

## **Chapter 4**

### **STUDY METHODOLOGY**

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#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

Cooper and Schindler (2001) aver that the design of appropriate research methods is actually the blueprint for fulfilling the objectives and answering pivotal research questions for a study. The research question and investigative sub-questions posed in Section 1.7 require both empirical and non-empirical studies. The objective of this chapter was to develop clear and concise research methods to obtain clear answers to the research question and sub-questions. The conceptual framework (Chapters 2 and 3) helped shape the methodology so that the final deliverable, the positing of unambiguous sustainable tourism planning guidelines for commonages, could be achieved (Chapter 7). The case-study approach was adopted to achieve this deliverable (See Figure 4.1).

#### **4.2 UTILISATION OF THE CASE-STUDY APPROACH**

Cresswell (1998) defines a case-study as an exploration of a 'bounded system' or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context. Stake (1995) considers the case-study as an object of study while Cresswell (1998) considers its methodology. According to Cresswell (1998), the bounded system is bound by time and place and it is the case being studied, a programme, an event, an activity or individuals.

It also became evident that the study would be qualitative in nature than quantitative (even though some quantitative methods such as bar graphs and histograms were applied during the data analyses phases). The study supports Neuman's assessment that "qualitative researchers use a language of cases and contexts, employ bricolage [*drawing on a variety of sources*], examine social processes and cases in their social context, and look for interpretation or the creation of meaning in specific settings" (2003:146). It is

also acknowledged that qualitative research and case-study research are not identical but “almost all qualitative research seeks to construct representations based on in-depth, detailed knowledge of cases” (Ragin, 1994:92).

Quantitative researchers must satisfy the methodological requirements of objectivity, reliability and validity unconditionally to ensure that their studies are free from bias and the data has been checked, controlled and undistorted (Smaling, 1989). The equivalent of objectivity in qualitative and case-study research is the concept of ‘trustworthiness’ or the neutrality of the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Babbie and Mouton (2001) declare that, to operationalise ‘trustworthiness’, the research needs to be credible, dependable, confirmable and transferable. The concepts of credibility and dependability are overlapping concepts and Babbie and Mouton (2001) confirm that techniques used to demonstrate that the study is credible are sufficient to establish the existence of dependability.

In order to establish trustworthiness, based on the concepts of credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability, this study achieved this in the following manner:

#### **4.2.1 Credibility and dependability**

Babbie and Mouton (2001: 277) state that credibility and dependability would be achieved, if the constructed realities that exist in the minds of respondents were compatible with those that are attributed to them. The researcher found that the best way to achieve credibility was to triangulate the study methods. Triangulation is the application and combination of several research methods in the study of the same phenomenon. Researchers need to understand the usefulness of the data collected in terms of:

- how accurate a picture is presented;
- whether the conclusions in the research are applicable; and
- can others repeat the research and would they obtain similar results?

A weakness in one data-collection method could be avoided by using a second method, which is strong in the area that the first method is weak. Triangulation might be used in this instance to refer to multi-method research in which both qualitative and quantitative research methods are combined to provide a more complete set of findings. For example, when researchers interview people it is taken on trust that the respondent is telling the truth. However, by using another method such as observation of a person's behaviour in everyday life, the information provided could either be corroborated or refuted. This combination of methods is known as triangulation and this study has employed this technique to crosscheck the credibility of the data.

Denzin (1970) extended the idea of triangulation beyond its conventional association with research methods and designs. He distinguished four forms of triangulation:

- *data triangulation*, which entails gathering data through several sampling strategies so that pieces of data at different times and social situations, as well as on a variety of people, are gathered (Guion, 2002);
- *investigator/researcher triangulation*, which refers to the use of more than one researcher in the field to gather and interpret data;
- *theoretical triangulation*, which refers to the use of more than one theoretical perspective in interpreting data; and
- *methodological triangulation*, which refers to the use of more than one method for gathering data.

This study engaged three types of triangulation:

#### **4.2.1.1 Data triangulation**

This method involves the use of different sources of data/information including primary and secondary literature sources. Primary information was also elicited through the interview process. The researcher categorised the

responses of the land-reform stakeholders (commonage users, Nama Khoi and Richtersveld Municipalities and government and non-governmental organisations) as part of the evaluation of the performance of the commonage users in relation to the DLA's commonage sub-programme. The responses from the tourism stakeholders (Richtersveld CPA and tourism authorities in the Northern Cape) were also categorised to enable the researcher to draw conclusions and formulate guidelines on sustainable tourism for commonages.

The researcher also obtained data from a workshop that she participated in on the development of the Northern Cape Tourism Master Plan in November 2004. The data was subsequently coded according to qualitative techniques using various themes that were clustered together from the interview schedule of questions.

#### **4.2.1.2 Theory triangulation**

Theory triangulation involves the use of multiple professional perspectives to interpret a single set of information. The theories of sustainable tourism, sustainable development, land and agrarian reform and sustainable livelihoods have been applied to interpret the data.

#### **4.2.1.3 Triangulation of observers**

The researcher employed three field researchers during this study to provide different perspectives on the case studies. Researchers were paired for the interview sessions, where one would interview and the other would observe the subjects. This process proved to be more objective in analysing the interviews after the session had ended and field notes were compiled.

#### **4.2.2 Confirmability**

Babbie and Mouton (2001:278) state that confirmability "is the degree to which the findings are the product of the focus of the inquiry and not the biases of

the researcher”. Six classes of data were reviewed, as part of the study, to ensure that a significant ‘confirmability audit trail’ was left (Lincoln & Guba, 1985):

#### **4.2.2.1 Instrument development information**

A preliminary research schedule and semi-structured interview schedules were developed (See Step 2c).

#### **4.2.2.2 Raw data**

Recorded audio cassettes, written field notes and the completed questionnaires were also used in this study.

#### **4.2.2.3 Data reduction and analysis products**

Transcripts of the interviews, write-ups of the field notes and the completed interview schedules were used to reduce and analyse the data for this study (See Figure 4.3).

#### **4.2.2.4 Data reconstruction and synthesis**

Based on the data analysis, themes were developed and the results were summarised in a report format according to the themes before inclusion into Chapters 5 and 6 of this study (See Figure 4.3 and Steps 5a and 5b).

#### **4.2.2.5 Process notes**

The researcher wrote down the steps followed in the research process and this is discussed under Steps 1 to 6 of this chapter.

#### **4.2.2.6 Material relating to intentions and dispositions**

A research proposal and a research design was formulated initially to guide the development of the study and later reformulated into the research question (1.7) and research objectives (1.8).

### 4.2.3 Transferability

“This refers to the extent to which the findings can be applied in other contexts or with other respondents” (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:277). Non-probability purposive sampling is one strategy that this study employed to achieve transferability. The researcher wanted to make use of case studies (commonage projects) rather than draw a representative sample from all the commonage users in Namaqualand. This would have been time consuming and commonage users would have been spread all over the province and not necessarily within the SNTR locale.

It was also easier to utilise the non-probability purposive sampling technique (See Step 2b) to firstly select case studies and then purposively select users within these projects because of the rural nature of the projects and the fact that some of the users were unavailable due to work commitments or could not be located at the time of the interviews. Random sampling techniques could not be employed because the variables could not be easily defined. The case-study approach also allowed the researcher to focus gradually on the research question while gathering data on the topic. This is unlike quantitative research that starts with a hypothesis and the topic is narrowed once all the data has been collected.

## 4.3 THE SIX-STEP CASE-STUDY APPROACH

The following six steps (See Figure 4.1) have been proposed, based on the suggested techniques of established case-study researchers such as Simons (1980), Stake (1995), and Yin (1984):

- Step 1:* Determination and definition of the research questions and literature review;
- Step 2:* Case-study selection and determination of data gathering and analysis techniques;
- Step 3:* Preparations to collect the data;
- Step 4:* Collection of data;

Step 5: Analysis of data; and

Step 6: Proposition of recommendations based on the results obtained from the data.

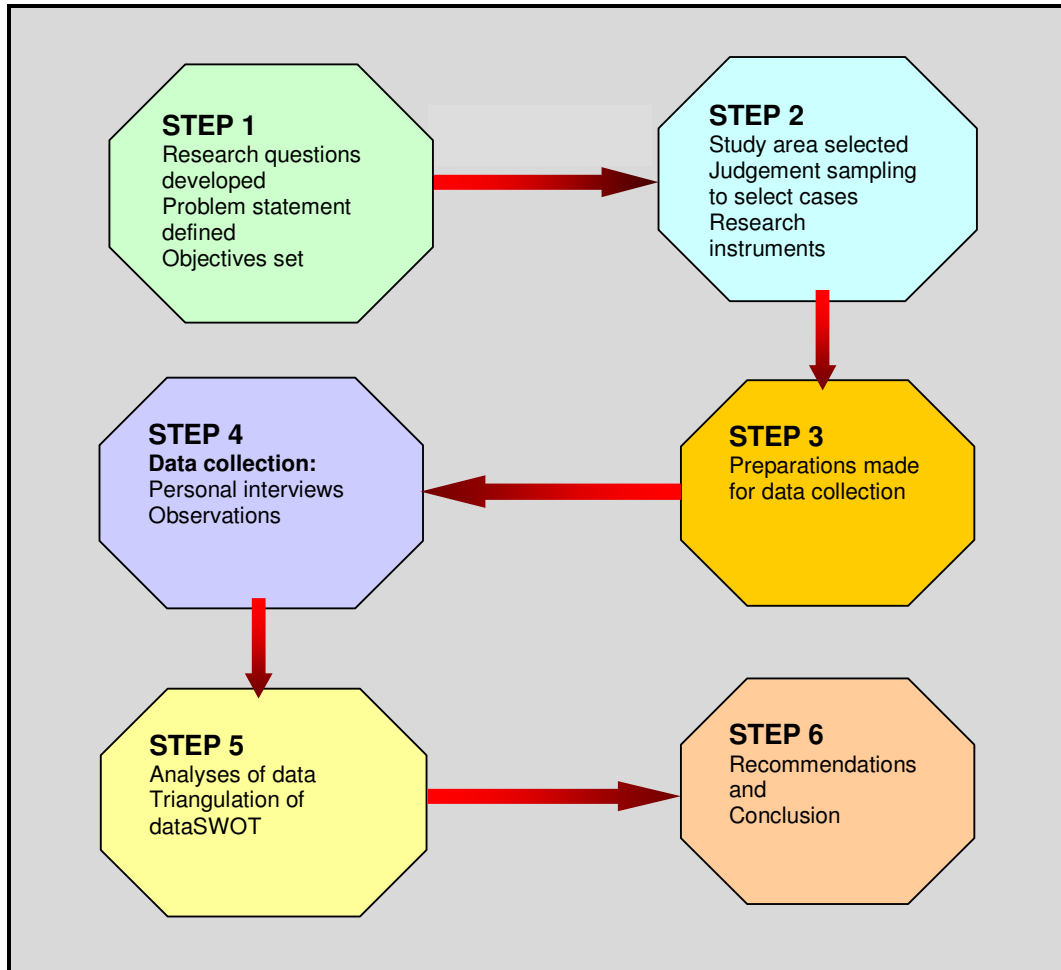


Figure 4.1: Case-study approach

(Source: Simons, 1980; Stake, 1995; Yin, 1984)

**Step 1: Determination and definition of the research questions and literature review**

General literature on land reform and tourism were sourced so that the researcher could determine the problem and establish the research question. Primary data were obtained from the Departments of Land Affairs and Environmental Affairs and Tourism in the form of policy documents, legislation, white papers and unpublished reports. Secondary data such as

newspaper articles, published reports and books, provided further general knowledge on the problem and grounding that led to the formulation of the research question and investigative sub-questions. Objectives were then determined in a systematic manner so that the study could conclude with concrete answers/recommendations to the research question and sub-questions posed.

Once the objectives were formulated, specific literature on land redistribution through commonages and sustainable tourism had to be acquired and assessed. Primary and secondary data were also utilised for this purpose and were obtained from a variety of sources.

