

Faculty of Business & Economic Sciences

Managing tomorrow

Student Name: L. Wana

Student Number: 212339338

Module Code: EDS 504

Supervisor: Dr T. Connor

Title: A study of two irrigation projects in the Kat River Valley, Eastern Cape, with specific reference to land reforms and agriculture

Date Submitted: 06 December 2013





DEPARTMENT OF ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATION

EXAMINATION SECTION SUMMERSTARND NORTH CAMPUS

PO Box 77000

Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

Port Elizabeth

6013

Enquiries: Postgraduate Examination Officer

DECLARATION BY CANDIDATE

NAME: _____

STUDENT NUMBER: _____

QUALIFICATION: _____

TITLE OF PROJECT: _____

DECLARATION:

In accordance with Rule G4.6.3, I hereby declare that the above-mentioned treatise/ dissertation/ thesis is my own work and that it has not previously been submitted for assessment to another University or for another qualification.

SIGNATURE: _____

DATE: _____

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincere gratitude and appreciation goes to my supervisor Dr Teresa Connor for her advice, constructive comments and her continuous encouragement greatly facilitated my work. I also owe thanks to the Gallawater community for its willingness to provide the necessary information. Mostly, I acknowledge the support and assistance provided by my family.

ABSTRACT

Post-apartheid South Africa has derived a legacy of massive inequalities in both income and access to services, with the worst poverty being located in the rural areas. The rationale of this study aims to examine two irrigation projects in the Kat River Valley, Eastern Cape, with specific reference to land reforms and agriculture. The study also aims to explore and document the challenges facing agricultural production in the Kat River Valley, with a specific focus on Gallawater farm. The study seeks to examine the impact and relevance of social and economic production networks on the daily management of the Gallawater farm.

The outcomes of the study finds that management of agricultural projects is needed to provide infrastructural support through state investment, particularly within agricultural extension services, the provision of basic amenities and human resource development of skills. This can potentially resuscitate income levels and encourage investment into agriculture in the Eastern Cape. Methodologically, the study draws on information collected using in-depth interviews on the Gallawater farm where a total of twenty five individuals were interviewed.

Table of Contents

DECLARATION:	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
List of tables	viii
List of figures.....	ix
CHAPTER 1.....	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Profile of Gallawater Farm.....	2
1.3 Land reform legislation	4
1.4 Problem statement	6
1.5 Objectives of the study	6
1.6 Theoretical Approaches to the problem.....	7
1.7 Methodology.....	13
1.8 Data collection, analysis and sampling	14
LITERATURE REVIEW	16
2.1 Introduction	16
2.2 General Historical overview of land policy	17
2.3 Land Tenure Debates	19
2.4 Agricultural Policy	21
2.5 The evolution of Land Policy	23
2.6 Conclusion.....	30
CHAPTER 3.....	32
METHODOLOGY	32
3.1 Introduction	32
3.2 Sampling Procedure and data collection method	33

3.3 Analysis of data	34
3.4 Summary	36
4.1 Introduction	37
4.2 Demographic information.....	38
4.3 Household size	38
4.4 Discussion.....	43
CHAPTER 5.....	46
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	46
5.1 Introduction	46
5.3 Recommendations	47
5.4 Conclusion	48
REFERENCES	50
APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE.....	55

List of tables

Table 1: Households.....	38
Table 2: Gender.....	39
Table 3: Age.....	40
Table 4: Marital Status.....	40
Table 5: Level of education	41
Table 6: Unemployment	42
Table 7: Farming	42

List of figures

Figure 1: Map of study area: Gallawater in the Eastern Cape.....	2
--	---

CHAPTER 1

1.1 Introduction

This study seeks to document the challenges facing agricultural production in the Kat River Valley, with a focus on Gallawater farm. This is a farm that does not have access to agricultural equipment or infrastructure to work on the land. The study will seek to get an expression on the history of involvement by this community and the challenges they face when they first occupied the land. The study will also attempt to investigate if there is no conflict on land use and how resources are spread or distributed across the community. The involvement of women will be looked at as they can be a vulnerable group. The enquiry will find out if there is any cooperative initiated by government to confront some of the challenges faced by Gallawater farm.

