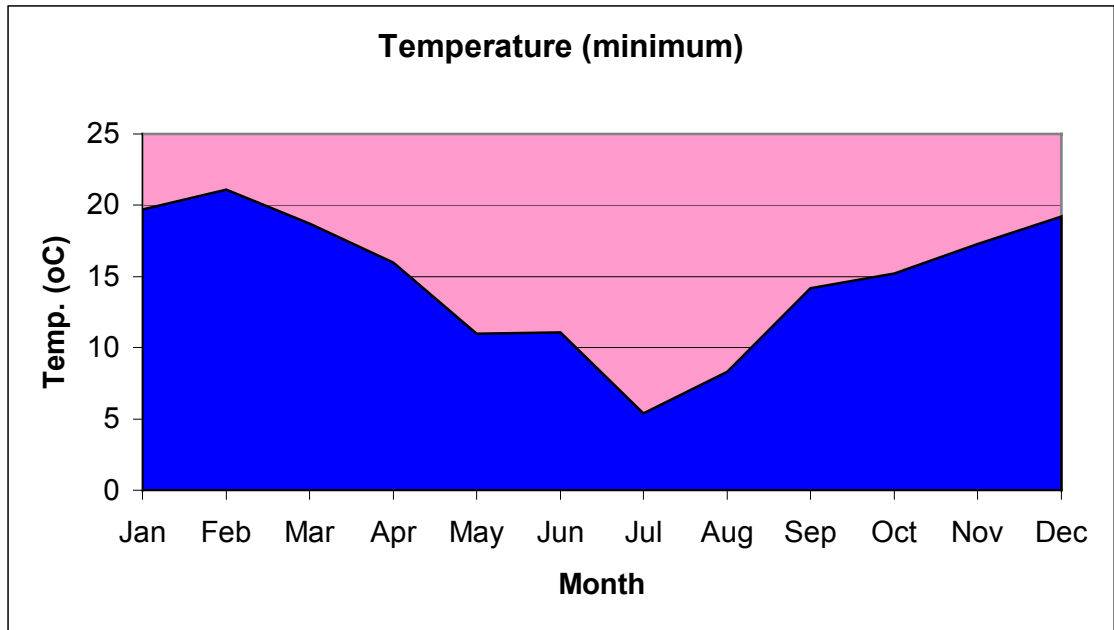
**Figure 3.1:** Total annual rainfall

**Source:** Mulima 3<sup>rd</sup> order weather station; Makhado, 2005



**Figure 3.2:** Maximum temperature per annum

**Source:** Mulima 3<sup>rd</sup> order weather station; Makhado, 2005



**Figure 3.3:** Minimum annual temperature

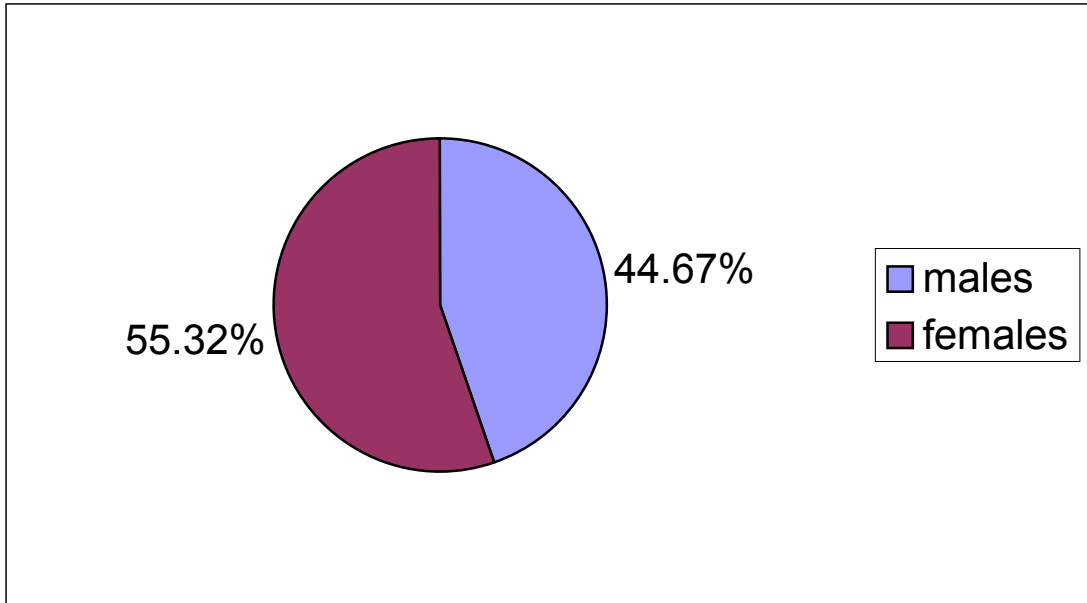
**Source:** Mulima 3<sup>rd</sup> order weather station; Makhado, 2005

### 3.6 MUNICIPAL DATA ANALYSIS OF MAKHADO

This section is divided into the following subsections; 3.6.1 gender, 3.6.2 income groups, 3.6.3 employment status by gender, 3.6.4 energy source for lighting, 3.6.5 main water supply, 3.6.6 refuse disposal, 3.6.7 telephone facilities, 3.6.8 toilet facilities, 3.6.9 education and 3.6.10 basic health infrastructure services.

#### 3.6.1 GENDER

Within Makhado Local Municipality, there are 222 070 males and 275 020 females. The diagram below shows the figures of males and females in percentage form. Up to 44.67% of the total population of Makhado is constituted with males and the remaining 55.32% is females.

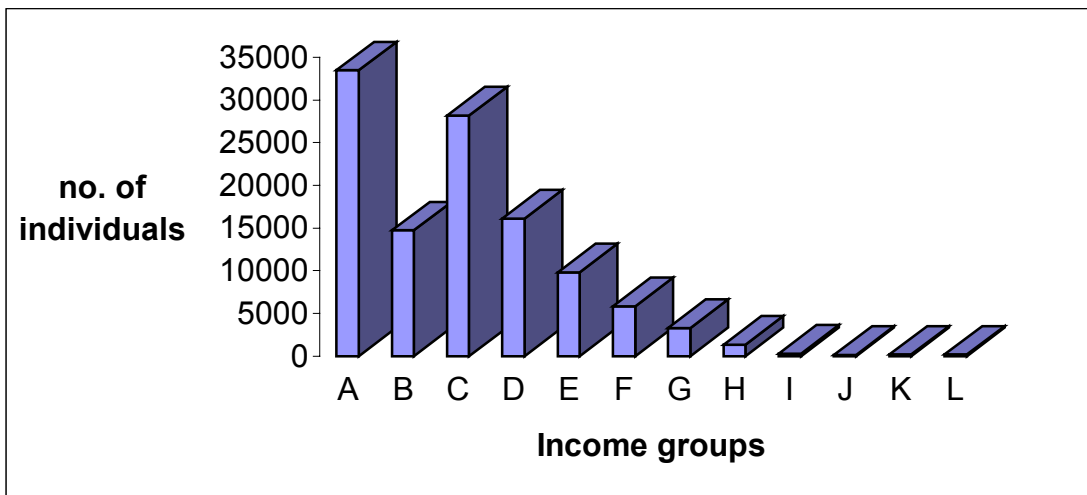


**Figure 3.4:** Gender statistics for Makhado Local Municipality population

**Source:** Statistics South Africa, 2005

### 3.6.2 INCOME GROUPS

There are different income groups depending on occupation types. The diagram below indicates the different income groups.



**Figure 3.5:** Annual income groups per household at Makhado Local Municipality

**Source:** Statistics South Africa, 2005

The following table displays the different income groups with income-amount in Rands and the corresponding number of people in Makhado Local Municipality.

**Table 3.2:** Different income groups and number of people per income group

<b>Income group</b>	<b>Level of income</b>	<b>No. of people</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>A</b>	No income	33 499	29.50
<b>B</b>	R 1 –R 4 800	14 733	12.97
<b>C</b>	R 4 801- R9 600	28 210	24.84
<b>D</b>	R 9 601 – R19 200	16 128	14.20
<b>E</b>	R 19 201- R 38 400	9 806	8.63
<b>F</b>	R 38 401- R76 800	5 812	5.11
<b>G</b>	R 76 801- R 153 600	3 298	2.90
<b>H</b>	R 153 601- R 307 200	1 323	1.16
<b>I</b>	R 307 201- R 614 400	276	0.24
<b>J</b>	R 614 401 –R 1 228 800	135	0.11
<b>K</b>	R 1 228 801 – R 2 457 600	155	0.13
<b>L</b>	R 2 457 601 and more	152	0.13

**Source:** Statistics South Africa, 2005

The unemployed form the highest percentage (29.5%) and the top-earners the least (0.13%)

Table 3.3 below shows the level of each individual member of the municipality's monthly income. The number of individuals drops as the amount increases. The highest number of individual member with no income top the list with males is 76 182 and females is 11 2800.



**Table 3.3:** Level of monthly income per individual by gender

<b>Level of income</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>
No income	76 182	11 2800
R 1- R 400	9 169	14 955
R 401- R 800	11 466	15 426
R 801- R 1 600	5 924	3 302
R 1 601- R 3 200	5 944	3 900
R 3 201- R 6 400	4 996	3 288
R 6 401- R 12 800	1 878	916
R 12 801- R 25 600	445	135
R 25 601-R 51 200	142	49
R 51 201-R 102 400	150	119
R 102 401-R 204 800	89	54
R 204 801 or more	27	29

**Source:** Statistics South Africa, 2005

### **3.6.3 EMPLOYMENT STATUS BY GENDER**

Table 3.4 indicates the type of employment and the number of people under each employment level by gender. The highest percentage (41.12%) of males is employed and (0.43%) is homemaker. The highest percentage (30.79%) of females is unemployed and (0.90%) is seasonal worker not working presently.

**Table 3.4:** Employment status of people at the municipality by gender

<b>Level of employment</b>	<b>Male (%)</b>	<b>Female (%)</b>
Employed	41.12	22.48
Unemployed	28.17	30.79
Housewife or home maker	0.43	11.86
Pensioner or retired person	5.12	7.04
Unable to work due to illness	3.16	1.97
Seasonal worker not working presently	1.15	0.90
Does not choose to work	6.70	6.62
Could not find work	14.15	18.34

**Source:** Statistics South Africa, 2005

### 3.6.4 ENERGY SOURCE FOR LIGHTING

The following table 3.5 shows the different energy sources for lighting used by the people. It indicates different percentages for different energy sources. At Makhado Local Municipality, 66.40% of the community have electricity and 0.28% of them use solar for lighting.

**Table 3.5:** Different energy sources for lighting in Makhado Local Municipality

<b>Energy source</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Electricity	66.40
Candles	28.18
Paraffin	12.37
Gas	0.29
Solar	0.28
Other	0.45

**Source:** Statistics South Africa, 2005

### 3.6.5 MAIN WATER SUPPLY

This section indicates the different sources of water supply used in each household. The people of Makhado Local Municipality obtain their water from various sources. Up to 34.38% of the community members have piped water inside yard and 0.14% has rain- water tank supply.