**Step 2: Case-study selection and determination of the data-gathering and analysis techniques**

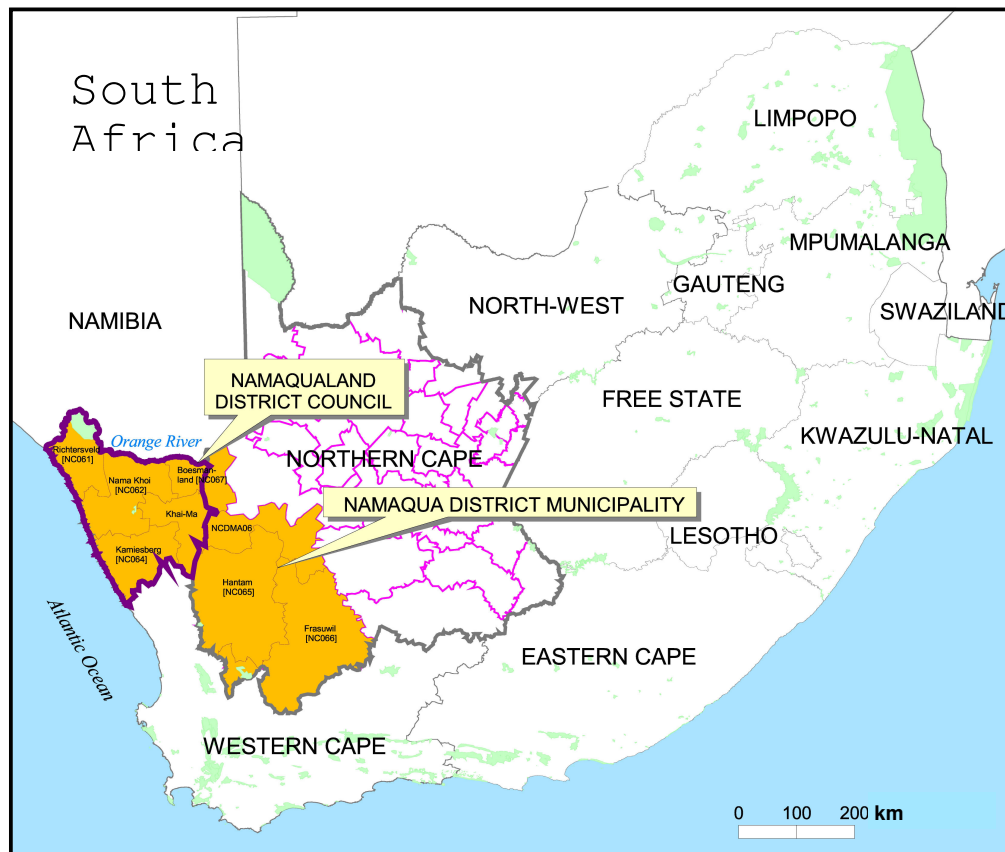
**(a) Case-study area:**

In relation to the empirical research, Namaqualand (See Figure 4.2) in the Northern Cape Province was selected because:

- it is the largest district in the province;
- agricultural activities such as livestock farming have been given more prominence than any other economic sector after the closure of the copper mines in the area;
- Namaqualand has vast untapped sustainable tourism potential in the form of ecotourism, adventure tourism, desert tourism and cultural tourism; and
- Namaqualand is described on the Northern Cape Provincial Government's website as a region of contrasts ("Namaqualand", 2005).

Namaqualand borders on the Atlantic to the west, the Orange River border of Namibia to the north, Oranje and Bo-Karoo Districts to the east, and Western Cape to the south. Namaqualand (also called Namakwa District) is made up of four municipalities with 25 towns: Kamiesberg, Namakhoi, Richtersveld and Khai-Ma. It covers an area of 48 000 km<sup>2</sup> and has an estimated population of 100 000 people (Rohde, Benjaminsen & Hoffman, 2001).





**Figure 4.2: Map of Namaqualand**

(Source: Namakwa District Municipality, 2005)

As stated in Section 1.9.2, the majority of Namaqualand's towns form part of the SNTR. The emerging SNTR initiative is a community-based tourism route that is being developed based on equitable, sustainable and responsible tourism in conjunction with local people from the route. The aim of this initiative is to establish a self-regulated tourism industry that will ensure that benefits accrue to local people.

The DEAT has developed a Section 21-company to undertake the management of this route. Various initiatives, such as the facilitation of a study tour series for old and young on community-based natural resource management to preserve the valuable natural and cultural heritage along the route and the 'Youth Leaders for the Environment' Programme, are part of the appeal of the SNTR.

**(b) Non-probability purposive sampling**

The study supports the arguments of Becker (1998) that it would be impossible to study every case and that there should be no generalization of the results from case studies. Based on this, the study employed the non-probability sampling technique called purposive sampling to sample 19 commonage projects out of a possible 21 projects in the Namaqualand region. The 19 projects were located in the towns that form part of the SNTR (See Section 1.9.2). Six commonage projects were selected based on the purposive sampling technique described below. The six commonage projects are located in three towns (Steinkopf, Springbok and Port Nolloth - See Figure 4.2) and are administered by two of the local municipalities: Richtersveld (Port Nolloth) and Nama Khoi (Springbok and Steinkopf) as part of the Namakwa District Council.

Neuman (2003) avers that purposive sampling is an acceptable kind of sampling for special situations. It uses the judgement of an expert in selecting cases or it selects cases with a specific purpose in mind. Neuman (2003) also notes that it is inappropriate if it is used to pick the 'average housewife' or 'typical school'. With purposive sampling, a researcher does not know whether the cases selected represent the population. Purposive sampling was found to be appropriate in relation to the study because the researcher wanted to identify particular commonage projects for in-depth investigation. In an effort to minimise costs, purposive sampling was found to be the most cost-effective method of sampling for the purposes of the research. Purposive sampling allows the researcher to obtain all possible cases that fit the particular criteria using various methods.

The ensuing criteria were used to sample these projects utilising the purposive sampling technique (See **Annexure 1**):

- location in or near to ( $\pm 40$ km) towns forming part of the SNTR;
- size of the redistributed land. The projects were ranked from one to nineteen (one being the project with the most hectares and nineteen the project with the least amount of land);

- ownership of the commonages belonging to Nama Khoi Municipality and Richtersveld Municipality;
- location to national roads. There are two national roads (N7 and N14) that run through Namaqualand heading towards Namibia; and
- location to other natural wonders that are tourist draw-cards such as nature reserves or national parks. There are two nature reserves (Skilpad Wildflower Reserve and Goegap Nature Reserve) and one national park, the Richtersveld National Park.

The procedures used to select the commonage projects were as follows:

- All towns in the Namaqualand region were listed in alphabetical order in the table (See **Annexure 1**).
- The towns that formed part of the SNTR were then marked with a tick. There were only 10 towns that formed part of this route.
- All the commonage projects were then placed in a separate column next to their town of origin. Ten towns shared 19 projects between them. Two of the SNTR towns, Port Nolloth and Steinkopf, had four of the commonage projects between them (Port Nolloth Commonage, Breekhoorn/Nakanas, Steenbok and Taaibosmond). Port Nolloth and Steinkopf form part of the Richtersveld and Nama Khoi local municipalities respectively. These four projects were automatically selected as the towns they were located in formed part of the SNTR and were within the local municipal areas stipulated in the criteria.
- The commonages were ranked according to size with the largest ranked number 1 and the smallest ranked number 19. The smallest (Draay Commonage) and largest (Taaibosmond) were included in the sample. Taaibosmond formed part of the four commonages referred to earlier.
- The final selection of the sixth commonage project (Springbok commonage) was based on its location next to the Draay commonage. It was located within the Nama Khoi Local Municipality's boundary and situated about 40 kilometres from the SNTR and Skilpad Nature Reserve.

Table 4.1 then reflects the final six projects selected for the field study.

**Table 4.1: Sampled commonage projects in Namaqualand**

Project Name	Location	Municipality	Date/Year Transferred	Hectares
Taaibosmond Commonage	Steinkopf	Nama Khoi	06.04.2000	46 154,3635
Breekhoorn/ Nakanas	Steinkopf	Nama Khoi	12.03.1999	32 669,1399
Steenbok Commonage	Steinkopf	Nama Khoi	01.06.1999	31 200,0664
Port Nolloth Commonage	Port Nolloth	Richtersveld	28.03.2002	22 668,5887
Springbok Commonage (for Bergsig and Matjieskloof communities in Springbok)	Springbok	Nama Khoi	18.03.1999	7 039,6932
Springbok/ Draay	Springbok	Nama Khoi	28.02.2003	2 876,6678

### (c) Development of the research instruments

Once the case studies were selected, appropriate research instruments were developed. Four semi-structured questionnaires for the personal interview phase were developed to aid in data collection. The questionnaires consisted of both open-ended<sup>25</sup> and close-ended<sup>26</sup> questions. The questionnaires were used during the interviews and provided the researcher with a guide to obtain feedback and delve deeper into any issue that the respondent has put forward.

The interviews with the commonage users and authorities (See **Annexures 2** and **3** for the lists of respondents), guided by the semi-structured questionnaires (See **Annexures 4** and **5**), provided the researcher with

<sup>25</sup> An open-ended question is essentially an unstructured question that tries to elicit a free response from the respondents.

<sup>26</sup> A close-ended question is structured with a fixed response from a list of possible choices.

information on what the current farming conditions on the commonages were, whether the users were satisfied with livestock farming as a livelihood and obtained their opinions on whether tourism ventures could be established on the commonages they were using. The findings of the interviews and information gleaned from the literature were incorporated in the development of the planning guidelines presented in Chapter 7.

The purposes of the interviews with the Eksteenfontein community (See **Annexure 6** for a list of respondents) through semi-structured questionnaires (See **Annexures 7** and **8**) were to gain knowledge on community tourism through the establishment of Rooiberg conservancy model, to identify strengths and weaknesses in the model and to assess whether this model can create sustainable livelihoods through tourism. The findings also contributed towards the formulation of the guidelines for sustainable tourism on commonages.

### **Step 3: Preparations to collect the data**

Case-study research generates a large amount of data from multiple sources and systematic organisation of the data is important to prevent the researcher from becoming overwhelmed by the amount of data and from losing sight of the research objectives and questions. The researcher had prepared a simple file-based system to assist with the categorisation, sorting, storing and retrieving of data.

Field researchers were employed to assist in the data collection process and a pilot study of a non-sampled commonage project was undertaken to prepare the researchers and remove obvious barriers, problems and ambiguities.

### **Step 4: Collection of the data**

#### **(a) Personal interviews**

The advantage of face-to-face interviews is that they have the highest response rate and permit the longest questionnaires (Neuman, 2003). Neuman (2003) cautions about interviewer bias and leading respondents to respond in a certain way, but the researcher avoided this by using another

field researcher to interview half the respondents while she covertly observed the interviews, and vice versa. This also aided in triangulating the information that was received from the respondents. The objectives of these interviews were to establish what were the current farming conditions on the commonages, whether the users were satisfied with livestock farming as a livelihood and to obtain their opinions on whether sustainable tourism ventures could be established on the commonages they were utilising.

Face-to-face interviews were effectively employed to explain questions simply and in Afrikaans (the home language of commonage users and Eksteenfontein residents). The benefits of this interviewing technique are as follows:

- it gave the researcher freedom to explore general views and opinions in more detail;
- it allowed the researcher the flexibility to phrase questions differently during the interview or change some questions to suit the interview; and
- it encouraged two-way communication and respondents were free to ask the researcher questions and eager to divulge sensitive information without prompting. Respondents also gave permission to record the data on tape and the tapes were then transcribed.

Face-to-face interviews, with the semi-structured questionnaires serving as guides, were considered the methods of choice because a survey instrument that could be dropped off and collected later would have served no purpose because of the language barriers. A telephone survey would have been ineffective because many of the respondents did not have either landlines or cellular telephones. In terms of the interviews with the commonage users, each interview lasted  $\pm 1\frac{1}{2}$  hours. Some of the interviews took place at the homes of the commonage users while others took place on the commonages. This also offered the researcher an opportunity to observe the conditions on the commonage farms and at the homes of the users and to write down additional observations.