Deininger and May (2000) have argued that in order to appreciate the challenges facing the landowners after acquisition of land, an understanding is essential of both the profound nature of discrimination that resulted from the apartheid policy and the limited capacity of land reform beneficiaries compared to their white farming counterparts. This chapter provides an introduction and motivation to the entire project. I will briefly discuss the relevant case study, provide a short literature review and discuss the methodology for this project before embarking on a fuller discussion of issues in forthcoming chapters.

the northern Ciskei, and then initiated a purchase of two portions of Gallawater farm. This has a total size of 904, 863 ha, and was purchased from a white farmer, Andrew King, who had grown mealies, pumpkins, beans, potatoes and butternuts.

This was one of the few remaining privately owned farms in the extreme southern Queenstown district. The ZRA purchased Gallawater by means of the Provision of Certain Land for Settlement Act no 126 of 1993. The Act facilitated and financed the acquisition of land by community groups organised under trusts, and this in turn assumed ownership and management of land. The state paid up to 80% of the purchase amount. This process involved communities and individuals mobilising and organising themselves. In the case of Gallawater, the Border Rural Committee (BRC) a non-governmental organisation in the Border/Kei region of the Eastern Cape played an important role. The BRC assisted the ZRA in filing its claim to the Advisory Commission on Land Allocation (ACLA). When Act 126/1993 became available, BRC assisted the ZRA in brokering government financial assistance and legal aid for the acquisition of Gallawater.

Act 126/1993 influenced the shift of BRC's stance from that of advocating the rights of communities to land, to assistance with implementation of an official land redistribution policy. BRC also had some influence in the shape of the Trust and beneficiaries. With the assistance of the Grahamstown Legal Resources Centre, ZRA and BRC drafted the Gallawater trust constitution. This document set the ground rules for the management of the property and the operational procedure of the share system. Here, the 102 Trust members indicated that there were no jobs, and that they wanted to start farming. The problem was, they didn't have agricultural equipment or infrastructure to work on the land (Wotshela: 1997).

Consequently, their farming and takeover of Gallawter farm was not supported, and was ill fated from the start. Thus, the important question remains whether Gallawater farm has seen any agricultural and economic successes in their management of the farm, and whether the state has assisted them adequately. This dissertation is based on investigating some of the specific challenges of Gallawater, also as these relate to the broader context of smallholder agricultural and land reform in Southern Africa.

1.3 Land reform legislation

As clearly identified by the South African Constitution (Act 108 of 1996, Section 25) the need for land reform to address the legacy of the past Government based on racial discrimination. Land reform programmes in post-colonial African countries particularly the willing-seller willing-buyer approach, upgrading of land tenure programmes have set an important precedents and have been assumed to provide critical lessons for South Africa (Weiner 1988; Levin and Weiner 1991; 1988). Land redistribution and resettlement in Kenya, and Zimbabwe have often been mentioned as providing important directions for South Africa's land reform programmes.

Land reforms in post-colonial Africa have been limited to large extent by World Bank's and IMF policy recommendations and as well as the structural adjustment programmes that these countries have to implement to meet the demands of debt repayments programmes. According to (Mini:2000) the willing seller willing buyer plan, as experienced by the Gallawater Trust fitted comfortably well within the approach of land reform programme and was often regarded as a test case of land redistribution through the land market. Mini

(2000) contends that, the community had been without land since they left Glen Grey district in 1976.

In spite of numerous studies pointing to weaknesses and constraints the land redistribution programme in South Africa has adopted very similar approaches to Kenya and Zimbabwe and in other countries. (Leo,1981;1984; Moyo, 1995). According to Binns and Nel (1999) in terms of rural policy, the new government's resource and capacity constraints have hindered the implementation of effective change. Despite the drafting of the key Reconstruction and Development Programme as a national development strategy, and the associated Rural Development Strategy, there has been little tangible economic and progress in areas in the former Homelands.