**Table 3.6** Different types of water supply at Makhado

<b>Types of water supply</b>	<b>% Of people</b>
Piped water inside dwelling	6.93
Piped water inside yard	34.38
Piped water on community stand; distance less than 200m from dwelling	19.75
Piped water on community stand; distance greater than 200m from dwelling	26.67
Borehole	2.13
Spring	1.98
Rain-water tank	0.14
Dam/ stagnant water/ pool	0.72
River/ stream	1.34
Water vendor	0.28
Other	4.68

Source: Statistics South Africa, 2005

### 3.6.6 REFUSE DISPOSAL

In Makhado Local Municipality, residents have five different options for refuse disposal. These include: refuse removed by local authority - at least once a week; refuse removed by local authority - less often; communal refuse dump; own refuse dump and no rubbish disposal. The highest percentages (76.43) of the community members dispose rubbish by themselves and 0.10% has access to communal refuse dump.

**Table 3.7:** Different refuse disposal methods

<b>Refuse disposal method</b>	<b>% Of people</b>
Removed by local authority at least once a week	9.51
Removed by local authority less often	0.55
Communal refuse dump	0.10
Own refuse dump	76.43
No rubbish disposal	12.51

Source: Statistics South Africa, 2005

### 3.6.7 TELEPHONE FACILITIES

The table below indicates the different types of telephone facilities used by the people of Makhado Local Municipality. The highest percentages (54.47%) have access to public telephone nearby and 3.12% of them have access at a neighbour nearby.

**Table 3.8:** Telephone facilities in municipality households

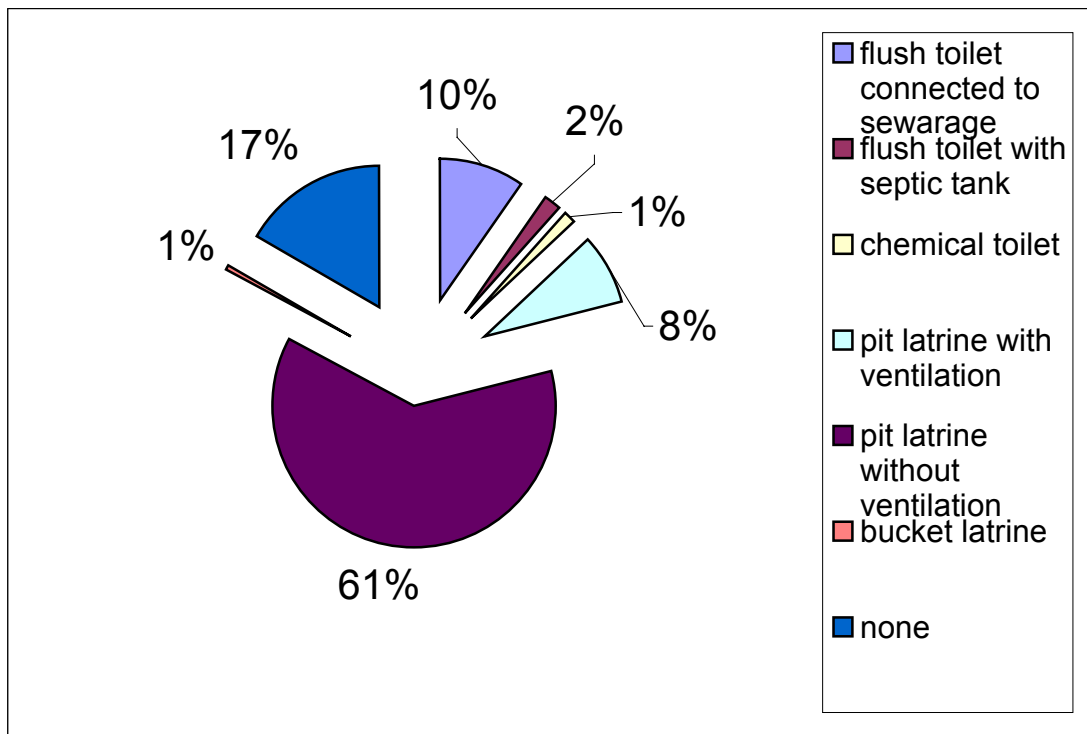
<b>Telephone facility</b>	<b>% of people</b>
Telephone in dwelling and cell-phone	4.73
Telephone in dwelling only	3.60
Cell-phone only	21.89
At a neighbour nearby	3.12
At a public telephone nearby	54.47
At another location nearby	4.20
At another location not nearby	4.29
No access to a telephone	3.70

**Source:** Statistics South Africa, 2005

These figures suggest that the use of public pay phone is the most dominant telephone access mode.

### 3.6.8 TOILET FACILITIES

At the Makhado Municipality, 61% of the community members have flush toilets with septic tanks and 10% of them have flush toilet connected to sewerage. Figure 4.6 below indicates the percentage of individuals with different toilet facilities.



**Figure 3.6:** Toilet facility for each household

Source: Statistics South Africa, 2005

### 3.6.9 EDUCATION

Table 3.9 hereafter portrays the level of education of different individuals in Makhado Local municipality. It reveals that most people (students) enrolled in secondary schools and a substantial number are not schooling. A total of 31 019 of student enrolled in secondary school while 79 obtained masters/doctorates.

**Table 3.9:** Level of education of individuals at Makhado

Level of education	No. of people
No schooling	16 050
Primary	20 530
Secondary	31 019
Tertiary	
• Certificates	2 422
• Bachelors	640
• Honours	150
• Masters/ Doctorates	79

Source: Statistics South Africa, 2005

### **3.6.10 BASIC HEALTH INFRASTRUCTURE SERVICES**

At Makhado Local Municipality there are 52 clinics, four community health centres and three hospitals.

### **3.7 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has provided a case of the Gertrudsburg community in Limpopo Province. Attention was given to the location, history and forceful removal of the people in Gertrudsburg, Makhado Municipality in the Vhembe District. Since this is a case study, vivid details of the farm, including but not limited to weather, rainfall conditions, population demographics and available infrastructure were provided to serve as a baseline for assessment of progress made after the land grant was provided. The full description of the methods pursued in the study will be discussed in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER 4

# BASELINE METHODOLOGY<sup>1</sup>

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This study aimed at investigating the socio-economic status of the land grant beneficiaries in Gertrudsburg community, Makhado Local Municipality. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methodology followed in designing and executing a baseline study in Gertrudsburg. Data gathered through the design will be useful for a diagnosis of the existing situation for potential beneficiaries of the programmes and provide policy guidelines related to land restitution.

Four basic steps were followed in the design and execution of the Gertrudsburg baseline study namely:

- Determining what to measure;
- Designing the questionnaire;
- Fieldwork and data collection; and
- Data analysis.

### 4.2 DETERMINING WHAT TO MEASURE

The first step in any design of a baseline study is to determine what variables to measure, i.e., specifying the substantive content of the study. This entails determining what information policy makers, programme planners and administrators require in order to ascertain whether or not the programme is functioning properly and why this is so. In doing this, the following questions were posed:

- What are the specific objectives that the programme is attempting to achieve?
- What are the targets of each objective?

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<sup>1</sup> This chapter draws heavily from guidelines by Schrevel (2003).

- What information will be needed in order to tell whether or not these objectives were being achieved?
- How could this information be used? (This question is designed to eliminate all information for which a practical use cannot be found.)

In general, the following types of information were required:

- Economic information: Level of employment;
- Demographic information: Size and age distributions, family size, education, marital status;
- Information on living conditions: Communications;
- Information on health and nutrition practices: Practices of and knowledge about health and sanitary conditions, access to and use of health services;
- Information on group and community participation: Leadership patterns and type, group participation in terms of quantity and quality, degree of participation in self-help activities, contact with community development promoters;
- Information on cognitive structure: Aspirations and attitudes towards change.

The above information types were collected at three different levels as follows:

- Household level: This refers to a nuclear family and non-nuclear family. A nuclear family is made up of the resident household head, the spouse or partner and their children;
- Commonage level: This refers to people that had access to commonage land and formed part of a commonage project;
- Community level: This refers to members of the management committee who were able to provide an overall picture of the project. Examples of such members were chairman/secretary/treasurer.



### **4.3 DESIGNING THE QUESTIONNAIRES**

The data were gathered using three types of questionnaire, namely:

- Household questionnaire,
- Commonage questionnaire; and
- Community questionnaire.

#### **Household questionnaire**

Fifty-five (55) questionnaires were administered. They focused on individual and household characteristics, livelihoods, wellbeing and the satisfaction, and expectations of beneficiaries regarding the land reform process.

#### **Commonage questionnaire**

Thirty-six (36) questionnaires were administered to commonage respondents. They are similar to the household questionnaires with respect to the information requested. The only difference is that commonage questionnaires focus on access to commonage land.

#### **Community questionnaire**

Fourteen (14) community questionnaires were administered and sought information on the activities and incomes that are generated on a communal basis and the management of the project.

### **4.4 FIELDWORKS AND DATA COLLECTION**

The fieldwork was initiated in October and was concluded in November 2003. Fieldwork consisted of observation method and survey research. The type of observation method used was participant observation. The main aim of using this method was to attain some kind of membership in the project.

Survey research was utilized as a method of data collection. Type of survey research used was personal interviews. Interested people were interviewed in each age and gender categories and the relevant questions were asked and the response was recorded. The questionnaire took 10-20 minutes to complete. To improve the quality of data collected, anonymity and confidentiality of information were assured throughout the duration of the study.

#### **4.4.1 ETHICAL PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION**

The study procedure adopted was standardized and made uniform for all the respondents. Permission to enter to the community was obtained from the headman. He was informed about the project and his consent was important. Recruited participants were told about the research objectives. Permission was obtained from the respondents to indicate their willingness to participate in the survey. Respondents were assured that the information obtained would be treated as confidential, that the results would be used for research purpose and may be used to develop policy guidelines that may be used in Land Reform Programme.

#### **4.5 CONCLUSION**

This chapter presented the methodology followed in designing and executing the baseline study; namely: determining what to measure and the designing the questionnaire. The chapter discussed the methods of fieldwork activities, data collection, and data analysis. The results obtained using these methods will be presented in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER 5

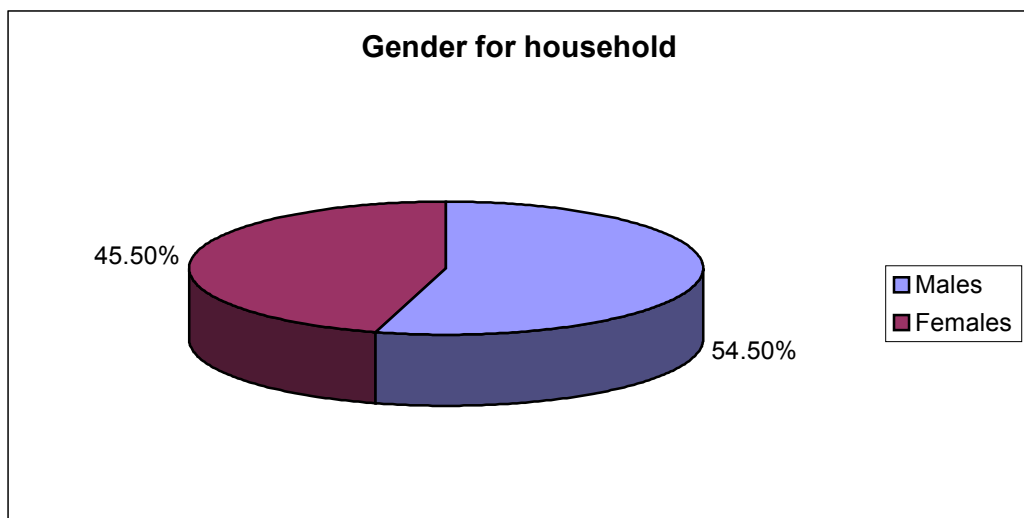
# DATA ANALYSIS

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of the study was to investigate socio-economic characteristics of the beneficiaries of land reform and to assess the effectiveness of the land redistribution. This chapter provides data analysis and draws interpretations in line with the main goal of the study. From the collected data, it was found suitable to analyse the data by using both qualitative and quantitative approaches to cover the depth and breadth of the findings.