Thirty-four face-to-face interviews were conducted with commonage users from the six commonage projects over a ten-day period in November 2004. Four officials, one each from the Department of Agriculture, the Department of Land Affairs, the Nama Khoi Municipality and the Richtersveld Municipality, were also interviewed.

In relation to the sustainable tourism conservancy venture interviews in Eksteenfontein (See Figure 4.2), two additional field researchers (community volunteers) and the researcher conducted 42 face-to-face interviews with adult (18 years and older) members of the Eksteenfontein community and conservancy management over nine-day period in November 2004. There are approximately 700 people in Eksteenfontein of which 300 are adults. Some of the adults are employed on the mines and some have left the area to pursue tertiary studies or seek employment in other provinces. The 42 people interviewed were either directly involved with the conservancy or had some knowledge of this development. The use of the volunteer community field researchers proved successful as this seemed to have elicited credible and honest responses from the close-knit community and aided in identifying the respondents.

In addition, interviews were conducted with government tourism officials involved with sustainable tourism opportunities for communities in the area. The Steinkopf Farmers Association was approached to provide background on Northern Cape agriculture, in particular its successes and failures in Namaqualand. The Provincial Managers of the Departments of Land Affairs and Agriculture were also approached to give their opinions on land redistribution and agricultural development in the Northern Cape. The managers of the sustainable community tourism initiatives in the Richtersveld National Park were questioned on the positive and negative aspects of this venture.

**(b) Observation**

The study utilised both participant observation and non-participant observation techniques:

*Participant observation*<sup>27</sup>: Participant observation involves the researcher's getting to know the people or situation she is studying by entering into the subject's world and participating (either overtly or covertly) in that world (Livesey, 2004). This type of subjective research method allows researchers to place themselves in the shoes of the respondents in an attempt to experience events in a way that is similar to the experiences of the people or the situation being studied.

The researcher employed this technique during the visit to the sustainable tourism venture in Eksteenfontein. The researcher stayed at the guesthouse in the village and participated in a tour to the Rooiberg Conservancy. This type of observation was necessary to experience tourism from a tourist's point of view and to ascertain whether tourists will be enticed into returning, thereby contributing to the sustainability of this venture.

*Non-participant observation*<sup>28</sup>: This technique was employed during visits to the commonage projects. A simple example of this type of method might be a television documentary that involves a camera crew that observe and record people's behaviour as they go about their daily lives. The method can be covert (secret) where the subjects are unaware that they are being observed or overt (open) where the subject is aware of this observation.

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<sup>27</sup> The researcher has been trained in this method and has utilized this technique in other studies both professionally (Department of Land Affairs: Review of Farm Equity Schemes in 2005, Review of the LRAD Grant Size, in 2004, LRAD Rapid Assessment in 2005) and academically (Masters dissertation in 1997: Group Credit Associations and their relevance for housing development for the poor in Wiggins, Durban, South Africa).

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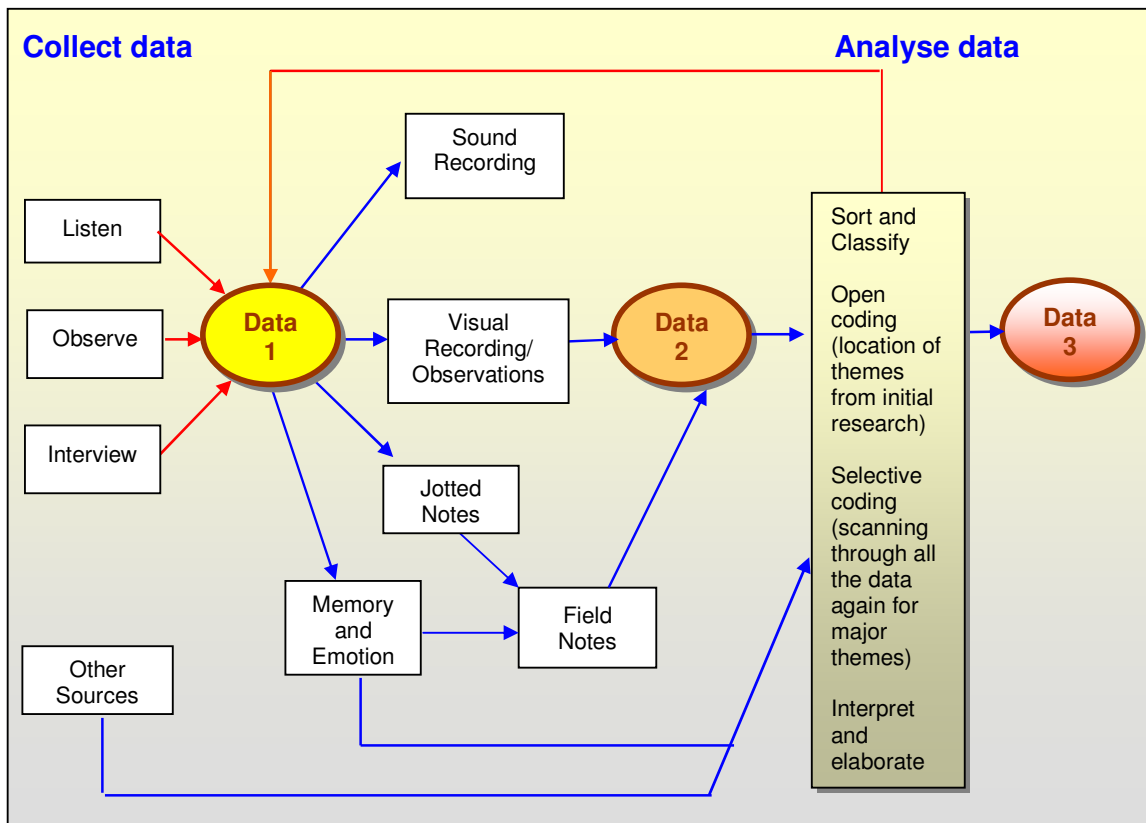


Most of the commonage users were interviewed at their homes or places that were convenient for them and made them feel at ease with the researcher and field researchers. Once the interviews were concluded, the researcher and one field researcher accompanied the users to the commonage farms to observe overtly their livestock operations and general conditions on the farms.

Observations by the researcher and field researcher were written in a field note diary and recorded immediately after the occurrence. The notes were then ordered chronologically with the date, time and place on each entry. Kirk and Miller (1986) call these *direct observation notes* which they consider a basic source of field data for any researcher who needs a detailed description of what was heard or seen in specific terms.

### Step 5: Analyses of data

Figure 4.3 illustrates the data collection and analysis process.



**Figure 4.3: Data collection and analysis process**

(Source: Adapted from Ellen, 1984)

**Data 1:** Raw data assimilated through the researcher's experience.

**Data 2:** Recorded data from field research.

**Data 3:** Selected processed data presented in a final report.

**a) Data synthesis process**

The researcher examined the raw data using many interpretations to find linkages between the research object and the outcomes with reference to the original research questions. Throughout the evaluation and analysis process, the researcher remained objective and opened to new insights. The researcher categorised, tabulated and recombined data to address the initial objectives of the study, crosschecked facts and discrepancies in accounts with the other field researchers. Microsoft Excel was utilised during the tabulation process and simple pie charts, histograms and bar graphs were prepared to present graphical pictures of the data.

Secondary data from newspaper articles, project business plans and administrative reports, other media reports and information obtained from the Internet were integrated with the primary data obtained. A SWOT model was then applied to analyse the data further.

**b) SWOT analysis**

A SWOT analysis is a comparison of an organisation's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. The SWOT analysis involves an examination of the organisation's external and internal environments. In relation to the internal environment, a thorough analysis of the organisation's internal processes and structures are conducted. The purpose of such an analysis is to establish its strengths and its weaknesses.

In relation to the external environment, a thorough analysis is conducted of the organisation's macro (remote) and operating (market/competitive) environments and this would provide the information needed to identify an organisation's opportunities and threats. An assessment of the external

environment tends to focus on positive and negative external factors that influence the organisation (Start & Hovland, 2004).

Once all the factors have been determined, these factors can then be evaluated based on their impacts and occurrence and appropriate response strategies/policies can then be formulated (Start & Hovland, 2004). Table 4.2 shows the SWOT matrix and its underlying logic.

**Table 4.2: SWOT analysis matrix**

	Factors that help the organisation achieve its objectives	Factors that prevent an organisation from achieving its objectives
Internal factors under the control of managers	<b>STRENGTH</b>	<b>WEAKNESS</b>
External factors outside the control of managers	<b>OPPORTUNITY</b>	<b>THREAT</b>

(Source: Wickham, 2000)

The matrix has been applied to assess the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats for sustainable tourism on commonages in Namaqualand through SWOT assessments of the selected commonage projects and the conservancy tourism project. While it may not be the best method of analysis, the SWOT model can be quickly applied to obtain a general assessment where the critical factors can be determined. In detailed planning, a socio-economic, gap analysis and/or stakeholder analysis should ideally follow the SWOT analysis. The synthesis of the SWOT analysis and the conceptual framework resulted in the proposed planning guidelines that received attention in Chapter 7.

**Step 6: Proposition of recommendations based on the results obtained from the data**

Ideally, the researcher wanted to use focus groups in the Namaqualand area to review and comment on the draft guidelines and based on comments received would have made revisions where necessary. However, time and

financial constraints prevented the researcher from adopting this approach. The researcher paid particular attention to displaying sufficient evidence that all avenues have been explored by clearly communicating the boundaries of the sampled projects or cases, and gave special attention to conflicting propositions when it arose.

The analysed data and literature provided the impetus for the formulation of guidelines for inclusion of sustainable tourism ventures on commonages as a contribution to sustainable development in Namaqualand.

#### **4.4 CONCLUSION**

Chapter 4 provided a discussion on the methods employed to conduct the study. The range of methods adopted has been carried out within the ambit of the six-step case-study approach. An explanation of the purposive sampling technique, the development of the research instruments, data collection techniques (interviews and observations) and data analyses (triangulation, synthesis and SWOT) was provided in detail.

The next chapter provides the empirical evidence collated from the six commonages visited as part of the study with the aim of understanding whether agricultural activities on commonages has created sustainable livelihoods and to assess the respondents' perceptions with regard to sustainable tourism on commonages.