The success of land reform in impacting positively on the livelihood of the poor is dependent on effective and productive use of the land concerned. Problems include drops in production, conflicts within the beneficiary institutions and an absence of complementary services. In order to realise the benefits of land reform, it is essential for the state and other development agencies to support new landowners who were previously dispossessed or without land (Manenzhe:2007). Land reform according to Mayende (2009) essentially refers to state-led interventions whose major aim is to secure rights in terms of ownership and access to land and to regulate the various forms and conditions under which it should be held. Management is needed to provide infrastructural support through state investment in agricultural extension services, the provision of basic amenities and human resource development of skills. These measures can help raise income levels and encourage investment protecting the resource base.

Marcus (1996) argues that, improvements in women's rights to natural resources is crucial to any future natural resource management strategy, about 80% of resource use and management in rural areas involves women. He contends that, the long term solution lies in ensuring that there is equity in the allocation of resources and that support mechanisms are in place which encourage people to use their resources sustainably.

1.4 Problem statement

Given that there is a lack of agricultural equipment, as well as technical skills and capacities that may provide food security for people who rely on government grants, the dissertation will ask whether the absence of community involvement may be one of the major challenges impeding the Gallawater farm in utilising land. Does a lack of co-management of communal resources appear to be limiting efforts for the community to utilise the land?

The dissertation will also investigate why land reform programs are not making positive impacts in the alleviation of poverty in this farm.

1.5 Objectives of the study

The need for the study is to examine the impact and relevance of social and economic production networks on the daily management of the Gallawater farm. I will also evaluate the land policies and land legislation provided by the government for land reform beneficiaries.

1.6 Theoretical Approaches to the problem

The South African Constitution (Act 108 of 1996, Section 25) clearly identified the need for land reform to address the legacy of the past Government based on racial discrimination. The White Paper on South African Land Policy (DLA, 1997) expresses cases for land reform and among its aims are to underpin economic development, improve household welfare and alleviate poverty. This section will also look at the land policy in South Africa as it is firmly rooted in political and historical context. The land policy which evolved in South Africa following the demise of apartheid in 1994 will be examined. The evolution of the land question can be traced through four of the important policy documents, the Freedom Charter of 1955, the Constitutional Guidelines of 1992, Reconstruction and Development Programme of 1993, the Constitution of the republic of South Africa and the land tenure debate in South Africa will be examined.

The general thrust of this debate is towards the need for more individually based forms of land holding (e.g. Freehold). Cousins (1996), stresses the benefits of communal system, especially communal grazing in terms of social equity and environmental management. The White Paper on South African Land Policy (1997) asserts that communal systems provided free and very cheap access to land for the poor. The social structure which goes with communal ownership also provides an important survival safety net function for the poor. Hendricks (1990) argues that the state policy on land in the reserves/homelands since 1948 has been based on a number of key elements, as the three rural pillars of apartheid, he so called communal form of tenure, the system of tribal administration (chieftaincy) and various forms of rural planning and development.

South Africa is characterised by enormous inequalities as a result of the policies of apartheid implemented by the previous regime. According to Levin and Weiner (1991:92) there were approximately 82 million hectares of agricultural land in the country, divided into 60 000 commercial farm units in White ownership, while over 13 million people, the majority of them poverty-stricken, lived in the 13% of the national territory that constituted the former 'homelands'. This was the kind of skewed pattern of land ownership that the democratic Government of South Africa inherited. In the 1900s black farmers were progressing well and accumulating wealth through the use of land, thereby competing with the white farmers. Southall (1982) argued that there was a need to do away with African peasantry and thus induce peasants to seek wage labour. This could be achieved by dispossessing peasants of their land. The Government passed the 1913 Native Land Act in order to establish the principle of land segregation and define the boundaries of the 'native reserves'.