### 5.2 HOUSEHOLD STRUCTURE

Household structure refers to information about the household and all the individuals who made up the household. The first information regarding the social standing of the respondents was the gender composition of the land grant beneficiaries. It appears as in Figure 5.1 that the males are the dominant grant receivers in the study population.

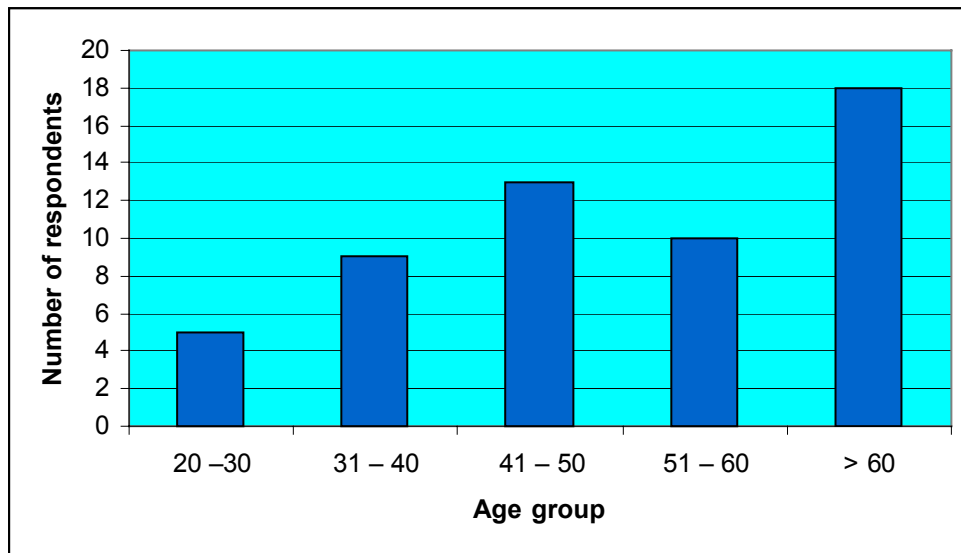


**Figure 5.1:** Gender profile of respondents

Figure 5.1 indicates that 55% of the respondents of the land grant beneficiaries representing households were males and 45 % were females. This shows that more male land grant beneficiaries were interviewed with regard to household questionnaire than female beneficiaries.

### 5.2.1 AGE PROFILE

The age profiles of land grant beneficiaries were considered important in the study. The respondents were asked to fill out a questionnaire in which they had to reveal their age. Their age distribution is summarized in Figure 5.2 below:

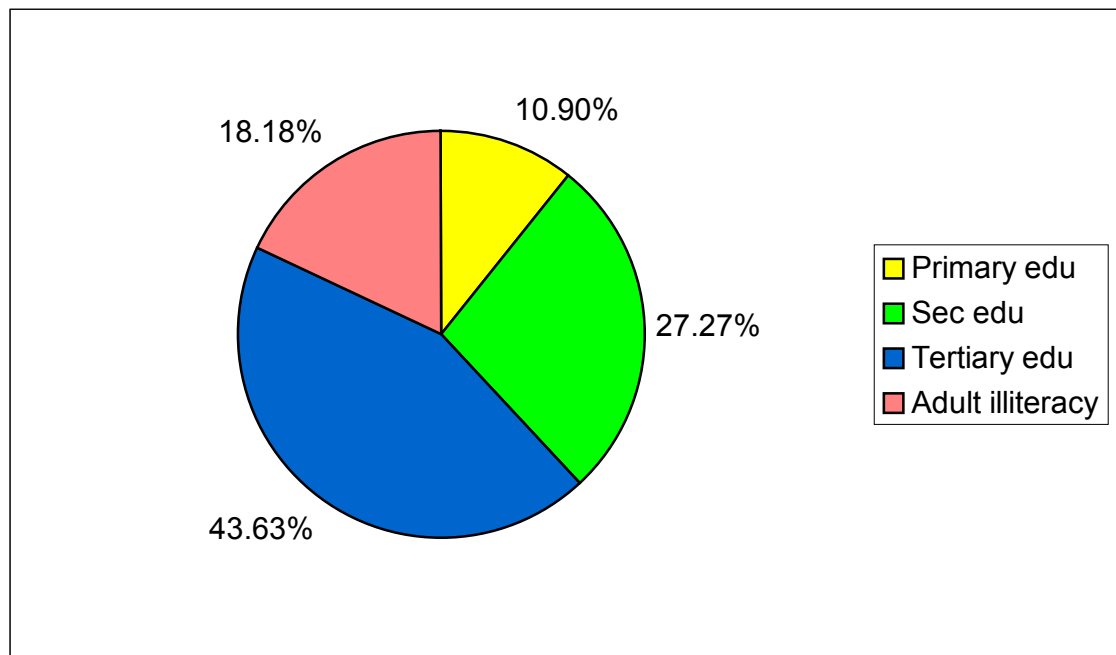


**Figure 5.2:** Number of respondents under different age groups

This figure shows that the ages of the persons who responded on behalf of the household was within the following ranges: 20–30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60 and >60. Respondents were five in the first categories, and nine, 13, 10 and 16, respectively, in the others. This reveals that the land grant beneficiaries in the study are the respondents who are over the age of 60 years.

### 5.2.2 LEVEL OF EDUCATION

The level of education was another important social variable investigated among the beneficiaries of land grants. The following figure provides a breakdown of the respondent's level of education.



**Figure 5.3:** Percentage of level of education of respondents

Out of the total number of 55 respondents, only six members (or 10.90%) had primary education. Fifteen (15) respondents (or 27.27%) had managed to acquire secondary education despite many obstacles. A total of twenty-four (24) respondents (or 46.63%) acquired tertiary education. These findings imply that there are quite a substantial number of people who had higher education qualification, although not the outright majority, to deal with sophisticated demands of land management. It is a signal that the redistribution process may in fact be effective and sustainable.

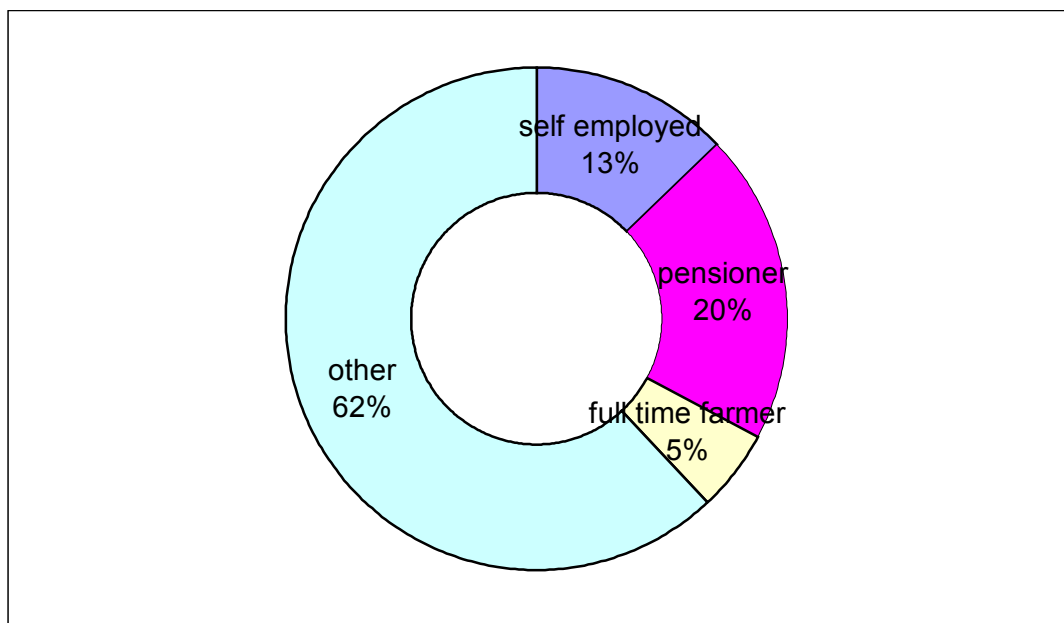
### 5.2.3 OCCUPATIONAL STATUS

Several types of occupational status were recorded from respondents during the survey. These included self-employment, pensioner, full time farmer and any other type of occupation. Table 5.1 below provides a summary of the findings.

**Table 5.1:** Types of occupation of respondents

Occupation	Number of respondents
Self employed	7
Pensioner	11
Full time farmer	3
Other	34

Table 5.1 shows that seven of the members confirmed that they were self-employed while 11 were pensioners. Three members were full-time farmers, and the remaining 34 were employed at different government departments as educators, protection service officers, civil servants, and domestic workers. This shows that the number of the beneficiaries of the land reform in this area is rather small.

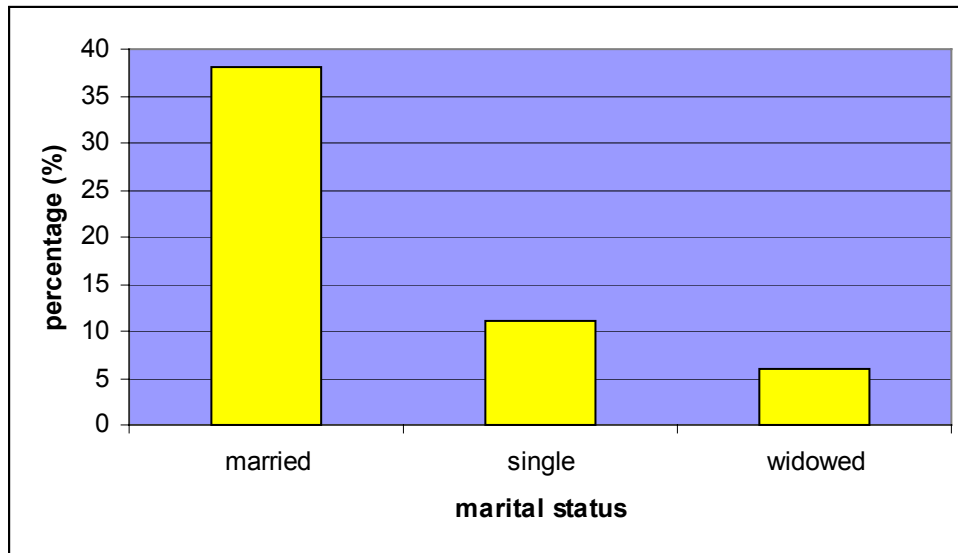


**Figure 5.4:** Percentage of types of occupation

This figure corroborates the finding presented in Table 5.1 above by indicating that full time farmers made only 5% of the respondents. The significance of this finding is that there are relatively few land grant beneficiaries who are doing farming on a full-time basis. This may be an issue of concern for the sustainability of land redistribution.

### 5.2.4 MARITAL STATUS

Marital status of the respondents was considered important in establishing the socio-economic status of the respondents. The following figure shows a distribution of the respondents' marital status.



**Figure 5.5:** Marital status of respondents

Figure 5.5 shows marital status of the respondents. From the survey, married respondents were 69.1%, single were 20% and widowed were 10.9%. This shows that the majority of the land grant beneficiaries are married and that families rather than individuals might benefit in the long run.