## **Chapter 5**

### **COMMONAGE PROJECTS IN NAMAQUALAND**

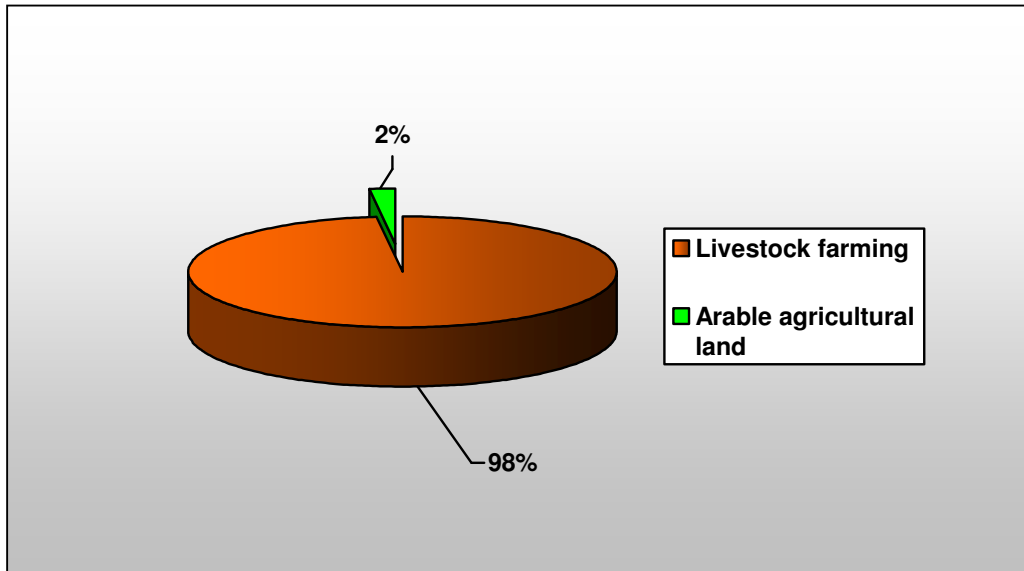
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#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The objective of this chapter is to present the results of the interviews undertaken with the commonage users of the six identified commonage projects in Namaqualand and authorities that are involved in land and agrarian reform in the district. Perceptions on whether agricultural development has created sustainable livelihoods and whether tourism could lead to sustainable livelihoods were analysed and interpreted utilising the SWOT model (See Step 5C of Chapter 4). An understanding of the current situation on commonages and the communities' perceptions on tourism has aided in establishing a more concrete response to the research question and its investigative sub-question posed in Section 1.7: *What role can sustainable tourism play in commonage projects? What are the successes and failures of agrarian driven commonage projects in Namaqualand?*

#### **5.2 LAND-USE IN THE NORTHERN CAPE**

The Northern Cape is an arid region. Figure 5.1 illustrates the major agricultural land-use patterns in this region. The arid nature of the Northern Cape has allowed the livestock industry to thrive. The 2% of arable land is primarily located near the Orange River and features the production of table grapes as the predominant agricultural practice (Department of Tourism, Environment and Conservation, 2004). Only 1% to 3.7% of the total land mass of the Northern Cape is set aside for conservation (Blignaut & Wilson, 2000; National Botanical Institute, 2004). Urbanisation in the province is quite low at 0.1% (Department of Tourism, Environment and Conservation, 2004).



**Figure 5.1: Agricultural land-use patterns in the Northern Cape**

(Source: National Botanical Institute, 2004)

### 5.3 LAND REFORM IN THE NORTHERN CAPE

The Government of South Africa has redistributed more than half a million hectares of agricultural land through 130 tenure and redistribution projects in the Northern Cape, using subsidies. Northern Cape land reform, while focusing on land redistribution, is complicated in relation to the land rights issues of land restitution and upgrading of land tenure rights in terms of the Transformation of Certain Rural Areas Act, 1998, (Act No. 94 of 1998) or TRANCRAA as it is commonly called (Section 5.4).

Table 5.1 illustrates that the Northern Cape Province has contributed the most hectares of land through the Commonage Programme. As stated in Section 2.5.2, the municipalities are the legal owners of commonage land, with the identified users gaining access to land for agricultural purposes. One of the primary reasons for purchasing commonage is that land prices in the Northern Cape are high and that, despite subsidy funding through the LRAD grant-system, people were still not be able to afford to purchase farms on their own. One valid criticism of the commonage approach is that the DLA could have purchased the land and simply subdivided and transferred agricultural land to

selected beneficiaries without it becoming commonage land for municipalities to manage.

**Table 5.1: Northern Cape: land reform programme performance**

<b>Grant/project type</b>	<b>No. of projects</b>	<b>No. of households</b>	<b>No. of female-headed households</b>	<b>Size of land (in hectares)</b>
<b>Commonage</b>	47	1 205	32	410 0009,93
<b>Share equity schemes</b>	2	352	10	50
<b>LRAD</b>	45	422	120	41 281,54
<b>Tenure</b>	1	18	0	50
<b>Settlement/Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG)</b>	35	3 656	214	77 643,00
<b>Total</b>	130	5 653	376	528 989,09

(Source: Department of Land Affairs, 2004:27)

## **5.4 LAND REFORM IN NAMAQUALAND**

### **5.4.1 Historical overview of land dispossession in Namaqualand**

Namaqualand (See Figure 4.2) puts on a spectacular flower show every September. However, the region has a sad and unique history linked to land dispossession and poverty. In 1654, indigenous Khoi-Khoi people were forced to move northwards as the Dutch expanded from the Cape Colony, taking prime land, as they desired (Steyn, 1988).

Simon van der Stel, Governor of the Cape Colony, headed the first white expedition in 1685 from the erstwhile Cape Colony to Namaqualand. He had reports of rich copper deposits in the area and sank three prospecting shafts near Springbok. Van der Stel had carved his initials on the largest of these shafts and this has subsequently been declared a national monument (Nama Khoi Municipality, 2003). Missionaries also played a significant role in the history of Namaqualand and the town of Steinkopf is one of the towns that originated from a mission settlement. Rural people of Namaqualand are

essentially of Khoi-Khoi and San origin and were classified in terms of apartheid legislation as 'coloured'.

Namaqualand is home to the Nama people, who are direct descendants of the Khoi-Khoi people who were aboriginal hunters of Southern Africa (Boonzaaier *et al.*, 1996). Other groups such as other indigenous peoples and white settlers married many Khoi-Khoi and Nama people (*Mail and Guardian*, 1999). Their culture suffered when the apartheid regime prohibited their strange multi-click language from being taught in schools and forced them to re-locate to other areas.

#### **5.4.2 From land dispossession to land reform**

Agricultural and land reforms of Namaqualand's communal areas have been proposed repeatedly since the 19<sup>th</sup> Century, primarily by individuals with a stake in privatising the commons for commercial farming purposes. Namaqualand is an underdeveloped region that has experienced intense land struggles in the 1980s (Boonzaaier *et al.*, 1996). These struggles have tended to focus on retaining communal land in the reserves, in the face of the government's land utilization policy that threatened to leave the majority of residents landless. The reserves were based on 'tickets of occupation' issued in the 19<sup>th</sup> Century (*Mail and Guardian*, 1999). The communal lands and settlements provided cheap pools of labour to the mining industry and commercial farming sector.

Stockowners in Namaqualand had through the years called for the abolishment of the communal land or reserves based on the reasoning of over-grazing and 'free-for-all' access associated with communal grazing and resulting in Hardin's '*tragedy of the commons*' as alluded to earlier in the study. In 1963, Apartheid legislation was used to regulate the reserves in the form of the Coloured Rural Areas Act, 1963, (Act No. 9 of 1987), as amended by the TRANCRAA, (Act No. 94 of 1998) (Wisborg, 2002). This scheme entailed dividing the reserves up into 'economic' units that would be leased to aspirant farmers for a certain period until the farms could be sold.

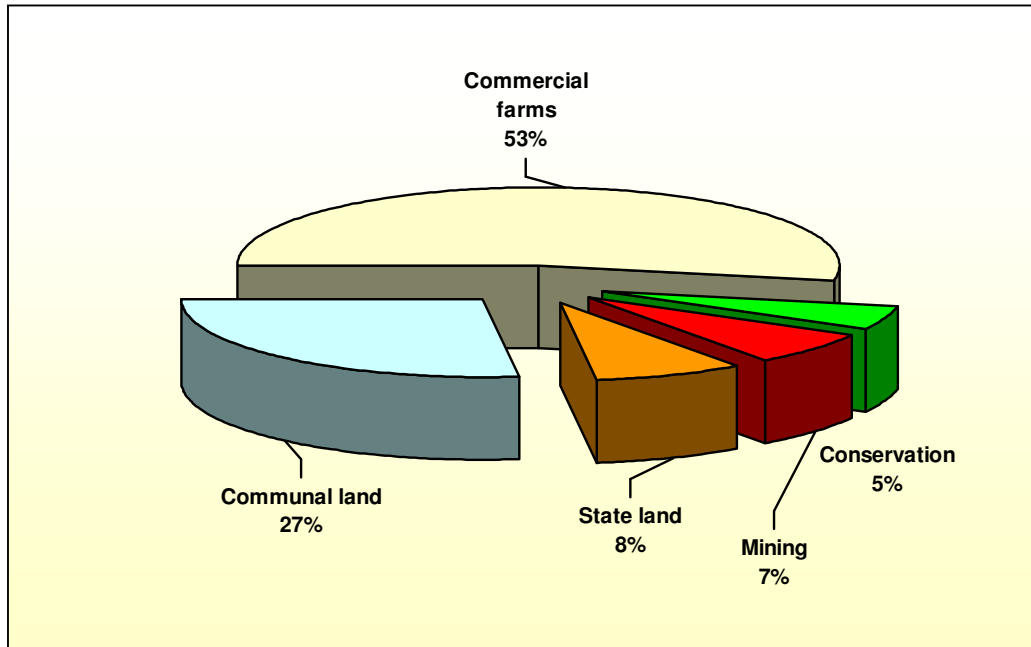


The problem was there were many households who owned livestock in most parts of Namaqualand. “In the southern part of the Richtersveld, for example, there were 37 units, ranging in size from 3 000 to 5 000 hectares. But at least 150 households owned stock” (Boonzaaier *et al.*, 1996:135). This was clearly not feasible as stock numbers exceeded the carrying capacity of those units and restricted stock movements. There was also concern on how the units were to be allocated and the use/lease fees that were going to be charged. Although the units were allocated to *bona fide* farmers, other livestock owners with single sources of income felt that the allocation process favoured the wealthier stockowners that already had other sources of income (Boonzaaier *et al.*, 1996). In the 1980s, the Leliefontein community took the matter to the courts and the government was forced to withdraw the scheme in most of the reserves in Namaqualand. This did not result in economical land use in Namaqualand nor did it solve the land-hunger in the region.

#### **5.4.3 Land-use in Namaqualand**

There are currently six areas or 23 reserves that form part of the TRANCRAA land that form the 27% or 1,2 million hectares of communal land (See Figure 5.2).

Land reform policies have played a significant role in trying to increase the land base for people in the communal areas through purchases made via the Commonage and LRAD programmes of the DLA. Five commercial LRAD projects were completed in the Namaqua district, redistributing about 2 623,86 hectares of private white-owned farmland to indigent black subsistence livestock farmers (Department of Land Affairs, 2004). However, the 580-hectare Goodhouse LRAD Paprika project in Steinkopf has been completed on TRANCRAA lands and technically this is regarded as upgrading of tenure rights as the tenants were granted 99-year leases to farm with paprika in the area. While TRANCRAA was meant to purport a rights-based approach to land reform and rural livelihoods, it would merely have sought to convert or upgrade existing land tenure arrangements in Namaqualand without necessarily altering the land holding patterns or making an impact on rural livelihoods.

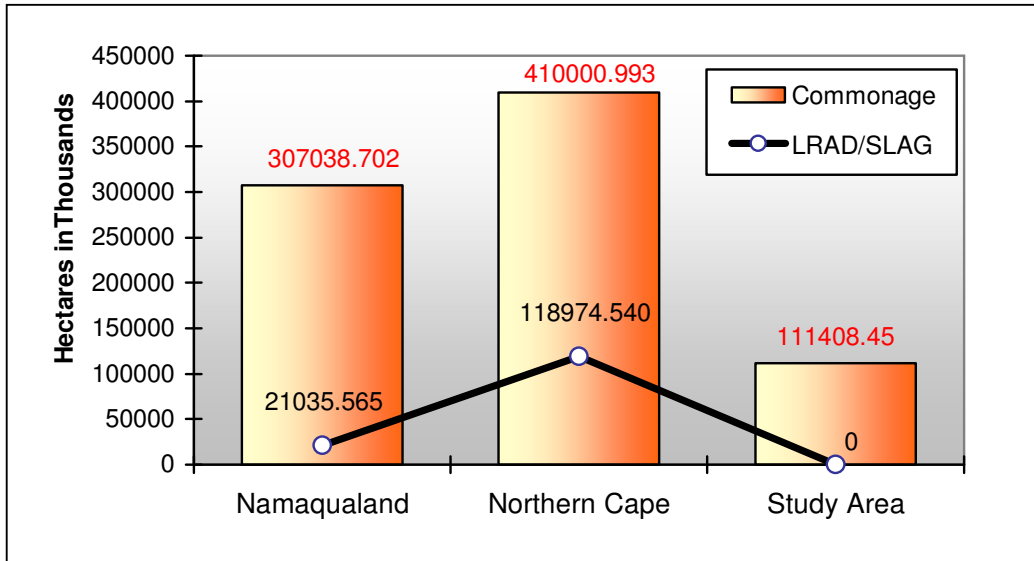


**Figure 5.2: Land-use patterns in Namaqualand (2001)**

(Source: Rohde *et al.*, 2001)

#### **5.4.4 DLA commonage sub-programme in Namaqualand**

The DLA has adopted a developmental approach especially in the Northern Cape through its commonage sub-programme. An estimated 300 000 hectares of agricultural land were purchased in Namaqualand through this sub-programme to add to the existing municipal commonage for use by poor residents, essentially for grazing and small-scale agricultural production (See Figure 5.2). This amounts to an estimated 75% of all commonage redistribution projects in the Northern Cape as at March 2003. More than a third (36%) of these projects was implemented in the study area (Steinkopf, Springbok and Port Nolloth). In relation to the study area 26 farms, in extent of approximately 100 000 hectares were purchased to make up six commonages (See Figure 5.3) for subsistence and emergent livestock farmers in the three towns. There is clearly a need from the communities in Namaqualand for agricultural land following the retrenchments in the copper and diamond mining industries in Namaqualand.