The 1913 Native Land Act restricted blacks to 7% of the total land area of the Union of South Africa. Other policies and laws such as the 1923 Stallard Commission and its resulting legislation, the 1936 Native Trust Land Act which set limits upon land available to blacks (the native reserves) by expanding the native reserves to 13.8 percent of the total land area of the country. The application of the apartheid policy in 1948 and other legislation in the 1960s e.g. the Group Areas Acts of 1950 and 1957, the Native Resettlement Act of 1954, the Native Trust and Land Amendment Act of 1954, led to mass removals of many people from what was called the white South Africa(Baldwin, 1975).

Due to land dispossessions black people were led into different kind of poverty, unable to farm for themselves since they were reduced to being a source of labour without any ownership of land. In the “homelands/Bantustans” they lived in the marginal lands with lack of access to the market opportunities, credit facilities, infrastructure and other services to which their whites’ counterparts had access.

Mayende (2009) contends that, today inequalities in the agricultural sector, in terms of access to and use of land, as well to other agricultural productive forces such as capital, machinery and inputs, levels of production, and levels of earnings, clearly reflect the racial divisions which continue to characterise South Africa. However, South Africa’s current land reform programme rests on three major pillars: Land restitution, which aims to restore land or provide comparable redress for rights in land which were dispossessed after 19 June 1913. Thus far the commission on restitution of land rights has settled 95% of claims lodged, enabling the restoration of at least 2.3 million hectares of land to victims of racial dispossession.

The ever increasing property prices continue to serve as an impediment for the restitution process. A lot of claims are still in the land claims court for adjudication due to disputes. Coupled with the issue of community conflicts, all these factors are constant challenges to the pace of the implementation of the restitution (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform strategic plan 2009-2012). Land redistribution, which responds to various needs and aspirations of people for land, in both rural and urban areas, in an equitable and affordable manner while at the same time contributing to poverty alleviation and national economic growth.

Currently, Van Zyl et al (1996:13) argue that the success of a land reform 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. Van Zyl further argues that in post-settlement era after 1994, issues around sustainability, improvement of livelihoods of beneficiaries and, creation of employment are critical. It is evident that land access is just one factor that has to be complemented with support services such as water supply system, farm fencing, residential fencing and grazing land, so that the success of land reform can be realised. According to Van Zyl these services existed for a certain target group in the past and now these services have to be reoriented towards land reform beneficiaries. According to Van Zyl et al. (1996) beneficiaries' ability to make effective and productive use of land acquired during land reform will depend on the construction of complementary infrastructure suitable for smallholder agriculture; change in the pattern of utilisation of land; and clear responsibility for production outcomes. (Van Zyl 1996: 150-151).

This is because in many other cases, a lack of capital prevented beneficiaries from increasing the efficiency of production. This is a constraint that is particularly important if realising the benefits of land reform is an ultimate goal. Cousins (1999:60-61) contends that post-apartheid South Africa has inherited a legacy of massive inequalities in both income and access to services, with the worst poverty being located in the rural areas. It is with no doubt that the poorest members of South Africa's population are rural dwellers. It should be noted however, that two rural realities existed, as a result of enforced division of rural space on the grounds of race, and for many this situation still persists.

Whilst the majority of rural South Africa was, and still is, held under white control, in the former black reserves or Homelands, the majority of the population only had access to 13 per cent of the country's land surface. It is argued that in the post-apartheid era these former Homeland areas are still characterised by severe poverty, disempowerment, dependency and outmigration of skilled and educated people. Fox and Nel (in Binns and Nel:1997) assert that under apartheid, black people were forcibly removed from 'white areas' to the Homelands where there was inherently poor quality of land. Furthermore, most of these rural areas are severely degraded and the primary sources of rural income are from urban areas in the form of migrant remittances and state old-age pensions. Ghirmire (2001) argues that land reform worldwide has taken a variety of approaches, including expropriation of large holdings and their redistribution to the landless; and the restitution of land rights previously removed by dominant groups.