### 5.2.5 AVERAGE HOUSEHOLD SIZE

The number of individuals in the respondents' households ranged from three to 12 members per household, and a mean household size of 6.4. The number of members in a household depends on the head of the family and the income provider

## 5.3 SERVICES AND FACILITIES

This section provides information about access to basic services and facilities such as water, sanitation, telecommunications, health care, and education.

### 5.3.1 WATER

One of the infrastructural amenities investigated in the study was access to water.

#### 5.3.1.1 Source of drinking water

The respondents were asked about the sources of drinking water. The responses are summarized in Table 5.2 below:

**Table 5.2:** Source of drinking water for every household

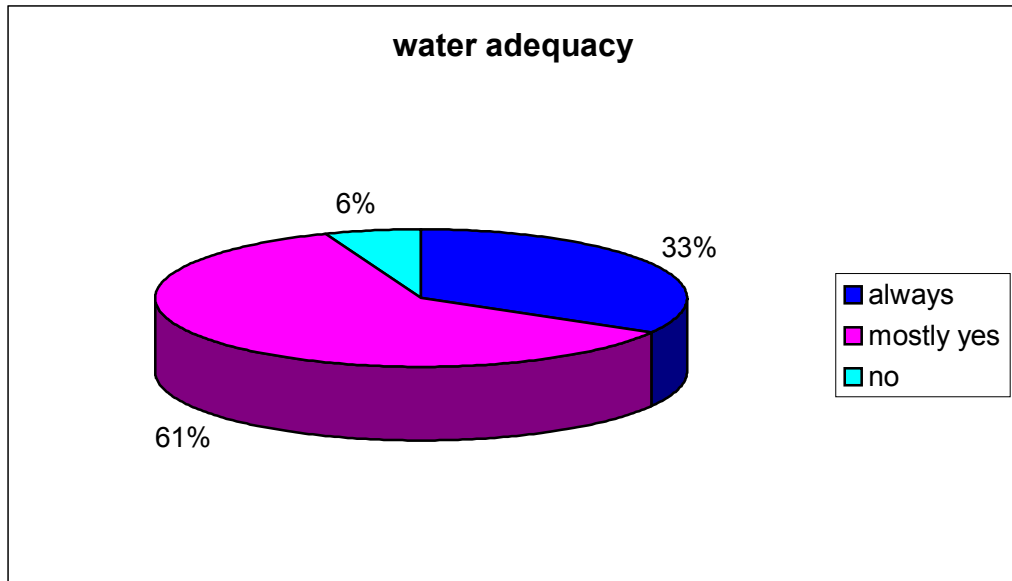
Source of drinking water	%
Piped (tap) in dwelling	2.98
Piped (tap) water on site in yard	4.47
Public tap	64.17
Water carrier/ tanker	0
Borehole/ rainwater/ well	28.35
Dam river/ stream/ spring	0
Other	0

This table shows that the most reliable source of water indicated by households was a public tap (64.17%), which is easily accessible for everyone. It was followed by water sourced from wells, rainwater tanks and boreholes (28.35%). About 4.47% of households had tap water in their yards and 2.98% had tap water inside their dwellings. Thus, the majority of the land grant beneficiaries access their water through public tap.

#### 5.3.1.2 Adequacy of water for household purposes

Here, households were required to state whether water was always adequately obtained, mostly obtained, mostly not obtained or not obtained at all. Their responses varied considerably as presented below:





**Figure 5.6:** Water adequacy for household purposes

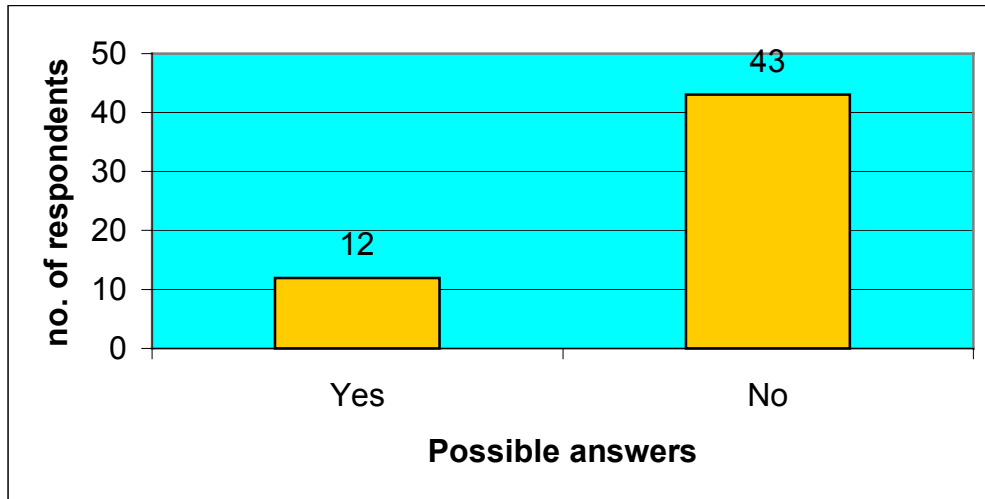
Figure 5.6 shows that about 61% of the households obtained water for normal household purposes while 33% and 6%, respectively, responded that water was “always” adequate and “mostly no” respectively.

### 5.3.1.3 Number of trips and time spent to collect water

The number of trips to collect water depended on the distance from the dwelling to the water source. The number ranged from two (02) to fifteen (15) times. The time to the water source depends on how fast one can travel, and varies between two (02) and twenty (20) minutes.

### 5.3.1.4 Payment of water by household

Respondents were requested to indicate whether or not they paid for water. Their responses are presented in Figure 5.7.



**Figure 5.7:** Household payments for water

Twelve (12) respondents said they paid for their water and the remaining forty-three indicated no payment. Paying respondents indicated that they paid for water from boreholes and those twenty-five (25) litres of water cost them about R2-50 or basically 10 cents per litre.

### 5.3.2 SANITATION AND WASTE DISPOSAL

The next infrastructural facility investigated in the study was sanitation and waste disposal. This included toilet facilities, location of toilet facilities and disposals as discussed below.

#### 5.3.2.1 Toilet facilities

The respondents were asked about the type of toilet facilities they had in their surrounding. Their responses are summarized in Table 5.3 below:

**Table 5.3:** Type of toilet facility used by household

Type of facility	%
Flush toilet	11.32
Improved pit latrine with ventilation	0
Other pit latrine	88.67
Bucket toilet	0
Chemical toilet	0
Other	0

The results of this investigation show that different respondents used latrine, bucket, and flush toilets facilities. The primary toilet facility used by many households is a form of pit latrine (88.67%) and the second is the flush toilet (11.37%). That the flush toilet forms a minority of the toilet facilities shows that the area is not yet developed even after land grant to the beneficiaries.

### 5.3.2.2 Location of toilet facilities

The location of the toilet facility differed depending on where respondents lived. In the study, up to 79.62% of the respondents had toilet facilities outside the dwelling on the residential stand while 20.37% had them inside the dwelling. There were no respondents with toilet facilities outside their residential stand.

### 5.3.2.3 Waste disposal

The third sanitation facility under investigation was waste disposal. The results of the investigation are summarized in Table 5.4 below:

**Table 5.4:** Methods of removal of waste

<b>Refuse removal</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
Removed by local authority at least once a week	20	36.36
Removed by authorities less than once a week	2	3.63
Communal refuse dump	0	0
Own refuse dump	7	12.72
No refuse dump	2	3.63
No rubbish disposal	22	40
Other	2	3.63

Of the total sample, 40% of the households did not dispose of rubbish while 36.36% and 3.63% had their refuse removed by the local authority at least once a week and less than once a week, respectively. At least 12.72% of the respondents had their own refuse dumps. Some (3.63%) had no refuse dumps and others (36.3%) used other means of disposing refuse. This is a telling finding that the land grant beneficiaries do not have communal refuse dumps. Their socio-economic status does not, therefore, seem to have improved.

### 5.3.3 TELECOMMUNICATIONS

Availability of telecommunication in the area was also investigated. This concerned access to telephone and time taken to access the telephone as presented below.

#### 5.3.3.1 Access to telephone

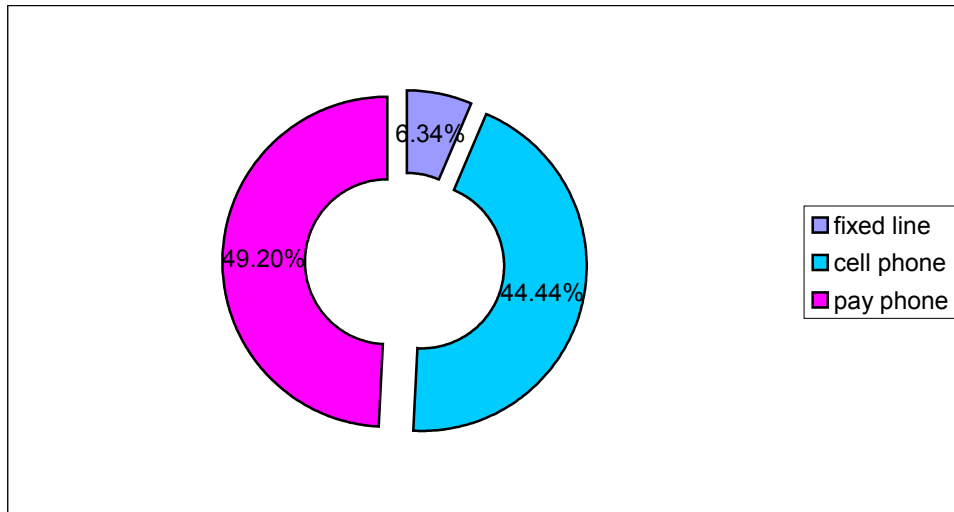
The respondents were asked about the location of telephone access and the frequency distribution of the various telephone systems. The main finding of the study is that access to telephone for the respondents depended on the location of the household.

**Table 5.5:** Access to telephone by households

<b>Where telephone is mainly accessed</b>	<b>%</b>
In the dwelling, fixed line	6.34
Cellular phone	44.44
At a neighbour nearby	0
At a public telephone nearby (pay phone)	49.2
At another location nearby	0
At another location not nearby	0
No access to telephone	0

Table 5.5 indicates the ways the respondents accessed the different means of telecommunication. About 49.2% of the respondents had access to a nearby public pay phone. Up to 44.44% of them could afford cell phones. The rest (6.34%) used a fixed telephone in their dwelling.

As for the frequency counts, Figure 5.8 below indicates the percentage of households accessing different types of phones.



**Figure 5.8:** Percentage of households accessing different types of phones

Figure 5.8 shows that 6.34% of the respondents have a fixed line; 44.44% had a cell phone and 49.20% used a pay phone. The differences between cell phone and payphone use are not huge. What however is worth noting is that a few households only use landline and this might be an indicator that the socio-economic status of the land grant beneficiaries has not improved radically yet.

### 5.3.3.2 Time taken to the nearest telephone

Time depends on the distance from the household to the nearest telephone. Up to 70% of respondents could access the nearest telephone within 5 minutes while 30% took forty (40) minutes.

### 5.3.4 HEALTH CARE

Health care facilities are important infrastructural amenities for farm workers. The study was concerned with access to health facilities in the environment.

#### 5.3.4.1 Health services

The respondents were asked on their access to a variety of health services in their area. The responses are presented below in Table 5.6.