**Figure 5.3: Land redistribution in Namaqualand**

(Source: Department of Land Affairs, 2004)

“Commonage should be seen as having a dual purpose i.e. that of providing access to land for supplementing (subsistence income) and as a stepping stone for emergent farmers. This means that all commonage projects must accommodate both subsistence and emerging farmers” (Department of Land Affairs, 2000:10). Various organizations, such as the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC), Surplus Peoples Project and the Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies (PLAAS) have criticised this policy because it allows wealthier farmers to access the commonage at the expense of the subsistence farmer (Human Sciences Research Council, 2003b). The researcher contends that this was not the case in Namaqualand as people with virtually no income except social grants gained access to the commonages. It should also be noted that the DLA policy explicitly states that the commonage is to be used for agricultural purposes only, thereby restricting the community to one source of livelihood that only sometimes work for them.

#### **5.4.5 Relevance of the DLA commonage sub-programme and land redistribution for Namaqualand**

Hoffman and Rohde (2000) claim that national land redistribution policies are not effective in Namaqualand because land prices are high and private land ownership is almost impossible; therefore commonage has been the mode of land reform in this part of the province. In addition, the grazing and agricultural lands can be considered marginal where vast tracts are showing signs of overgrazing and land degradation.

Poverty and lack of livelihoods are characteristics of these communal areas (Odendaal, 2002). Research conducted on livestock farming in the Paulshoek area revealed that the net annual income per hectare is less than R10 for communal and commercial farming systems (Hoffman and Rohde, 2000). The Centre for Arid Zones Study in the United Kingdom also posed a vital question in relation to livestock farming in Namaqualand: “Do community rangelands in this region have a sustainable future?” (Young, 2002:1) The answer was that it does not have a hope of sustainability if there are no other livelihood options coupled with it or farm diversification strategies employed. Young (2002) comes to the conclusion that conservancy development should be explored as a possible livelihood strategy for some of Namaqualand’s communities.

Ainslie, 2002; Anderson and Pienaar, 2003; and Colvin, 1985, have identified the following constraints to livestock farming that are endemic to many reserve/communal areas across South Africa:

- a shortage of grazing resources;
- the large-scale abandonment of arable production in many reserve areas has left livestock without a valuable source of winter forage;
- poor quality livestock;
- prolonged periods of drought;
- a shortage of labour for livestock herding and high labour costs;
- the socio-economic impact of Human Immuno Virus (HIV)/AIDS virus on the livestock farming community;

- livestock diseases and the faltering of the government's disease-control programme in the areas;
- poor transport networks to get cattle to sales and from the point of sale to feedlots and abattoirs; and
- a lack of knowledge on the part of rural people on current market prices and related quality.

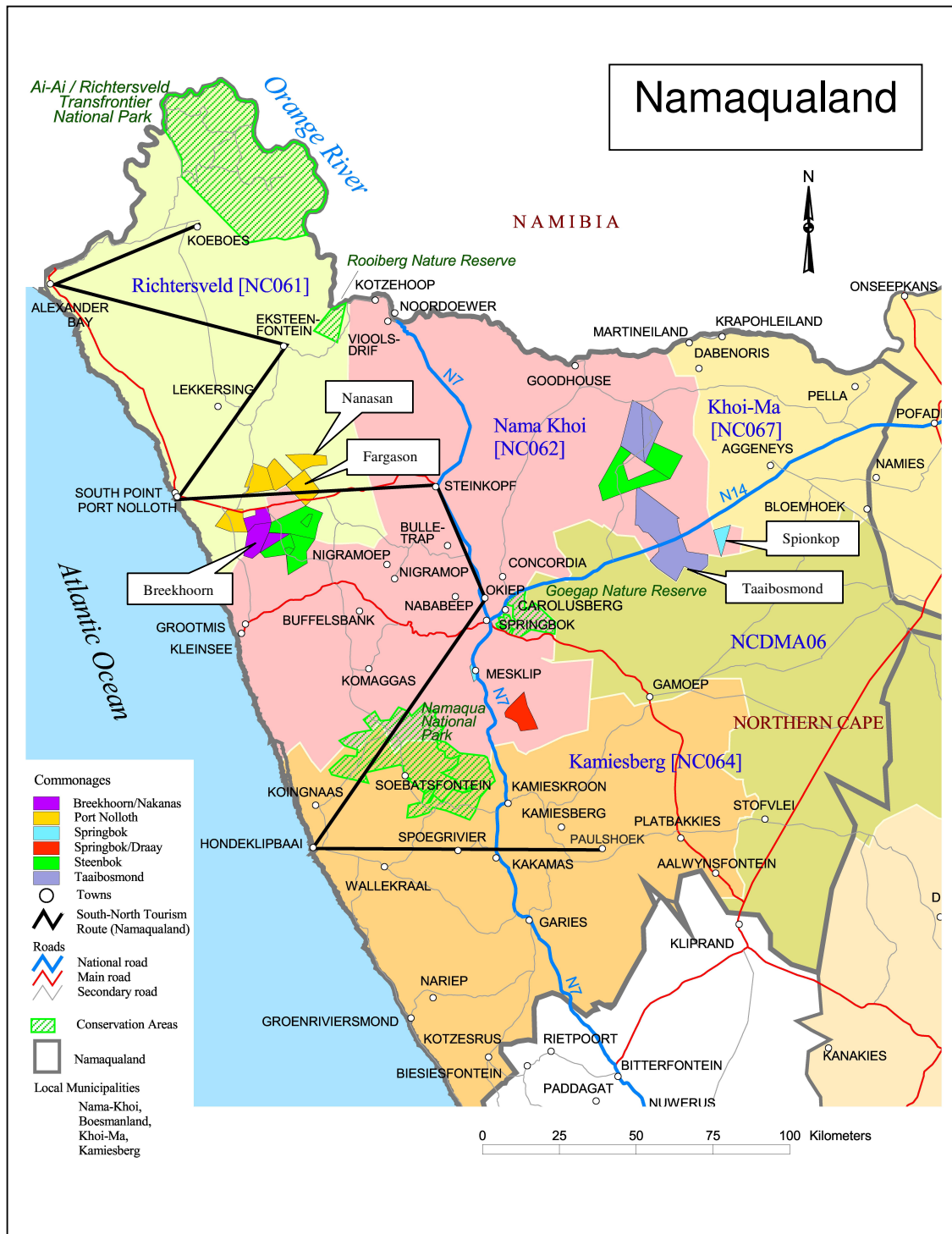
Other livelihoods in Namaqualand have also not fared well. The region has relied heavily on the mining sector but first the copper reserves and, more recently, the land-based diamond deposits became depleting. Large-scale decommissioning of mine workers means that many more families are without incomes. Anseeuw (2003) postulates that to obtain a net-revenue of R28 000 from livestock farming on Namaqualand commonages, based on different levels of capital outlay available on the different land types, a minimum investment of R57 500 is necessary. Most of the farmers on commonage land have utilised some of their retrenchment packages to start farming operations, as was evident from the case-study interviews.

## **5.5 RESULTS FROM INTERVIEWS WITH COMMONAGE USERS AND AUTHORITIES DEALING WITH COMMONAGES**

### **5.5.1 Introduction**

As stated in Chapter 4 (See Step 4), 34 face-to-face interviews were conducted with commonage users from the six commonage projects over a ten-day period in November 2004 (See **Annexure 2** for a list of respondents). Figure 5.4 outlines the sampled projects within Namaqualand in relation to the South-North Tourism Route. The map illustrates that the SNTR passes through the Port Nolloth commonage farms but these farms are not part of this tourism initiative.

Four officials, one each from the Departments of Agriculture and Land Affairs, Nama Khoi Municipality and Richtersveld Municipality, were also interviewed (See **Annexure 3** for a list of respondents).



**Figure 5.4: Sampled commonage projects in Namaqualand**

(Source of original map: Department of Land Affairs, 2006, redrawn by I Booysen, UnivPta)

The Nama Khoi and Richtersveld municipalities, who are administering these commonages, currently have 66 individual lease agreements with users. The sample size of 34 is 51,5% of the total number of users (individual livestock farmers) on the commonages and can be classified as 34 micro informal businesses. The users were identified on the following basis:

- their membership of the commonage management committees;
- their membership of the farmers' unions in the area;
- being full-time livestock farmers;
- on recommendation from the commonage managers at the municipalities concerned; and
- their availability at the time of the interviews.

The interview questionnaire for users consisted of 29 open-ended and close-ended questions that were broadly categorised as follows (See **Annexure 3**):

- Access to land and land use:
  - Reasons for accessing commonage land
  - Tenure arrangements within commonage projects
- Livestock farming;
- Commonage management:
  - The management abilities of Commonage Management Committees (CMCs)
  - The management abilities of Municipalities
- Farming and support received on commonages:
  - Capacity building
  - Improvement in livelihoods
- Commonage users perceptions of tourism:
  - Expression of interest in tourism on commonages
  - Support for future sustainable development on commonages
  - Comparison of perceptions in relation to tourism and livestock farming.

The interview questionnaire (See **Annexure 5**) for the authorities comprised of 13 questions. The analysis of these questionnaires will be dealt with under the same sections as the users' questionnaire.

## **5.5.2 Access to land and land-use**

### **5.5.2.1 Reasons for accessing the commonages**

All the users gained access to the commonage farms between 1998 and 2004, with the bulk (20) of the users coming in from 2001. Most of the users (22) had been retrenched, medically boarded or had retired from the copper mines before embarking on full-time livestock farming and their only non-farm income was the government or mine pensions of about R740 per month. The reason for entering into this business was the same: for all there were no other livelihood options available to them. Some ran small businesses prior to livestock farming and utilise profits from this business to cross-subsidise their livestock farming enterprises, while only two had actually been farming elsewhere before entering into livestock farming on the commonages. One person had been unemployed and had collected a disability pension and later old-age pension to survive. The two users that had been farmers prior to entering the commonages are young women between 25 to 30 years old who had inherited the passion for farming from their fathers. Some of the users listed 'numbers of livestock owned' and 'intention to start farming with livestock and need access to land' as determinants to gain commonage access. Table 5.2 demonstrates how the users gained access to the commonages.

The DLA approval memoranda<sup>29</sup> for these six projects indicate that the pivotal reasons for purchasing these farms for commonage use were essentially to accommodate members of the former copper mining settlements and to relieve the burden for grazing on the reserves, in this case Steinkopf. As part of a district planning exercise for Namaqualand, the Surplus Peoples Project

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<sup>29</sup> This is a system that the DLA utilises during project approval meetings to determine whether it is feasible or not for the DLA to approve a project based on the information in the approval memoranda and its attachments such as agricultural potential reports and valuation reports.