According to Adams (200:5), recent approaches to land reform is a market-assisted land reform that has involved much participation of foreign donors. It is for the above reason that local development initiatives may be seen as a partial response, which is steadily gaining in prominence, mainly because of the support which free-market ideology accords to the notion of independent economic action, and the basic reality that poverty, particularly in the South, encourages individuals and communities to take charge of their own destiny. Esteva and Prakash in Binns and Nel (1997: 285) assert, 'far from being "globalized"', the real lives of most people on Earth are clearly marginalised from any "global" way of life. The social majorities of the world will never, now or in the future, have access to these so-called global phenomena. Instead, notions such as 'self-reliance' and local

equivalents of 'Local Economic Development'(LED) appear to be among the few realistic development options available to the 'poorest of the poor', who seem to have been all but abandoned by the Western-dominated global economy (Binns and Nel; 1999:390).

Flowing from the above assertion, Binns and Nel argue that evidence from rural Africa indicates that, as part of the process of surviving, inhabitants of the world's poorest continent are becoming more reliant on indigenous technical knowledge, production systems and livelihoods, and the emergence of non-Western forms of LED. Furthermore, desperate economic realities in Africa compel many communities to seek their own solutions to the circumstances in which they find themselves. In the rural sector, the buying power and collective bargaining of established agri-business and cooperatives of large, white farmers, together with the legacy of fixed sourcing and supply agreements, makes it difficult for newcomers to penetrate and compete effectively in the established market(ANC 1994; RSA 1995b) in Binns and Nel (1999).

This is acute for rural communities, living in spatially isolated areas, with poor support, physical resources and infrastructure, and having to compete with established agri-business. The lack of machinery, skills, capital, buying power and essential networks further restricts opportunities. Land tenure reform in South Africa is nevertheless a positive form of, land tenure arrangements which have previously restricting tenure security for the previously disadvantaged, in both urban and rural areas (South African Land Policy White Paper, 1997).

However, congestion remains one of the key challenges facing subsistence and emerging black farmers in the former homelands. In line with the concept of sustainable livelihood which is central to much of contemporary development discourse and poverty alleviation, access to land as an asset, should be complemented by skills of beneficiaries and other resources in order for the beneficiaries to secure a livelihood from the land acquired.

Some Western and liberal scholars have adopted the rural livelihoods approach to addressing the issue of the persistence of poverty in the Third World, particularly in Africa (Mayende 2009). Most black rural communities, who are now landowners as a result of settled land claims or redistribution projects, were in the past marginalised and excluded from the mainstream economy therefore they lack skills and capacity to run commercial farms.

1.7 Methodology

The main research approach to be utilized in this study of Gallawater farm was qualitative research. The reason for selecting the qualitative method for this study was that, the topic needed to be explored flexibly with the main aim of accessing specific information rather than mere generalization of the findings. The goal of the qualitative research is to describe and understand rather than the explanation and prediction of human behaviour. One clear advantage of qualitative approach to research is its ability to get information directly from the source. It is therefore imperative that this project reflect on the use of qualitative data. Qualitative data may involve a description of a group of people living in poverty, providing a full and in-depth account of their way of life or a transcript of an interview in which people describe and explain their attitude towards and experience of unemployment.

Qualitative data is usually seen as richer, more vital, as having greater depth and as more likely to present a true picture of a way of life, of people's experiences, attitudes and beliefs. The researcher has endeavoured to listen to the subjects under study to build a picture based on their ideas. With this approach, the researcher was also better placed to probe more in-depth questions during the research process. Having followed the necessary research and ethical procedures for permission with the Gallawater community, the researcher reviewed of literature, collected of data, analysed data the results and presented this data in the form of this dissertation.

1.8 Data collection, analysis and sampling

The data collected was in the form of in-depth interviews and focus groups of the Gallawater farm participants. Within the community, a sample representative of the total population was chosen; this was a total of twenty five people. This represented a total population of the farm which is hundred and fifty. This sample was chosen randomly, as all households had an equal chance of being selected.