**Table 5.6:** Health services used by households

<b>Medical assistance sought</b>	<b>%</b>
Public hospital	10.6
Public clinic	74.24
Other public facility	1.51
Private hospital	3.03
Private clinic	0
Private doctor	9.09
Traditional healer	1.51
Other private facility	0

This table shows that the majority of households went to public health institutions such as the public clinic (74.24%) and public hospital (10.6%) when someone in the household was ill or injured. These were followed by households (9.09%) that went to a private doctor for health-related matters. Besides these three, the respondents could also go to other health services.

#### **5.3.4.2 Time taken to health services**

The least time to a health service was 20 minutes. Up to 20% of respondents spent almost 2 hours to reach the nearest health institution.

### **5.3.5 ACCESS TO SCHOOLING**

The respondents were asked about access to schooling, both primary and secondary schools, to determine their level of education and their suitability to function effectively in the farmland once redistributed.

#### **5.3.5.1 Primary school**

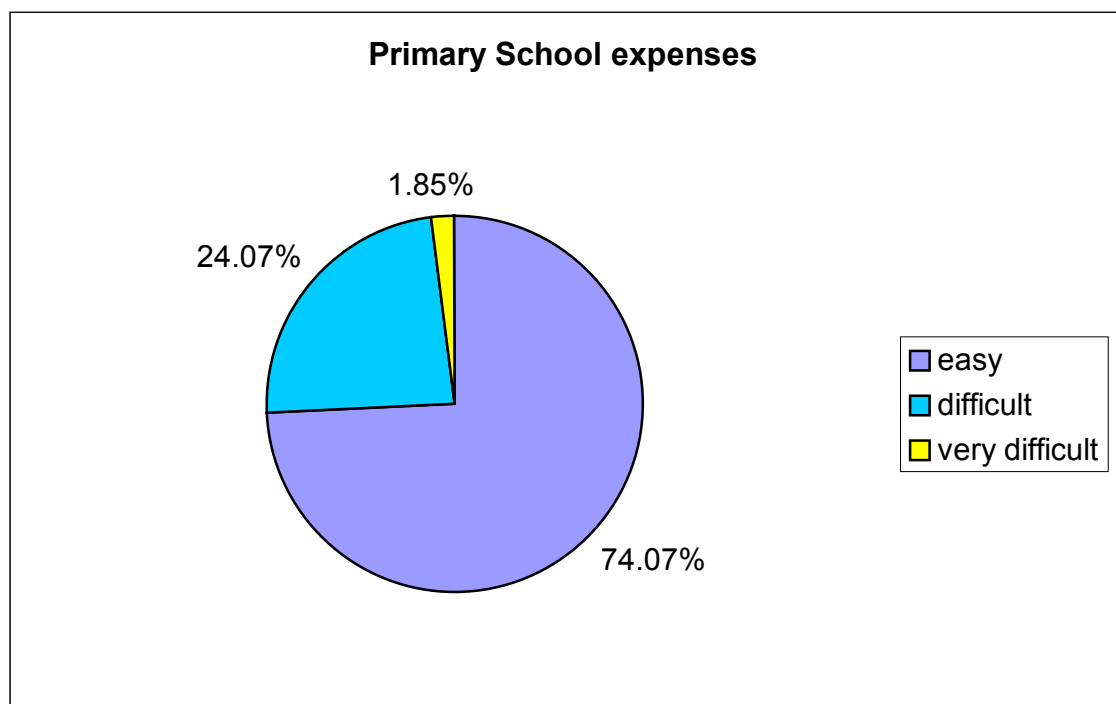
The respondents were asked on whether they had access to primary school education. The following table provides a summary of their responses:

**Table 5.7:** Difficulty in attending primary school, travelling, by households

Level of difficulty	%
Very easy	30.35
Easy	67.85
Difficult	1.78
Very difficult	0

Table 5.7 above shows how households responded to the difficulty in accessing primary school. It depended on the distance of households from the primary school facilities. Up to 67.85% of the respondents found it easy to go to the nearest primary school, and it was very easy for only 30.35% of them. The remaining 1.78% had no access to primary education in terms of transport. The majority of respondents found it easy to attend primary school because they could afford expenses for uniforms, school fees, books, etc.

The second pressing issue regarding primary school access was the expenses incurred. Figure 5.9 illustrates that it was generally easy to access the primary school.

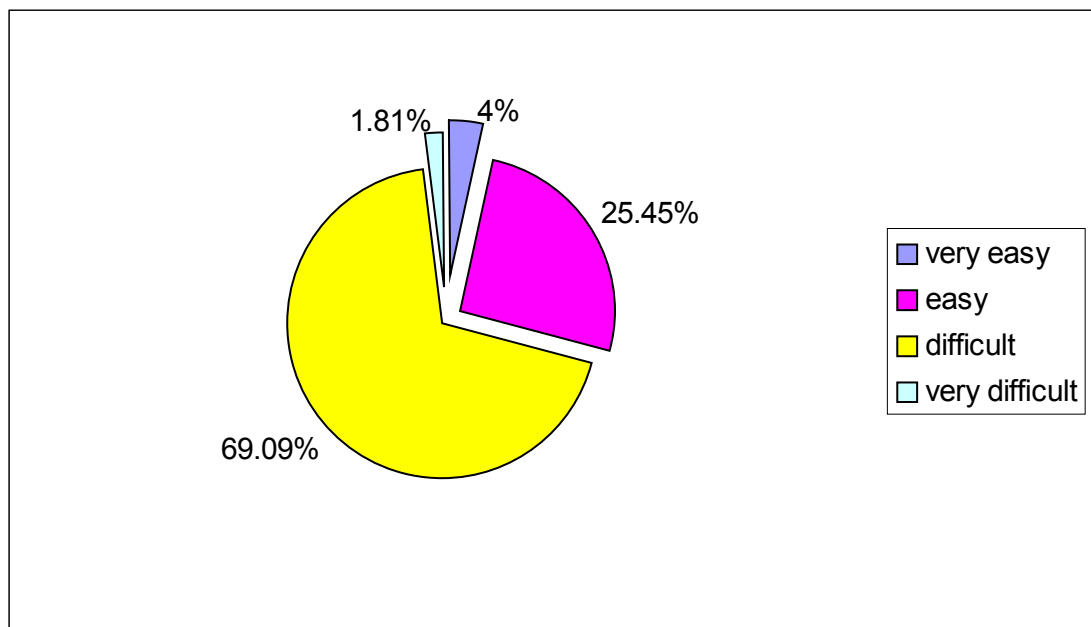


**Figure 5.9:** Difficulty in attending primary school – other expenses

Corroborating Table 5.7 above, this figure shows that 74.07% of the respondents did not have to incur a lot of expenses to access primary schools. Therefore, the majority of the respondents have some basic education, which might enable them to work effectively in the redistributed land.

### 5.3.5.2 Secondary school

The respondents were asked whether it was easy to access secondary school through efficient transport system. Responses from the sample showed that it was more difficult to access secondary schools as a result of transport difficulties as shown below:



**Figure 5.10:** Difficulty in attending secondary school- travelling

It was difficult for 69.09% of households; easy for only 25.45% of them and 3.63% found it very easy. The remaining 1.81% found access to these facilities very difficult. In general, transportation to secondary school premises is a challenge in this location. This suggests that the majority of the respondents are semi-literate, which should be taken into account in the redistribution of the land.



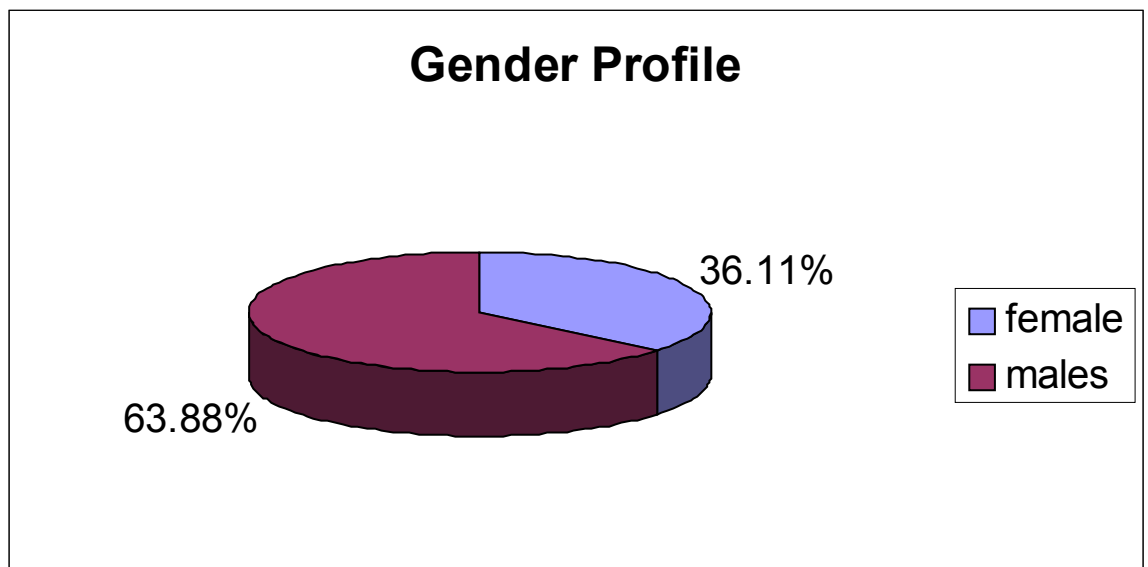
## 5.4 COMMONAGE STRUCTURE

Of the respondents who participated in the commonage structure survey, thirty-six (36), or 65%, of them took part in the commonage structure. The following section indicates their response.

### 5.4.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

#### 5.4.1.1 Gender profile for Commonage structure

In the Commonage structure, the gender analysis for the respondents of the land grant beneficiaries was as follows: the pie-chart (figure 5.11) below indicates that men constituted 63.88% and the women 36.11%. Similarly, more male land grant beneficiaries were interviewed than their female counterpart.

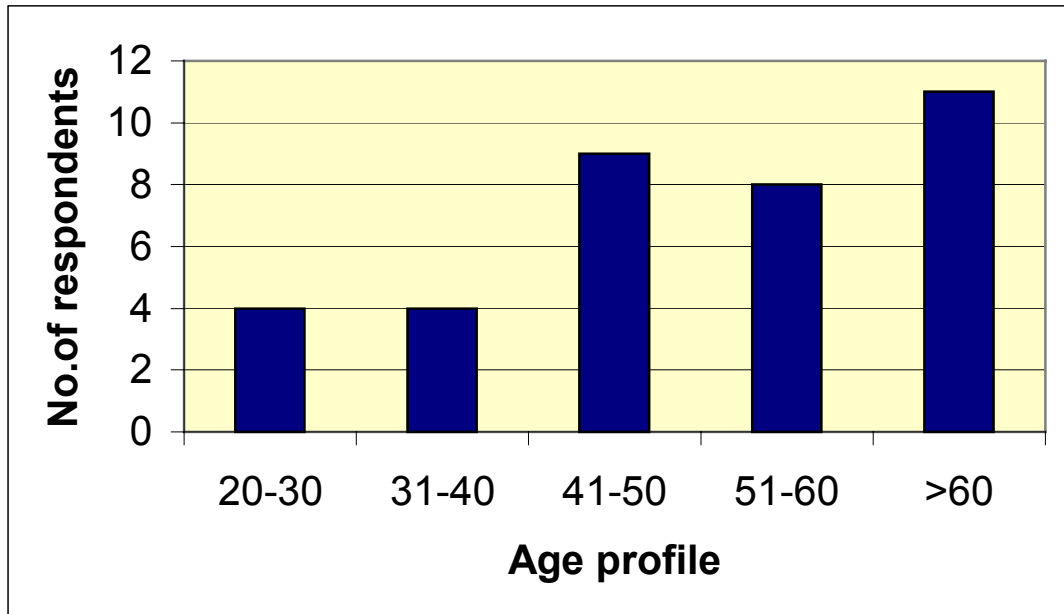


**Figure 5.11:** Gender profile for Commonage respondents

This figure shows that the majority of the people in the commonage are men, with women only making 36.11% of the inhabitants. Necessarily, the majority of direct beneficiaries may be men in a community that has the most of its population as women. Gender balance seems to be a factor to contend with in the land redistribution process.