(SPP) completed a survey on the reserves to gauge what people's land needs were. The SPP Report (1997) indicated that the community of Steinkopf needed more grazing land for their stock.

**Table 5.2: Determination of access to the commonage**

How is access to the commonage determined?	Number of responses
The number of livestock owned	16
Intention to start farming with livestock and need access to land	26
Intention to access land for other agricultural or agro-processing activities	-
Other procedures not listed	-

The main findings are summarised as follows (SPP, 1997):

**Table 5.3: SPP Grazing-land needs assessment: Steinkopf**

Total extent as at September 1999 (in hectares)	Grazing capacity (per hectare of small stock unit)	Carrying capacity (per small stock unit)	Current stocking numbers	Additional land needed (in hectares)
392 869.2063	12	32 740	54 000	255 120

The distance of the commonage farms from the users' residences are as follows:

- Breekhoorn/Nakanas : ±35 km
- Port Nolloth Commonage : ±60 km
- Springbok Commonage : ±35 km
- Springbok/ Draay : ±43 km
- Steenbok Commonage : ±35 km
- Taaibosmond Commonage : ±60 km

This suggests that users need access to reliable transport, usually a bakkie because of the terrain, to access the commonage farms to transport food, water and medicines to the livestock. There were two users who did not have transport of their own and they immediately recognised this as a drawback for

them because they had to sell off or slaughter their animals so that there would be minimal maintenance costs for them. These users also had the least amount of livestock on the commonages and lived in informally built four-roomed homes as opposed to the other users that were residing in standard government built homes.

### 5.5.2.2 Land tenure arrangements within the commonage projects

All the users have individual lease agreements (See Figure 5.5) with the municipalities concerned ranging from 1 year (renewable) to life-long leases. Users pay a yearly registration fee of R75 and a fee per small stock unit (SSU) (sheep or goat) or large stock unit (LSU) (cattle) that are grazed on the commonage. The fees per SSU range from 20 cents to 50 cents while the fees for LSU range from R1 to R3. Some of the users indicated that these fees are not feasible and that it encourages overstocking and degradation of the commonages. It was also felt that the fee structure was not fair because people with more livestock on the land paid the same fees as those with less livestock. It emerged that they had no choice but to pay the fees as farming was their only source of income apart from the government pensions.

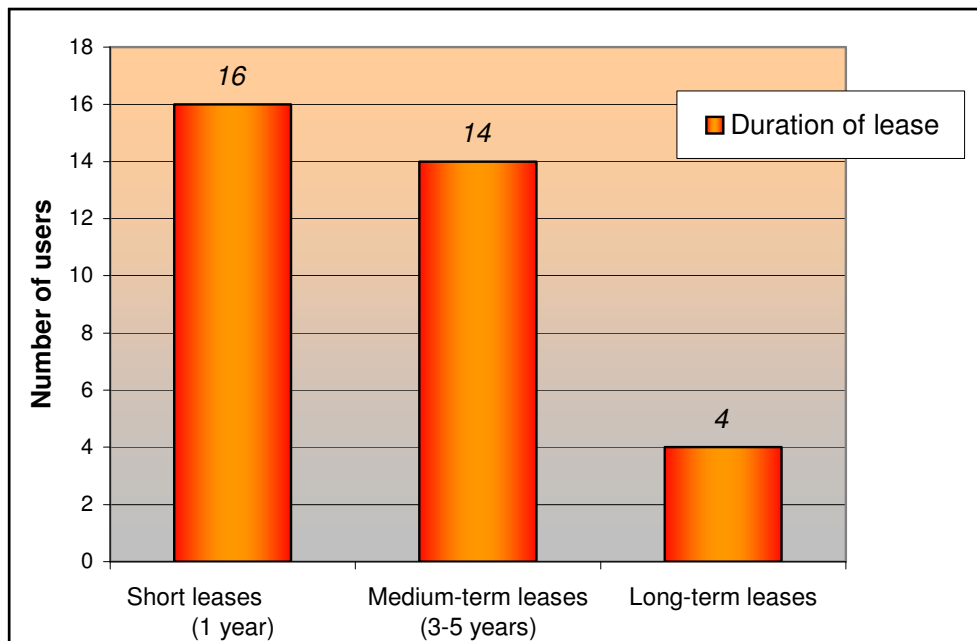


Figure 5.5: Duration of lease agreements

Although there are 66 signed lease agreements on the six commonages, the six commonages are supposed to provide benefits to 258 households that belong to farmers associations in the area (Department of Land Affairs, 1998-2002). However, user numbers were restricted because of the livestock carrying capacity of the land. In this sense the commonages are providing some benefits to only 25,5% of members of the farmers' associations. The fact that the commonage users are randomly selected on the basis of their membership to farmers' associations also discriminates against other people who may want access to the commonages for non-agricultural activities.

### 5.5.3 Livestock farming

The carrying capacity of the land often determines the stocking rates. In Namaqualand the carrying capacity is 12 hectares per SSU (SPP, 1997). Table 5.4 below indicates the number of SSUs and LSUs that had been sold or consumed from December 2003 to November 2004.

**Table 5.4: Livestock farming on commonages**

Type of animal owned	Total number	Number sold in the last 12 months	Average <sup>30</sup> selling price per unit	Total value sold	Number slaughtered for consumption
Sheep	2 825	554	R375	R207 750	123
Cattle	670	6	R1 400	R8 400	
Goats	455	49	R275	R13 475	1 100
Chickens	72	0	0		36
Pigs	11	0	0		
<b>Total</b>	<b>4 033</b>	<b>609</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>R229 625</b>	<b>1 259</b>

The users gained R13 475 from the sale of goats, R207 750 from the sale of sheep and R8 400 from the cattle sales in the same period. No estimation of actual profit and loss could be determined, as the costs were not factored in

<sup>30</sup> The Department of Agriculture was asked to verify the average prices.

as part of the assessment and not all 66 users were interviewed to obtain a holistic assessment.<sup>31</sup>

What could be ascertained from the above analysis is that the users were paying for the following items associated with livestock farming:

- transport costs to and from the commonages;
- medicine for the stock; and
- food and water for the stock.

It should also be noted that stock numbers for each user varies and that the sales averages provided above will differ for each of the farmers, and only few of the farmers actually earn profits from the sales. Only four of the users sold the animal skins and milk to earn extra income but these sales were at random and therefore not used in the analysis. It was also ascertained that the market for goat meat is not profitable therefore there is more consumption of goat meat amongst the users than sales.

The users were then questioned on the advantages and disadvantages of livestock farming on the commonages (See Table 5.5). The numbers in brackets next to each issue indicate the number of responses received.

While the disadvantages far outweigh the advantages, the majority of the users (90%) did indicate that the prolonged periods of drought has played a major role in their negativity towards livestock farming and that a rainy season could bring in some profits. It can be assumed that in a rainy season a livestock farmer only has six months of a year to effectively earn a profit on these commonages, making livestock farming a seasonal livelihoods generator.

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<sup>31</sup> This would have gone beyond the scope of the study and it would have meant analysing financial statements of users, who may not have been willing to divulge such information or have such information at their disposal. The researcher wanted to get an overall estimate of what could be earned through livestock farming.

**Table 5.5: Advantages and disadvantages of livestock farming on commonages (N=34)**

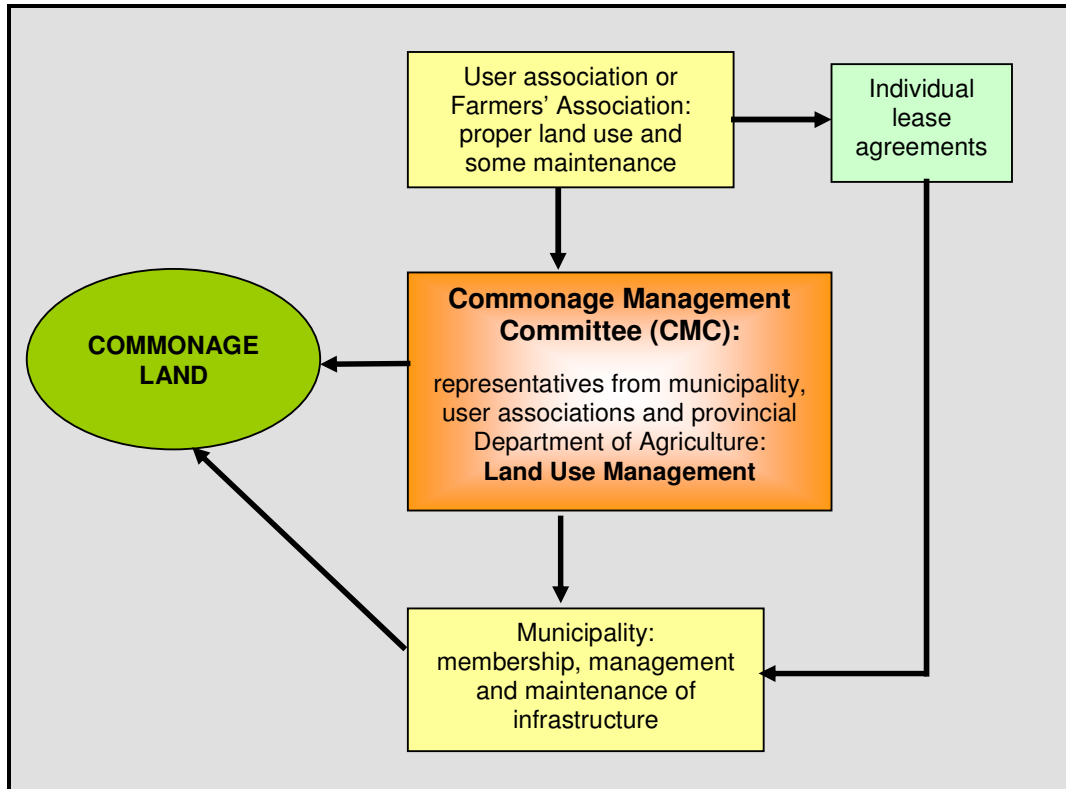
<b>Advantages</b>	<b>Disadvantages</b>
Improves household income (10)	Commonage is far from town and home (35 km to 60 km) (30)
Free advice from white commercial farmers (14)	Drought without drought relief
Grazing for animals (34)	Wild animals/predators (25)
Expansion of livestock (10)	Brackish water and limited grazing fields (34)
Some farmers have sole use of some of the farms (10)	Few boreholes on commonages (25)
Improves household food consumption (34)	Infrastructure on some of the farms is in poor condition (25)
	Soil erosion (30)
	Division of farms into summer and winter camps disadvantaged many farmers (30).
	Poor rotational grazing practices (34)
	No training or additional subsidies (30)
	Livestock restrictions (34)

#### 5.5.4 Commonage management

Three questions were asked about the management of the commonages so as to understand whether the users were actually involved in the management and to assess whether the management structures (if any) are set up adequately to meet the needs of the users. A management structure is necessary in any community development project because this structure would set democratic guidelines on what can or cannot be done on the commonages. Such a structure would act as a deterrent for users that are overstocking or contravening the land-use management plan and could also serve as a platform for the municipality and the users.

To gain access to a commonage purchased through the land redistribution programme, there must be a user association and a commonage

management committee (CMC). The user association can be an existing farmers' association that the users belong to or otherwise a user association must be established. The diagram (See Figure 5.6) reveals how the researcher views these relationships as they apply to the six commonages in Namaqualand.