Leedy (1989) also agrees that in random sampling, the choice of respondents is left entirely to chance and bias is avoided. Random sampling is only one generally acceptable method of choosing a sample that is unbiased and therefore representative of the larger population. Focus groups allow researchers to understand the thought processes of the subjects. Other methods like documentation review and observation were also used in this study. The use of documentation is relevant in any field of study, since Information from documents also acts as a backup which, if correctly used can enrich a person's understanding of the study before and after fieldwork has been conducted.

The researcher analyzed the data using qualitative data analysis techniques. This study analysed the data through a process called coding and categorizing of data. Coding data involves breaking the data down into units for analysis and then categorizing the units. The data will be generated and interpreted and be represented in a narrative form.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an historical overview of land policy as to how land segregational policies emerged and the impact they had on those who were denied access to land and ownership in the South African population. This chapter will also look at the distorted form of communal land tenure which prevented the commercialisation of African agriculture in the previous Eastern Cape native reserves. The land tenure debate forms an integral part of the land question in Southern Africa which experienced enforced and land alienation at the hands of Europeans. The evolution of land policy will provide an expression of how various forms of land policy formulations were designed in South Africa following the collapse of apartheid in 1994.

More specifically, this section will show how specific land policies have affected the Gallawater community. The soil type of the Gallawater farm presents significant challenges to the community, which could be a hindrance to a simple peasant community with limited technology and capital. Mini (2000) contends that, this soil type because of its shallowness and lack of nutrients is not suitable for cultivation. According to Mini (2000) Gallawater farm is not suitable for arable farming but stock farming under controlled grazing as a better alternative for peasant farming. He argues that crops suffer from droughts in this soil type due to low water holding capacity. The transfer of ownership of Gallawater farm to the community also implied a change in land utilization from individual private –free hold

ownership to group-ownership-communal land ownership.

It is important to note the traditional communal institutional structures that regulate communal resources utilization have collapsed. In other words, the community no longer possess a traditional leader. The reason being the community has been subjected to a long process of migration, forced removals and resettlement. These people were part of the larger group that was resettled at Zweledinga, in Hewu district in 1976 from Glen Grey in the former Transkei. The community had been without land since they left Glen Grey district in 1976.

This chapter seeks to find out how Gallawater have been affected by transfer of ownership and as beneficiaries of land reform programs. The main thrust of this chapter centres on the impact of the land reform programs and agricultural activities as a potential vehicle in changing the lives of the Gallawater community. Gallawater is mainly engaged in limited stock farming, combined with agriculture and food gardens, and is restricted by a rocky and hilly terrain.

2.2 General Historical overview of land policy

Of all the processes which have brought about inequitable distribution of power and wealth that characterises present day South Africa, none has been more decisive and of more immediate importance to most black communities than the dispossession of land (Dekleck 1991). Hendricks (2001:290) contends that colonization had wrenched away tracts of African land and confined African access to land to the reserve areas which were later to be variously called native reserves. Hendricks (2001:290) further notes that, the territorial segregation lapsing over in the shape of designated reserves, were issued from three crucial

pieces of legislation more than two centuries later.

These were the Glen Grey Act of 1894, the Native Land Act of 1913 and Native Trust and Land Act of 1936, that formed the legislative building of apartheid in regard to land matters (Hendricks, 2001). The 1913 Natives Land Act decreed that Africans could not own land in urban areas. Ownership of free hold tenure was to be doubly circumscribed for Africans since the communal system administered by Chiefs and headman in consultation with local magistrates in the reserves, allowed usufruct rights and access but there was to be no land market. Hendricks (2001) points out that, this distorted form of communal land tenure in the reserves effectively prevented the commercialisation of African agriculture.

The emergence of reserves, or areas to which African land occupation was restricted, was coupled, to colonial interests in securing an adequate supply of labour to the white-owned mines and farms (Hendricks, 2001:290). Reserve policies and the migrant labour system were two sides of the same segregationist coin (Rose-Innes 1936, 33). The pass laws, influx control, and forced removals to the reserves were part of this overall apartheid design.