### 5.4.1.2 Age profile for Commonage structure

The age profile for Commonage structure was investigated an additional social variable in deepening the understanding the conditions of the land grant beneficiaries.

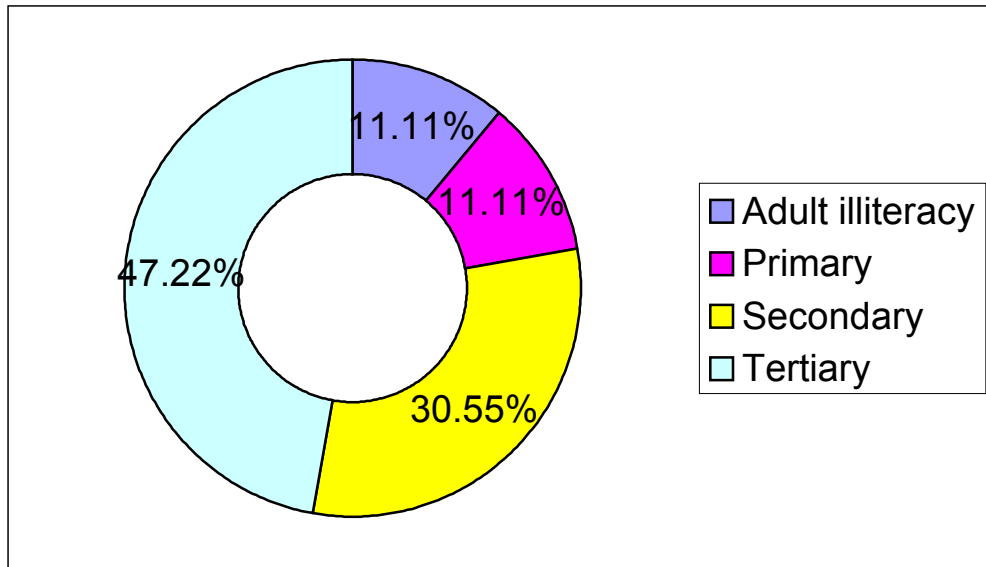


**Figure 5.12:** Age profile for Commonage respondents

In the age categories, namely; 20-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60 and >60; respondents were four in the first two categories, and nine, eight and 11, respectively, in the others. This denotes that the majority category for the land grant beneficiaries is respondents above the age of 60, which might prove not efficient and sustainable over time.

### 5.4.1.3 Level of education

The level of education of these respondents was quite different from the household structure. Figure 5.13 presents the results.

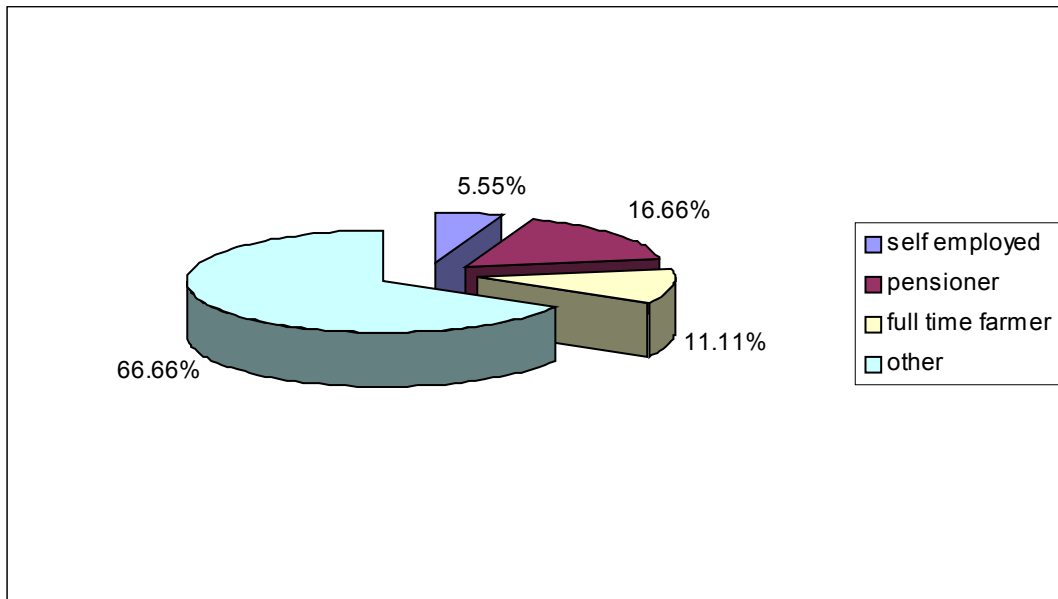


**Figure 5.13:** Level of education for Commonage respondents

Respondents with adult illiteracy made up 11.11%, and those who had only acquired primary education were 11.11%. Respondents with secondary education amounted to 30.55% and the remaining 47.22% had tertiary education.

#### **5.4.1.4 Occupational status**

Occupational status of the respondents was one of the variables investigated in the study. The results are summarized in figure 5.14 below:

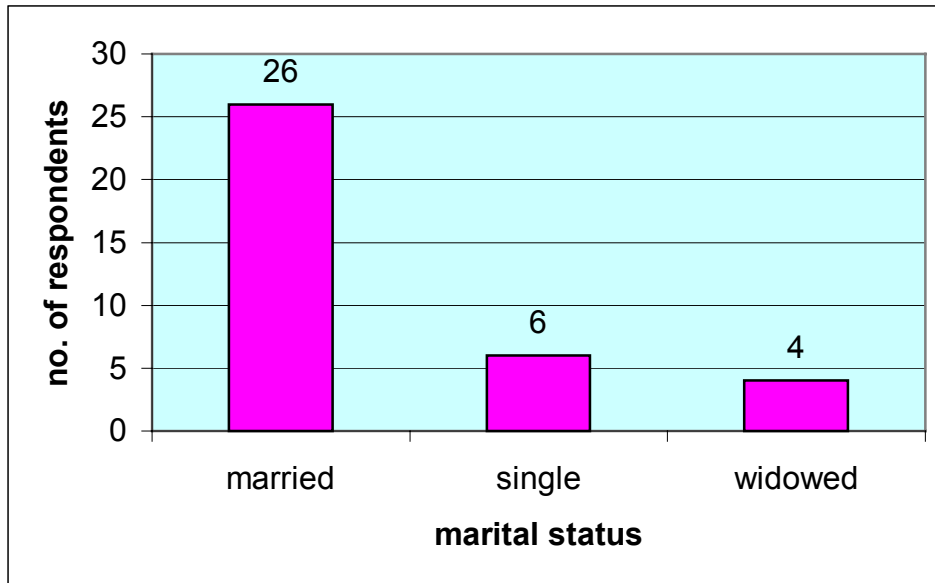


**Figure 5.14:** Occupational status of Commonage respondents

The survey shows 5.55% of the respondents were self-employed and 11.11% were full time farmers. Up to 16.66% of the respondents were pensioners, and the remaining 66.66% were either working as educators in government schools, clerks, protection service officers or civil workers.

#### **5.4.1.5 Marital Status**

The marital status of the respondents in the study was considered important in singling out their socio-economic characteristics. The results of the survey show the following results:



**Figure 5.15:** Marital status of Commonage respondents

From the survey, twenty-six (26) members indicated they were married, six (06) were still single and four were widowed. Since the majority of the people are married, it seems reasonable to assume that they will likely think about family benefits once they have ownership of the land. Necessarily, the majority of the people could benefit from the redistribution process.

#### **5.4.1.6 Number of persons per household**

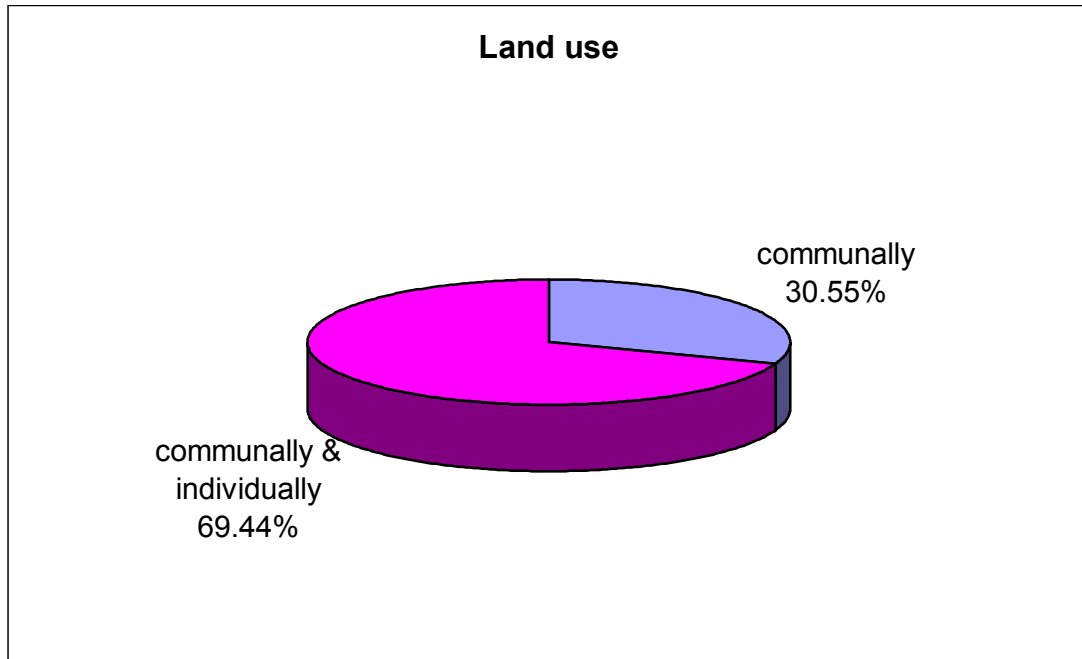
The number of individuals in a household differed from one case to another. Some households had three members while others had up to ten (10). The average number of individuals per household was six.

### **5.4.2 INVOLVEMENT IN THE COMMONAGE**

From the different views of the respondents, it was noted that they were very eager to start using the land. Some responded that they thought commencement could be as soon as the land becomes available for agricultural activities again.

### **5.4.3 UTILIZATION OF LAND**

The respondents' views were elicited on whether the land could be used individually and communally or strictly communally. The results are summarized in the following figure:



**Figure 5.16:** Utilization of land by commonage respondents

The survey results as presented in figure 5.16 above show that 69.44% thought that the land could be used both communally and individually whereas 30.55% said that it could only be used communally. This indicates that a combination of both individual and communal ownership of the newly redistributed land will be the most favourable land use structure.

#### 5.4.4 AGRICULTURAL ACTIVITIES

Agricultural activities that would take place communally and/or individually include livestock ownership, crop production, and household cultivation. The following table indicates the response of the commonage structure with regards to agricultural activities.