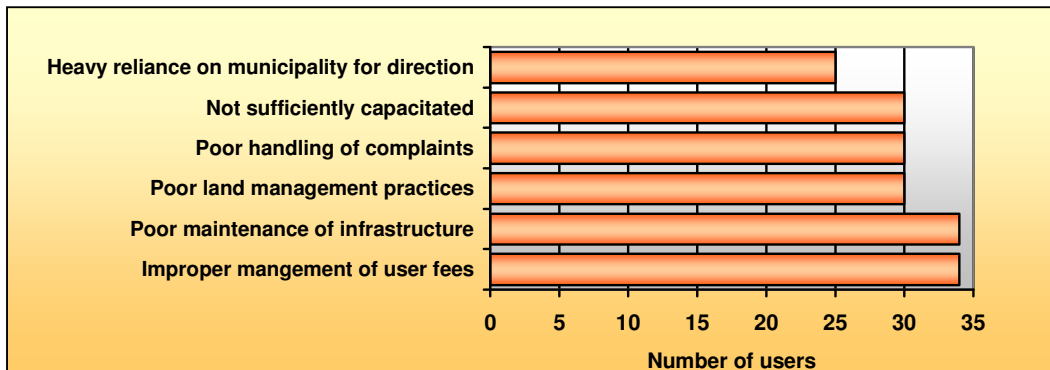


**Figure 5.6: Commonage management structures**

#### **5.5.4.1 The management abilities of the Commonage Management Committees (CMCs)**

Twenty of the users were members of the commonage management committee. It has been established that all the users have to be members of the farmers/user association prior to selection for access to the commonages. Only two users were on the management of both the CMC and a user association. The users were then asked whether the CMCs were successful and 12 replied positively, stating that the CMCs provided adequate management support, controlled grazing regulations and arranged for the collection of user fees. However, the majority disapproved of the management

abilities of the CMCs, even though 20 of the users belonged to them. Figure 5.7 includes some of the reasons cited.



**Figure 5.7: Perceptions of the management abilities of the commonage management committee**

#### **5.5.4.2 The management abilities of municipalities**

Users were also in general negative about the municipalities' participation in the management of the commonages, with 22 users stating that the municipalities do not repair infrastructure even though they pay user fees. The other users were positive about the advice and support (non-financial) received from the municipal commonage managers. Approximately 65% of the users were dissatisfied with both the CMCs' and municipalities' management capabilities. It was felt that the users themselves were more adept at repairing and maintaining the infrastructure and supporting each other on the commonages. Some of this negativity was compounded by the drought. To be fair to the municipalities concerned, there are only two commonage managers (one based at the Nama Khoi Municipality and the other in the Richtersveld Municipality) in Namaqualand and lack of capacity therefore becomes a valid excuse to some of the users' complaints. However, in relation to maintenance and repair of infrastructure such as pumps and boreholes, there is no excuse because service providers could be appointed to perform such functions.

There were contradictory answers from the two commonage managers interviewed in relation to the management of the commonages, where one

indicated that the commonages were properly managed while the other disagreed, stating that there was a culture of non-payment of fees amongst the users, overgrazing, overstocking and non-compliance to regulations. It does appear as if there are poor lines of communication between the municipalities, users and CMCs. While the CMCs contain a number of representatives from the user community, there appears to be no real delegation of powers.

### 5.5.5 Farming and support received on commonages

Researchers from the Centre for Arid Zone Studies in the United Kingdom also noted that the present conditions in Namaqualand's communal grazing areas were far from ideal and that grazing and trampling have damaged most of them (Young, 2002). A majority (30) of users agreed that farming conditions on the commonages were conducive for livestock farming with proper management and good rains, but the current conditions were listed as follows (See Figure 5.8)<sup>32</sup>:

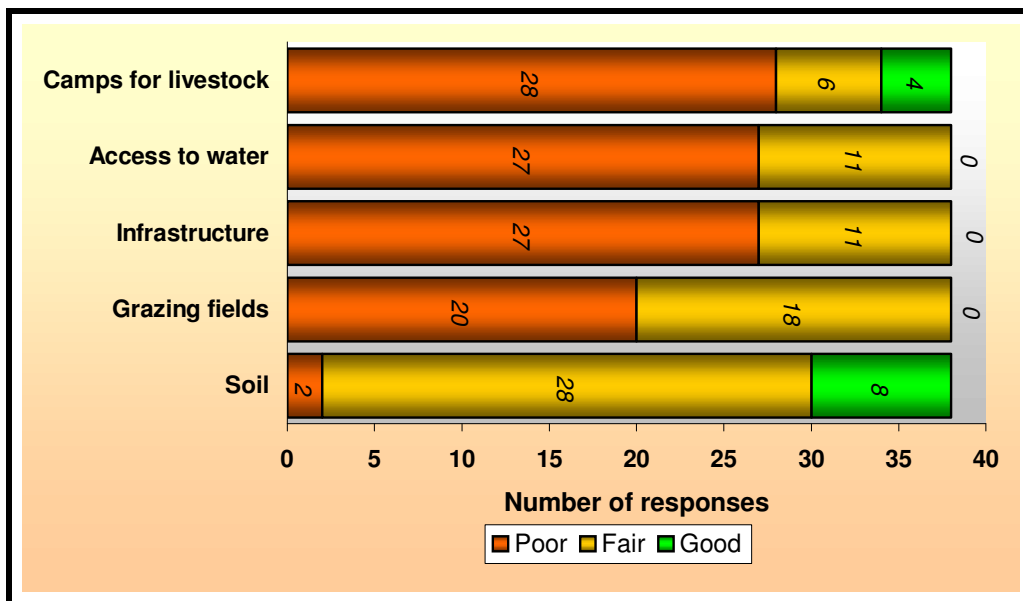
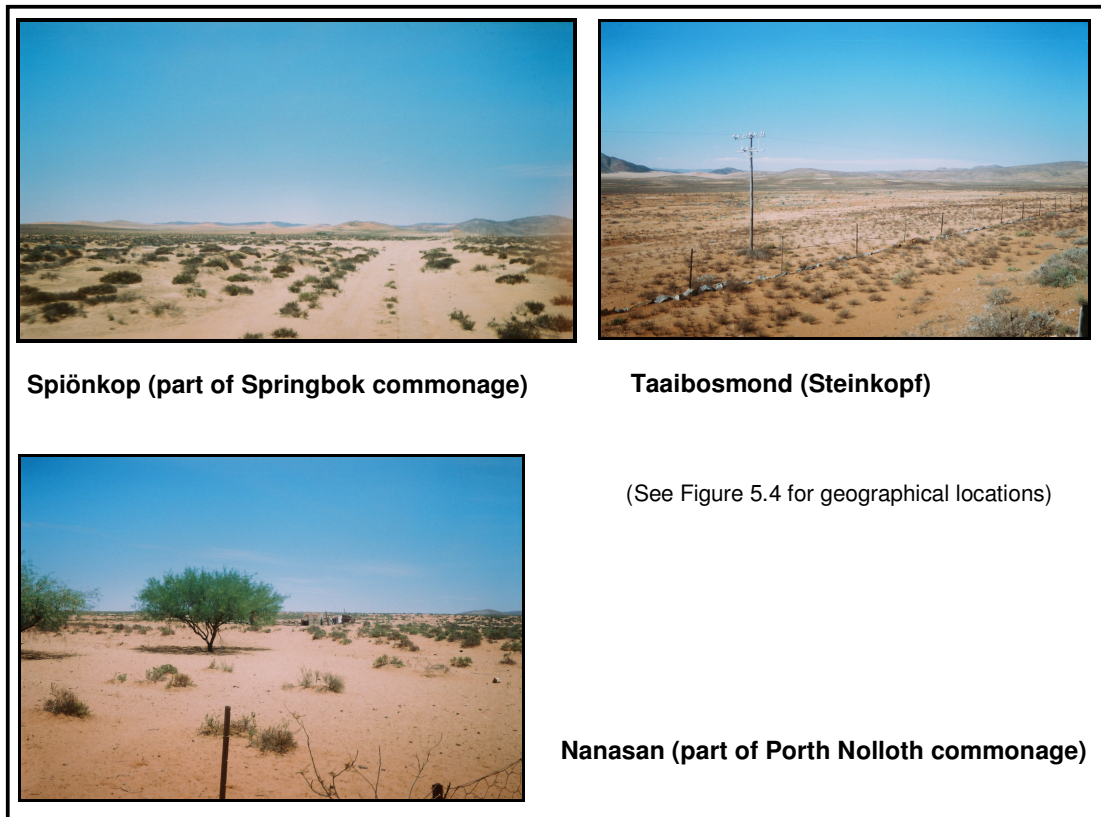


Figure 5.8: Present conditions on commonages

<sup>32</sup> The responses also include responses from municipal, land reform and agriculture officials.



The researcher photographed the following conditions (See Figure 5.9) on three of the commonage farms, one from each town in the study area.



**Figure 5.9: State of the environment on three commonage farm**

(Source: S Govender-van Wyk, 9 November 2004)

The pictures, substantiated by the findings of Young (2002), depict the degradation and poor grazing conditions endured by farmers. Most of these farms have lost their diverse cover of leaf succulents and parts of it have become dominated by a toxic shrub, *galenia africana*, and by annual plants, whose seeds attract large numbers of grain-eating insects.

#### **5.5.5.1 Capacity building**

Almost half of the users indicated that they did not receive training from the Department of Agriculture on farming practices while the others stated that they received general training on rotational grazing, soil conservation and

water conservation. The Department of Agriculture has provided some extension services in the form of livestock dipping and vet services. There were also farmers' days held on some of the farms. These were information sessions on farming practices and users stated that they already knew the issues that were presented to them. None of the users received training on management of the commonages even though approximately 59% of the users interviewed were members of the CMCs. It is imperative that users that belong to the CMCs receive management training. This would boost the confidence levels amongst these users and allow them to make more proactive decisions with regard to infringement of regulations and land use on the commonages. This would also minimise the responsibilities of the municipalities and allow users more control over decision-making.

#### ***5.5.5.2 Improvement in livelihoods***

A majority of the respondents indicated that there had been no improvements in relation to their housing and moveable assets since they had begun livestock farming. The respondents also did not educate their children using funds from livestock farming. Most of the respondents indicated there were only marginal improvements in terms of income. They qualified this answer by adding that the money gained from livestock farming was often reinvested in the business either to buy food or medicines for the livestock. While all the respondents indicated that there were improvements in terms of access to land, they stated that it would have been better if the land were theirs to own and not to lease. However, this would go against the principle of commonage.

Table 5.6 below provides an overview on whether access to these commonages has resulted in improving the users' lives in relation to some identified factors. The opinions of the officials from municipalities, and the Departments of Land Affairs and Agriculture, also formed part of the assessment.

**Table 5.6: Improvement/Non-improvement of livelihoods (N=38)**

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Improvement</b>	<b>No improvement</b>
Land access	38	
Food	34	4
Farming, for example, an increase in livestock	30	8
Income	24	14
Housing	15	23
Education of children	14	24
Other moveable assets	10	28

### **5.5.6 Commonage users' perceptions of tourism**

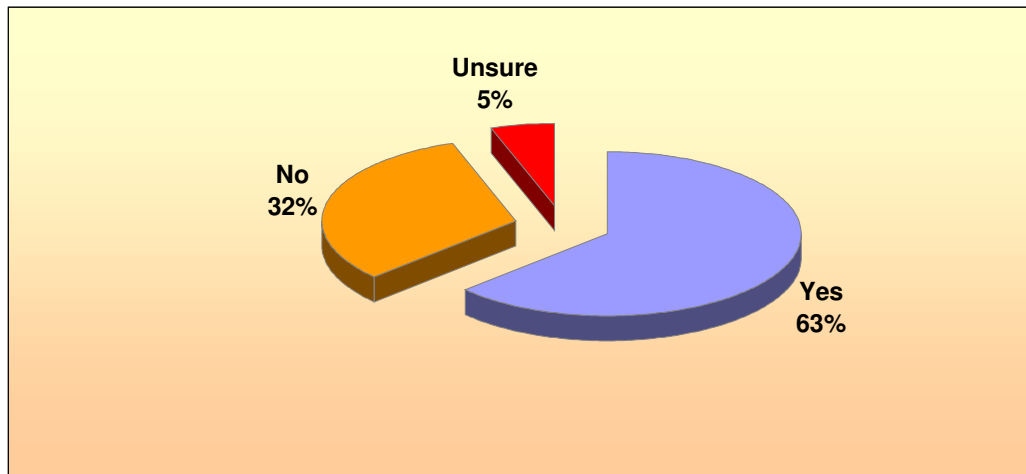
#### **5.5.6.1 *Expression of interest in tourism on commonages***

There are currently no tourism activities on the commonages. The farms were initially purchased from white livestock farmers and this practice has remained the primary land use. Ten of the users stated that they had expressed an interest in tourism activities to the municipalities. They had wanted to establish guesthouses on two of the commonage farms (Taaibosmond and Nanasan), 4x4 routes, bird watching, conservation tours and wildlife and floral viewing but these ideas never got off the ground. The municipalities also discussed these opportunities with the users but half of the livestock farmers were afraid to venture out of their traditional livelihoods mode. The others that replied negatively asserted that the reasons for the lack of interest in establishing tourism ventures on the commonages was because there was no subsidisation of these activities and that they also did not have the skills to start and/or sustain such activities.