The prohibition of land purchase by Africans outside these reserves was accompanied by a battery of legislative restrictions on African urbanization.

The 1913 Land Act decreed that African could not own land in urban areas and that they were to be temporary sojourners in the towns. The communal system was administered by chiefs and headman, in consultation with local magistrates in the reserves. This communal land tenure in the reserves prevented the commercialization of African agriculture, since it was premised on the notion of one man, one lot (Hendricks, 2001:290). Due to a variety of factors, not least the Soweto uprising of 1976, the emergence of trade union movement,

and concerted international political pressure, the apartheid plan started to disintegrate. Starting in the 1980s, the national party government introduced limited reforms by recognising the permanence of Africans in towns in (1979) removing, the influx control regulations and finally abolishing the land Acts in (1991). By passing the abolition of Racially Based Land Measures Act in 1991, the government effectively repealed wide array of racist legislation in respect of land segregation. Levin and Weiner (1991) argue that colonialism and apartheid both constrained African access to land and smothered independent rural production amongst Africans. The following section will look at land tenure issues and reform.

2.3 Land Tenure Debates

Delville and Toulmin et al (2002) argue that the land tenure debate and reform have usually focused on questions of title and ownership, since it has often been considered necessary to introduce formal property rights over land, recognised and supported by the state, by means of a register of holdings, or certificates of tenure. In rural Africa Berry (1993) contends that, access to land and its resources is still closely linked with social citizenship. He notes that the rules governing access to land reflect socio-political organization, family structures and systems, used to control land and labour, as well as the social and political history of the society in question.

Furthermore, they cover various types of tenure relationship, combining individual rights and collective regulations in different ways according to the areas concerned. The democratization of South Africa was the result of a protracted struggle waged in a multi-faceted manner. The evolution of the ANC's approach to the land question can be traced

through four of the important policy documents of the organization: The Constitutional Guidelines of 1988, the policy Guidelines of 1992, and the Reconstruction and Development Programme of 1993. The patterns and forms of land-holding and land use in the former homelands have been directly influenced by the policies and actions of the South African state (in its various forms) in pursuit of racial segregation and the promotion of an oppressive migrant labour system. State policy on land in the reserves/homelands since 1948 has been based on a number of key elements.

Hendricks (1990:162) identified the three rural pillars of Apartheid, the communal form of tenure, the system of tribal administration (chieftaincy) and various forms of rural planning and development. To these may be added a fourth important element-the forced removal of millions of black people from 'white' farms and towns to reserves/homelands, which began in earnest in the Free State with the Natives Land Act of 1913, and accelerated dramatically throughout the country in the 1960's and 1970's, based upon diversified production, family labour and lower technologies, has little to offer in terms of aggregate production and incomes from farming.

In the Eastern Cape, where betterment schemes were introduced in the 1950s, headmen assumed powers to allocate newly created allotments and camps where previously such tenure and composite user rights were allocated by communal tradition. In many areas, traditional rights to residential plots were replaced by Permission to Occupy (PTOs) allocated by Chiefs and headmen. The situation in Gallawater is not similar as this farm was previously owned by Andrew King (a white farmer) and this suggests that it was not owned by the state. Subsequent to that it was purchased by a large group of people who were

desperate to own land and the powers in terms of the allocation of resources are not determined by traditional authority or tribal chief. Power relations in this community are not centred on a particular individual but are entrusted to a trust as reflected in its constitution. The dominance of the modern large-scale and technically successful farming model must be seen in the context of a century of policy measures which seriously distorted agricultural development in South Africa. The literature reveals that these people were subjected to migration and force removals and the purchase of this farm was a concerted land occupation campaign of the ZRA, on behalf of the Zweledinga community.