**Table 5.8:** Agricultural activities by commonage structure

<b>Agricultural activity</b>	<b>Communal (%)</b>	<b>Individual (%)</b>
Livestock ownership	100	-
Crop production	69.44	30.55
Household cultivation	25	75

This table shows that all the respondents (100%) would want to own livestock communally rather than individually. As for household cultivation and crop production, there are quite a good number of the respondents who claimed that they could be involved in these activities individually, 30.55% and 75%, respectively. On the whole, these results show that the respondents are willing to cooperate in project activities. This is a signal that land reform activities may benefit the majority of the people in this area.

## **5.5 COMMUNITY STRUCTURE**

This section deals with questions relating to the community structure.

### **5.5.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

In order to avoid duplication of information already presented, albeit slightly different, and to de-emphasize prominence of the background of the respondents, tables and figures were not considered important in showing the results. The results for this section will be merely presented in discussion format, therefore.

#### **5.5.1.1 Gender profile for community structure**

The study shows that there were more male respondents of land grant beneficiaries than female, with 85.71% and 14.28% respectively

#### **5.5.1.2 Age profile for community structure**

The majority of the respondents in the survey were older people with 36% over the age of 60 and 36% between 51 and 60 years. About 21% were between 41 and 50 years and 7% between 31 and 40 years. There were no respondents under the age of 30 years

#### **5.5.1.3 Level of education**

From the survey, 85.71% of the respondents had tertiary education, 7.14% secondary education and 7.14% had primary education.

#### 5.5.1.4 Occupational status

The survey showed that 21.42% of the respondents were pensioners while 78.57% were working as educators, civil servants, domestic workers and clerks.

#### 5.5.1.5 Marital status

The majority of the respondents were married (85.71%) while the remaining 14.28% were single.

#### 5.5.1.6 Number of persons per household

In each household in the community structure, it was indicated that the number ranged from four members to ten. The average number of persons per household was 6.5.

### 5.5.2 BACKGROUND OF THE PROJECT

The respondents indicated how they heard about obtaining land through land grants. The majority of respondents (40.90%) heard about land grants from the radio. Table 5.9 illustrates this below.

**Table 5.9:** Ways of hearing about Land Grants

<b>Hearing about Land Grants</b>	<b>%</b>
Radio	40.9
Television	13.63
News paper	13.63
From representative of Department of Land Affairs	31.81
From another government official	4.54
Through word of mouth /other farm workers	4.54
Don't remember	4.54
Other	0

### 5.5.3 TIME OF FORMATION OF INITIAL GROUP

The initial group was formed in 1995 and comprised the elders who were removed from Gertrudsburg together with their children and grand children.



#### 5.5.4 REASONS FOR STARTING THE PROJECT

The respondents were asked on reasons for starting the project. Their responses varied considerably as reflected in the following table.

**Table 5.10:** Reasons for starting the project

<b>Reasons</b>	<b>%</b>
To possess own land to become one's own boss	30.76
To become a larger enterprise as soon as possible	3.84
To be able to look after ones own family	7.69
To obtain security of employment	7.69
To obtain security of tenure	15.38
Other	19.23

Up to 30.76% Of the majority of respondents wanted to possess land to become ones own boss. The ambition to have a larger enterprise was not the popular reason for involvement with only 3.84% claiming to have such ambition. The desire to take care of one's own family and to have job security each had 7.69%, respectively.

#### 5.5.5 JOINING THE PROJECT

Information obtained indicates that certain qualities would increase one's chances of joining the project. These qualities are the possession of skills, tools and equipment. Up to 26.3% of the respondents supported this finding. Besides this one, the respondents also mentioned other possibilities of joining the project as shown on the following table.

**Table 5.11:** Possibilities of joining the project

<b>Possibilities of joining the project</b>	<b>%</b>
Anybody that expressed an interest	10.52
Friends/other people known to the person who started the project	21.05
Only family members could join	5.26
Previous farm workers of this farm	0
Those with skills, tools and equipment that could be useful	26.31
Other	36.84

This table shows that 26.31% of the respondents have skills and equipment that can be useful in the project. However, there were no previous farm workers who could potentially join the project. Thirty six percent of the respondents were not distinguishable as potential participants in the project. All these taken together suggest that land redistribution will have to include skill capacity building for it to be successful.

#### **5.5.6 EXCLUSIONS FROM JOINING THE PROJECT**

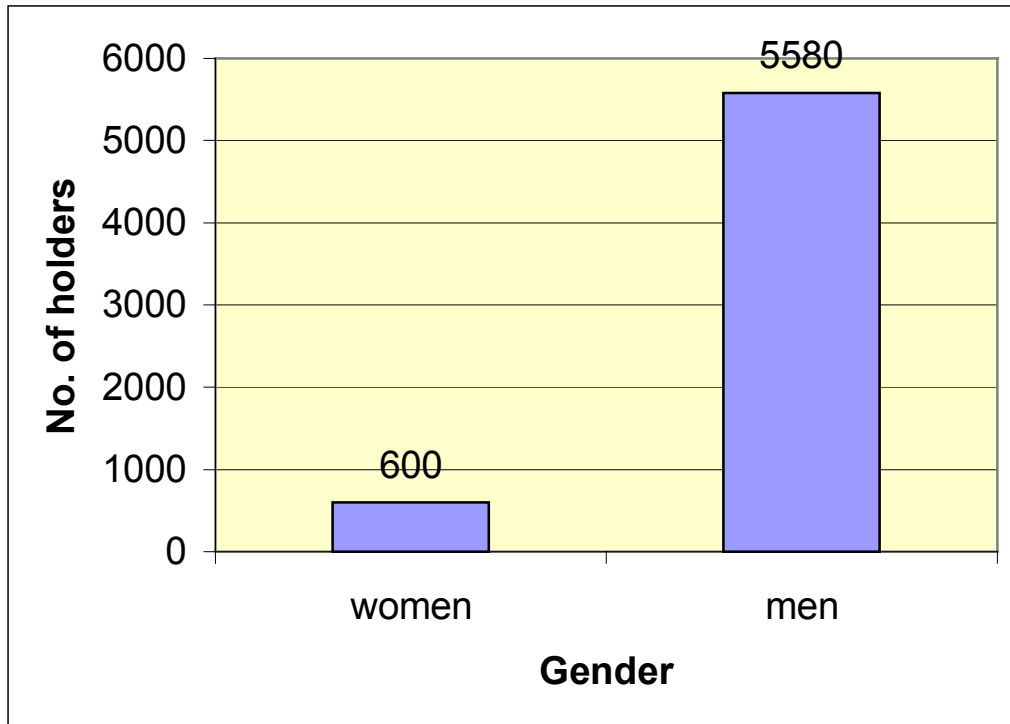
Half of the respondents in the study indicated that there were restrictions on people joining the project while another half said there were none. It showed that 50% of the respondents admitted the existence of restrictions while the other 50% disagreed.

#### **5.5.7 JOINING FEE FOR THE PROJECT**

As many as 75% of the respondents indicated that a fee of R20.00 was required to join the project, while 25% indicated there was no need for a joining fee.

#### **5.5.8 LAND GRANT HOLDERS IN THE PROJECT**

The number of Land Grant holders in the project was 6 180; 600 of whom were women. This means that only men make decisions in the group. The leadership is entirely male, and it will take time for women to start playing important roles in the project.



**Figure 5.17:** Number of Land Grant holders in the project by gender

Figure 5.17 shows that 5580 of the grant holders were men whereas only 600 were women. The grant distribution reinforces the gender inequalities of the past, and this might prove not sustainable since the process does not take into account gender issues as a part of its core business. The bulk majority of the women might still be ostracised, thus leaving many households below the poverty line.

### 5.5.9 LAND GRANT

The amount of Land Grant already received was R7 973 200. From this amount, the group bought land for R3 450 000. The remaining amount of R4 523 200 was used in purchasing equipment and would also be used for constructing new houses.

About R2, 7 million was not yet paid by government. This amount was budgeted for the development of new projects such as a civic centre, a health centre, a shopping centre, schools, and religious centres. Since the inception of the group responsible for this project, no members attempted to leave.

#### **5.5.10 REASONS FOR BUYING LAND**

Respondents had various reasons for buying the land. Firstly, they were already familiar with the area, which made it easy for them to buy it. Secondly, the land was of good quality. It was not just because they used to be farm-workers or that authorities provided the land, and they had no choice but to take it.

The group also indicated that production might start as soon as the land available for agricultural activities again.

#### **5.5.11 LAND OBTAINED AND SUITABILITY**

The area of the land obtained in 2001 is 673, 9 hectares. The survey also provided information about the types of activities that were suitable for this land. The respondents unanimously agreed that the land was suitable for agriculture activities.

#### **5.5.12 NEW MEMBERS IN THE PROJECT**

According to information recorded, it is possible for new members to join and buy a stake in the project. However, despite the high chances (71%) for new members joining the project, there were no new additions to the initial group. Respondents also specified that it would be impossible for new members who were not part of the same community to join the project.

#### **5.5.13 APPLICATION FOR GRANTS**

For the department to obtain information on how many people were intending to buy land, the following procedures (steps) was established:

- (i) The community sends an application for grants to the government.
- (ii) The government investigates the possibilities of the community receiving the grants.
- (iii) After the investigation, the grants are made available to the community.

The investigation process takes a long time. The response from government can only be expected after a year or so. This is a weakness in the system because it discourages some members of the community who are willing to apply. For example, since the transfer of land in 2001, the community of Gertrudsburg was still waiting for the planning grant from government so they could proceed with the town-planning scheme.

## **5.6 CONCLUSION**

This chapter analyzed data collected among the beneficiaries of the land in Gertudsburg village. The findings of the study mainly show that the land grant beneficiaries' socio-economic status has not improved. The majority of the land beneficiaries still live under conditions below poverty line, characterized but not limited to lack of access to water, landline telephone, and effective disposal system. Similarly, the distribution of the grants seems to be skewed towards men and older generation. This as will be discussed in Chapter 6 may not be effective and sustainable over a long time.

## CHAPTER 6

# DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

This study was designed to undertake an investigation of the socio-economic conditions of the land restitution sub-programme of the land reform programme beneficiaries in a selected case study area of South Africa. The findings of the investigation were presented in Chapter 5. The aim of this chapter is to provide a discussion of the findings presented in the preceding chapter, provide a summary of the major issues in the study, and to draw conclusions and recommendations for further study.

### 6.2 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Chapter 1 stated the main aim of the study as an investigation of the socio-economic conditions of the beneficiaries of land reform project in Gertrudsburg community in Makhado Local Municipality, Limpopo Province. The interest in the study stems from the realization that since land reform programme was passed into law and implemented since 1994, there are virtually no systematic studies that investigated the effectiveness of the programme in reaching its broad objectives; i.e., redressing the imbalances by providing access to basic services, access to land and reduction of poverty. It was against this backdrop that the current study was borne out. Necessarily, its significance was to provide a basis for future evaluation of land reform activities and to make empirical contributions to future policy making on land reform.

The next chapter reviewed relevant literature on the concept of land reform, including but not limited to restitution, redistribution and tenure reform. Elsewhere in the developing countries, which include India, Brazil, Mexico and several African countries like Kenya, it was found that the main purpose of land reform was to redress

the socio-economic imbalances that were created in the past regimes where people were forcefully removed from their land and deprived of all rights associated with land possession. Land redistribution was therefore found to be affirmative in nature. The second main issue revealed in the literature on land reform in these countries is that a supporting system for the beneficiaries was created; these include the Marshall Plan in Italy and the credit and market system plan in Japan and in Mexico. However, South Africa does not seem to have any support system except for the land grants. From all the countries investigated, it was found that the South African land reform resembles that of Zimbabwe because both have dwelt so much on the histories of dispossession.