#### **5.5.6.2 *Support for future sustainable tourism development on commonages***

The respondents were asked if they or other members of the farmers' associations would receive support to initiate tourism ventures on the

commonages and Figure 5.10 outlines that the majority replied that they would receive support because of the potential of at least half of the commonage farms. When questioned on who should provide this support, the overwhelming response was that the municipalities should provide support because they understood local conditions and could be a source of funding through their local economic development unit. It was suggested that DEAT should invest in the area to develop such initiatives further.



**Figure 5.10: Support for sustainable tourism ventures (N=34)**

Both the researcher and the field researcher observed that there were protected species of wild life and bird life on some of the farms that respondents and local residents also pointed out. Flower, succulents and vegetation such as *Vygies (Mesembryanthemaceae)* and Stonecrops (*Crassulaceae*) that are endemic to the area were also noticed. All the users (34) mentioned that the commonage farms contained a variety of buck such as gemsbok and steenbok, wild rabbits and jackals. Jackals are regarded as predators and are often shot and killed if spotted by the livestock farmers.

Others viewed the fact that the municipalities did not receive funding to foster the development of such ventures on the commonages. The poor water supply on the commonage farms was also seen as an obstacle to sustainable tourism on the commonages. These interests should have been developed

into a detailed plan that could be exploited to secure funding within an integrated planning framework at local levels. It seems as if there is a will but there is a lack of knowledge and/or experience on how to proceed in this direction.

**5.5.6.3 Comparison of perceptions in relation to tourism and livestock farming**

The following reactions were obtained from users (See Table 5.7) and the four government officials (See Table 5.8) in relation to two statements regarding tourism and livestock farming.

**Table 5.7: Assessment of the users' perceptions of tourism and livestock farming (N=34)**

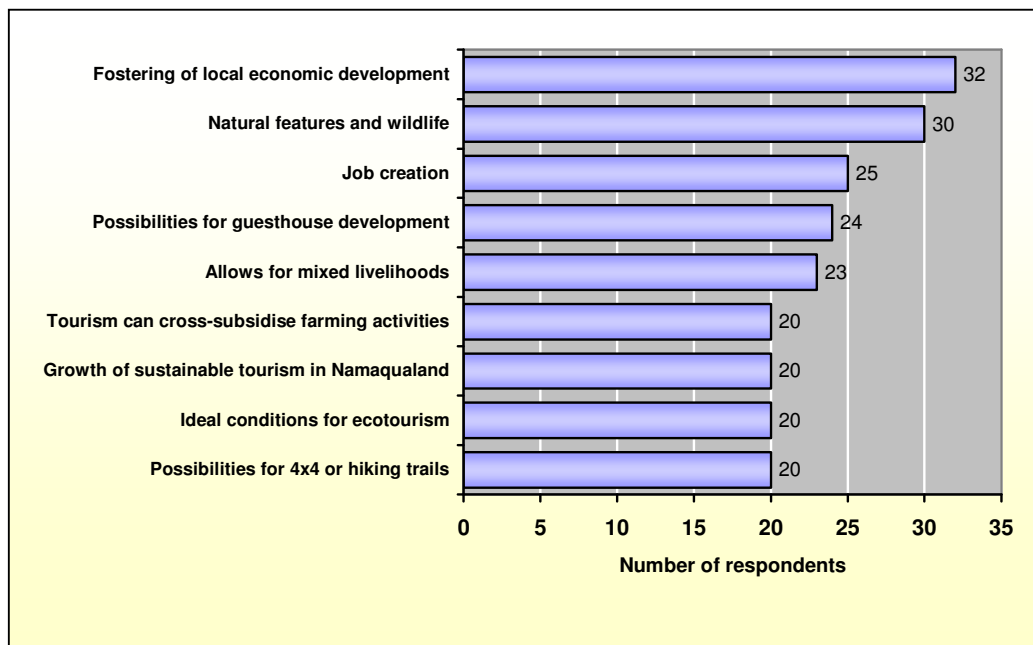
Statements	Yes (Reason/s)	No (Reason/s)	Unsure
Tourism ventures in the form of ecotourism (conservation and tourism) and nature-based tourism (for example, hiking trails) should be encouraged on the commonage	26	8	0
Agricultural activities such as livestock farming and crop production should be the only activities practiced on the commonage	4	30	0

**Table 5.8: Assessment of the government officials' perceptions of tourism and livestock farming (N=4)**

Statements	Yes (Reason/s)	No (Reason/s)	Unsure
Tourism ventures in the form of ecotourism (conservation and tourism) and nature-based tourism (for example, hiking trails) should be encouraged on the commonage	4	0	0
Agricultural activities such as livestock farming and crop production should be the only activities practiced on the commonage	4	0	0

Some of the reasons advanced for the positive attitude towards ecotourism and/or other nature based tourism activities on the some of the commonages were (See Figure 5.11):

The respondents who were negative about encouraging ecotourism and/or nature-based tourism activities felt that the farms did not have the potential for tourism. It was also felt that livestock farming was the only reality that these people knew and to change into something new would require a change in mindset. They stated that they were too old and that younger people, who had the drive and energy to try new enterprises, should rather embark on such ventures.



**Figure 5.11: Perceptions of ecotourism and/or nature-based tourism activities**

## **5.6 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM POSSIBILITIES ON THREE OF THE COMMONAGE FARMS**

Figure 5.12 shows that there are sustainable tourism possibilities that should be investigated and implemented on three of the commonages. The farm Nanasan in Port Nolloth has a farmhouse and rondawel with a cement dam built against a mountainous backdrop of the farm where potential hiking trails

could be developed. The farmhouse and rondawel could be renovated and turned into guesthouse facilities. The farmhouse and rondawel on the Nanasan farm are in a state of disrepair (See Figure 5.13) and the Richtersveld Municipality has not repaired these buildings. The previous landowner had ripped out the ceilings and tiles of the bathrooms before he had left the farm. These can be repaired and developed into a rustic farm guesthouse. Five of the farms, with the exception of Draay in Springbok, have rugged mountainous terrain and indigenous flora and fauna.



Existing farmhouse and mountainous terrain showing hiking and accommodation potential on Nanasan (Port Nolloth)



Mountainous terrain for hiking on Augrabies East (Port Nolloth). It also illustrates potential for biodiversity tours



Mountainous terrain for hiking on Fargason (Port Nolloth). The picture further illustrates potential to grow succulents and introduce wildlife endemic to the area for biodiversity tours

(See Figure 5.4 for geographical locations)

**Figure 5.12: Sustainable tourism potential on three of the commonage farms**

(Source: S Govender-van Wyk, 9 November 2004)



**Figure 5.13: Condition of the farm house at Nanasan: Port Nolloth**

(Source: S Govender-van Wyk, 9 November 2004)

## 5.7 SWOT MATRIX FOR THE SELECTED COMMONAGE PROJECTS

Tables 5.9 and 5.10 use the SWOT Model (See Step 5C in Chapter 4) to further interpret the results obtained from Section 5.6.

**Table 5.9: Strengths and weaknesses of commonage projects**

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Users have access to large tracts of land</li> <li>• Users have firm lease agreements with the municipalities</li> <li>• Potential for sustainable tourism on three farms</li> <li>• Interest expressed for tourism</li> <li>• Existing management structures</li> <li>• Fauna, birdlife and flora (part of the Succulent Karoo Biome) exist on all the commonages</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Commonage is far from residences</li> <li>• Soil degradation and poor environmental practices</li> <li>• Poor infrastructure on farms</li> <li>• Brackish water and limited water supply</li> <li>• Poor rotational grazing practices</li> <li>• Poor management of commonages</li> <li>• Poor to non-existent extension services</li> <li>• Minimal to no improvements in livelihoods</li> <li>• Poor to non-existent monitoring system in place</li> </ul>



**Table 5.10: Opportunities and threats of commonage projects**

OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Namaqualand is well positioned for the tourism industry</li> <li>• There is an existing tourism route in the form of the SNTR.</li> <li>• Municipalities are willing to look at other avenues such as tourism as an option for sustainable development on the commonages</li> <li>• There exists a niche marketing opportunity for Namaqualand as a desert tourism destination rather than as a seasonal flower destination as it currently is where the two potential commonages could serve as potential stops within this destination</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No government policy and funding for development of tourism ventures on commonage</li> <li>• Possible opposition to tourism on commonages from farmers associations in the area</li> <li>• Poor access routes to commonage farms that can hamper tourism</li> </ul>

The SWOT model revealed that the strengths and opportunities favour sustainable tourism development while the threats and weaknesses relate to livestock farming. The commonage users indicated that farming conditions on the farms were far from ideal because of the lack of access to water and poor infrastructure. The drought had further exacerbated farming conditions. Young (2002) advises that while there may be some improvements in livestock production in the near future the basic physical constraints of land and water mean that significant improvements in livelihood will not be built on agricultural production.

Management of the commonages appears to be a heated issue amongst commonage users, the municipalities and the CMCs. The users have no faith in the management structures set up to manage the farms and claim that the training received has often been inadequate. None of the users has received any management training. The analysis has confirmed all of the criticisms levelled at the commonage sub-programme discussed in Section 2.5.3.1.

The SWOT analysis has demonstrated that the 76% of the users and all four officials support ecotourism and/or nature-based tourism ventures on the commonages. Two of the farms (Nanasan and Taaibosmond) have existing

buildings that could be developed into accommodation facilities. Potential sustainable tourism opportunities such as hiking routes, birdwatching and rock climbing could be devised for three of the farms (Nanasan, Taaibosmond and Augrabies East). Nanasan and Augrabies East are approximately 30 kilometres from the Rooiberg Conservancy in Eksteenfontein. Eksteenfontein already forms part of the SNTR and these farms could easily form part of the route as the route passes through these two farms (See Figure 5.4).

It was also noted that Namaqualand is placed in a unique situation of reconstituting its image as a desert tourism destination with the identified commonage farms serving as vantage points within this destination. The existing SNTR could be utilised to market niche products once it has been developed, which could save on some marketing costs. While the lack of funding and poor access routes are seen as barriers to fostering sustainable tourism development on these commonages, integrated planning can provide solutions to these problems in the medium to long term.

## **5.8 CONCLUSION**

The objectives of this chapter were to provide an overview and assess the performance of land redistribution, focusing on the DLA's Commonage Sub-programme in Namaqualand. Six case studies were qualitatively assessed through in-depth interviews and observation techniques. The cases were evaluated on the basis of the investigative sub-question posed in Section 1.7: *What are the successes and failures of agrarian-driven commonage projects in Namaqualand?*

Respondents indicated that their livestock farming enterprises were barely successful. The successful farmers were primarily using funds from other income sources to cross-subsidise farming activities, indicating that there were more failures than successes related to adopting livestock farming as a sustainable livelihood option on commonages.

In seeking an answer to the main research question posed in Section 1.7: *What role could sustainable tourism play in commonage projects?*, the SWOT model exposed more strengths and opportunities for sustainable tourism development on three of the sampled commonages despite a lack of funding, integrated planning and poor access routes than for livestock farming enterprises.

The next chapter seeks to measure and analyse the successes and challenges of existing sustainable tourism initiatives in Eksteenfontein Namaqualand.