A review of literature on land reform in South Africa shows that the restitution process restored more than 887 000 hectares of land to more than 172 000 households. It achieved reconciliation through negotiated settlement, where the meeting of minds between the black claimants and the white landowners were witnessed. The negotiations process has increased the number of claims settled from 41 in March 1999 to 59 345 in March 2005 (Commission on Restitution of Land Rights, 2005). However, it was found that there are virtually no systematic studies that have investigated the socio-economic conditions of the beneficiaries of land reform. This knowledge gap has necessitated an empirical enquiry into the case of the beneficiary community of Gertrudsburg in Makhado Local Municipality and thus restating the main research question for the study: what are the socio-economic conditions of the beneficiaries of the land reform programme in South Africa and to what extent does this programme achieve its intended objectives of access to land, access to basic amenities and reduction of poverty?

Due to the case study nature of the enquiry, a vivid description of the community under investigation was presented in Chapter 3. In this chapter, the population demographics of Gertrudsburg, the weather conditions, the standard of living, availability of basic services were all presented to create a rich context for analysis of the beneficiaries' situation.

Chapter 4 described the research design used in data collection procedures, sampling, data collection, and ethical consideration. A baseline method of enquiry was deemed

relevant for an exploratory study of this nature since there are no previous studies that systematically investigated the effectiveness of land reform programme in Limpopo Province. Secondly, a baseline method allowed for ethnographic procedure to be put in place due to their unassuming nature and their possibility to provide depth into the study of socio-economic characteristics.

Chapter 5 analyzed data collected through the baseline method. Generally, the results of the analysis show that the majority of the respondents in the selected community live below poverty line. First, their access to water is on an outside tap, they do not have disposal facilities and only a very small number use a flush toilet. Their access to telephone also is very limited since they have to rely on pay phone outside of their homes. A very small percentage of the respondents could afford to have a landline phone in their houses. Another observation from the analysis is that the main beneficiaries seem to be men, especially those who are above 60 year of age. Seemingly, the males are still the dominant members of the community in gender and power relations. One argument therefore is that the land reform programme does not seem to reflect redress of gender and a focus on youth development for sustainability. The findings of the study are discussed in the following subsection.

### **6.3 FINDINGS OF THE STUDY**

As discussed in the summary section above, the main finding of the study is that there is poor quality of life in Gertrudsburg despite the land reform programme targeted for the poor and low-income earners.

With regard to gender equality, the majority of the respondents in the household structure were males than females. This is a sign that the majority of the population, who happen to be women, do not still have enough access to basic services as required in the land grant policy.

Second, the level of education among the respondents was generally high with most of them having acquired tertiary education. However, the majority of the respondents



were employed at different government departments such as educators, protection service officers, and civil servants. Only a small percentage of these respondents worked as farmers on a full-time basis- something that should be an advantage for the land reform initiative.

The third most important finding regarding access to basic services is that the public tap was the most reliable source of water for the households. However, access to the tap water was not very easy since they had to take a number of trips to fetch water. Water is generally regarded as the most basic service the community can have, yet the situation in Gettrudsburg forced the households to travel a distance to access water. This signals that poverty eradication has not yet taken place. That the times to the water source depended on how fast one can travel is testimony to the hardship the households in the community undergo on a daily basis.

The use of toilet revealed interesting results. The primary toilet facility used by households is in a form of pit latrine. The majority of the respondents had toilet facilities outside the dwelling on the residential stands. The results of the study showed that only a small number of people could afford the luxury of a flush toilet. Added to the finding that up to 40% of the respondents did not dispose off rubbish, it is evident that access to basic sanitation services has not taken root yet.

With regard to communication, the majority of the respondents had access to a nearby public pay phone; a few respondents indicated that they could afford cell phones while fixed telephone in their dwellings was an extreme rarity. Some respondents could access the nearest telephone within a few minutes while others took long to reach the nearest telephone. Here too, telecommunication services are basic to a developing community, but the household under study have hardships accessing the services.

Another revealing finding relates to the proximity of public institutions like clinics and schools. When injured, the majority of the households would go to public health institutions that may take up to an hour to reach. Only a few community members can reach the public hospital in less than an hour. On the contrary, a higher number of the respondents found it easy to go to the nearest primary school. They also found it easy

to attend primary school because they could afford expenses for uniforms, school fees, books etc. Worth noting though is that a high number of the households found it difficult to access secondary schools as a result of transport difficulties.

There are many similarities between the household structure and the commonage structure, which do not need repetition here. In the commonage structure, it was found that the majority of respondents belonged to the middle ages. The level of education of these respondents was similar from the household structure because the majority had acquired tertiary education.

The majority of the respondents were also working as educators in government schools, clerks, protection service officers or civil workers. The highest number of respondents indicated they were married, as it was the case with the household structure. The number of individuals per household was averagely six.

An important finding is that the respondents were very eager to start using the land. The higher number of respondents thought that the land could be used both communally and/or individually. A higher number of respondents indicated that agricultural activities that will take place would be livestock ownership.

The initial group was formed in 1995 and their desired goal was to get their land back. The possession of skills, tools and equipment were some of the requirements one needed to have to join the project. The majority of respondents indicated that there were restrictions on people joining the project. Those who would be allowed to join were required to pay a fee for joining the project.

Because the majority of Land Grant holders were men, the leadership was being entirely constituted by male respondents. The amount received of Land Grant was used to purchase land, equipment and the remaining balance would be used for constructing new houses.

The respondents had various reasons for buying the land. Firstly they were already familiar with the area. Secondly, the land was of good quality. The area of the land obtained consisted of many hectares and suitable for agricultural activities. It was also

indicated it would be impossible for new members who were not part of the same community to join the project.

Lastly in order to obtain grants certain steps were established:

- The community sends an application for grants to the government;
- The government investigates the possibilities of the community receiving the grants;
- After the investigation, the grants are made available to the community.

## **6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based on the observations and conclusions made above and also according to Partnership for Sustainable Land Reform (2005), the following general recommendations for improvement of the quality of life in Gertrudsburg can be made:

- Increased commitment at national level to post-settlement support through conceptual (policy), fiscal, strategic planning and monitoring and evaluation provisions;
- Establishment of a provincial land reform post-settlement implementation strategy;
- Project implementation support team consisted of Regional Land Claims Commission (RLCC), Extension Officers, Limpopo Department of Agriculture (LDA) and Makhado Local Municipality must be introduced;
- Promotion of integrated planning and implementation (addressing economic, social and environmental needs of project);
- Increased role of district and Local Municipality (Makhado);
- Improved inter-departmental communication at governance and project level.
- At project level, the community needs to be the central driver, not the external support providers;

- Strong emphasis needs to be placed on the creation of clear and standardised criteria for the inclusion of women, youth and the disabled in the determination of development indicators, etc.;
- Total re-planning should be done on future development because infrastructure has been neglected;
- The government should make provision or subsidise with planning grant for the community. These can be achieved by electing key people among the Communal Property Association (CPA) members and workshop them about planning and project management;
- After achieving the above, the government should make sure that the community gets basic services such as electricity and reticulated water, and make sure that the community uses them in a sustainable manner;
- The government should also provide extension services so that the community will be aware of production factors and methods, and these might help to alleviate poverty within the community;
- Beneficiary community should have access to finance for improvements on the farms and expansion of production;
- More should be done to ensure that the beneficiaries have the knowledge, skills and commitment to use land productively;
- These could be achieved by establishing a Strategic Partnership (SP) with private sector investors who will transfer required skills to beneficiaries of the Gerdtrudsburg CPA in order to enable them to continue with the farming operation on a sustainable basis after the exit;
- The beneficiaries must be fully work-shopped about the SP process;
- They must also appoint project manager who will be overseeing the running of the project;
- They must have training in a range of activities related to the farm operation e.g., financial management, marketing, artificial insemination, veld management, identifying symptoms of different illnesses, application of vaccines, record keeping and business skills, etc.;
- There must be clear flow of benefit to beneficiaries;
- There must be clear reporting to all beneficiaries;

- The neutral monitoring and evaluation team must be appointed to oversee project development; and
- An effective exit strategy for support provided by (external) stakeholders must be well integrated and planned.

Finally, in order to monitor how the quality of life in Gertrudsburg has changed, the baseline results presented in this report could be used as good basis for a future evaluation and research.

## **6.5 CONCLUSION**

The main aim of the study was to investigate the socio-economic conditions of the land reform beneficiaries in Gertrudsburg community, Makhado Local Municipality, Limpopo Province. It was also the aim of the study to examine the extent to which the land reform broad objectives: access to land, access to basic services and reduction of poverty have taken root through a case study of the community under investigation. Using baseline method of enquiry, the study found that the standard of living among the community members in this community is very poor, with no access to basic sanitation infrastructure, and transport facilities, for example. Given this finding, it is recommended that levels of government should devise support systems in place and oversee the redistribution process to avoid imminent failure resulting from lack of implementation strategy. Further research and evaluation studies are necessary to follow on developments with regard to the effectiveness of the land grant programme.

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## **8 APPENDIX 1**

### **KEY QUESTIONS USED IN THE FIELD SURVEY**

#### **1. Availability of services and facilities**

##### **1.1 Water**

- What is the most often used source of drinking water in this household?
- Is the water obtained adequately for normal household purposes?
- What is the average number of trips to collect water each day?
- How long does each roundtrip, to collect water, take on average (including time spent waiting in queue)?
- Does the household have to pay for its water?

##### **1.2 Sanitation and waste disposal**

- What kind of toilet does the household use?
- Where is the toilet?
- How is the refuse or rubbish of this household disposed?

##### **1.3 Telecommunication**

- Where do members of this household mainly use a telephone?
- How long does each roundtrip take to travel to the nearest working telephone you can use (by your usual means of transport and including the time spent waiting in queue)?

##### **1.4 Health care**

- If someone in this household gets ill or injured and decides to seek medical help, where does he/she usually go?
- How long does it usually take to get there?

##### **1.5 Education**

- How difficult would you say it is for primary school children in this area to attend school in terms of travelling?

- How difficult would you say it is for primary school children in this area to attend school in terms of expense for uniform, school fees, books, etc?
- How difficult would you say it is for secondary school children in this area to attend school in terms of travelling?

## **2. Commonage involvement**

- When do you think you can start using the land?
- How are you going to use the land?
- What agricultural activities are going to take place on the land used communally and /or individually?

## **3. Project background**

- How did this group hear about the possibility to obtain land through the Land Grant?
- When was the initial group formed?
- What were the reasons for starting this project?
- Who could join this project?
- Were there some people who wanted to join the project and were excluded?
- Did the participants have to contribute a joining fee before the land transferred?
- How many Land Grant holders are there in the project now?
- How many Land Grant holders are women?
- How much was received as Land Grant?
- How much was spent to buy the land?
- How much is still left from the Land Grant?
- How did the group use the balance of the grant?
- How many grant holders left the project permanently between the initial formation of the group and the transfer of the land?
- What were the reasons that made the group to decide to buy the specific land?
- How much land did you obtain in total?
- Is the project suitable for agriculture?

- Is the project land suitable for grazing?
- Is it possible for new participants to join the project?
- Is it possible for people to buy a stake in the project?
- How many people have bought a stake in the project?
- When was the land transferred?
- When do you think you can start with the first production?

#### **4. Grant Applications**

- Explain the process followed in obtaining grants.
- How long does it take to get the grant?
- How difficult was it to get the grant?
- How quick was it to obtain such grant?