This farm was not state owned but its close proximity to state farms made it vulnerable to invasion as they occupied the farm in many occasions. Wotshela (1999) contends that by the end of April 1993 they had temporarily occupied the farm at least three times and having been made aware that the farm was privately owned they embarked on a purchase option. There were concerns of the type of development that would follow on a trust farm and the implications of a mixed residential and agricultural settlement model evolving on this acquired new land. Agricultural development was central as a vehicle to ameliorate the socio-economic conditions of these people.

2.4 Agricultural Policy

The development of agriculture in South Africa is often viewed as the technical advance, in this century particularly, of large-scale commercial farming specialising in crop and animal production according to the prevailing natural resources and climatic conditions, and taking advantage of both abundant low-cost labour and opportunities for mechanisation. It is argued that, agriculture can only contribute to the economy through a concentrated

production structure such as the one currently existing (Ministry for agriculture and land affairs, 1998). The proponents of this view argue that, smaller and medium-scale agriculture has little to offer in terms of aggregate production and incomes from farming (Department of Agriculture and Land Affairs, 1998). The dominance of the modern large-scale and technically successful farming model must be seen in the context of a century of policy measures which seriously distorted agricultural development in South Africa. This model is seen as having some limitations in a country that is confronted with high unemployment and food insecurity (www.nda.agric.za).

While past policy has contributed to rural impoverishment, and the new policies have created the opportunity for reforms to enable agriculture to make contribution to poverty alleviation and enhanced national and household food security. An estimated 16 million South Africans are living in poverty, with its incidence highest in rural areas and among female-headed households. It is also estimated that 72% of poor people live in rural areas and that about 70% of rural people are poor (www.nda.agric.za). The issue of poverty in rural areas is associated with agricultural policies which persistently marginalised small scale black farmers as their access to resources such as land, credit and technical know-how was curtailed.

To determine policy priorities to address poverty and food insecurity, and to assess the role that agriculture can play in the national effort, it is however, necessary to understand how people in rural areas in particular the Gallawater community, create livelihoods. Poor rural households combine their resources in a variety of ways to enable them to maintain a minimum living standard. These livelihood strategies include agricultural production, off-

farm wage labour, small and micro-enterprise activities, claims against the state (pensions) and reliance on social networks. It is argued that, poor people have few opportunities for economic activity and the central challenge for agriculture is poverty alleviation and food security for the rural population and the Gallawater farm is the case in point in improving livelihoods.

2.5 The evolution of Land Policy

The conquest and displacement of indigenous societies is a common feature of the colonial era throughout the world. Particularly in Africa, colonial authorities assumed that the land had no previous owner and that it could be taken freely. In the West Indies, indigenous societies were largely destroyed and new European Settler dominated societies were developed, based on the land resources of the colonies. In the twentieth century, the injustices of such seizures were increasingly recognised and following American precedents, (commonwealth) governments sought to make some sort of reparations for the past.

In the African (commonwealth) there was little recognition of indigenous title and the colonial dispensation was essentially accepted (Ridden and Dickerman 1986). Upon independence, countries such as Zambia and Tanzania abolished colonial derived free hold tenure titles, in favour of lease hold to satisfy national honour that the land had been 'reclaimed' by indigenous people. After independence, Botswana, for instance, granted no more lands in freehold, but pursued an active African land settlement policy which (ironically) continued to displace indigenous Khoisan people (Werbner, 1982). In South Africa a limited measure of land restitution was introduced in 1991 with the establishment of the Commission on Land allocation.

However the term restitution had a far more restricted definition and application in Africa than in Australia, Canada and New Zealand, although this has been widened in the South African context to recognise the claims of labour tenants and other informal tenures. The land policy in South Africa is thus firmly rooted in political and historical context. The land policy which evolved in South Africa following the demise of apartheid in 1994, is no exception. The evolution of the land question can be traced through four of the important policy documents: the Freedom Charter of 1955; the constitutional guidelines of 1992 and Reconstruction and Development Program of 1993.

The (ANC guidelines 1992:17) calls for a redistribution of the following categories of land vacant unused and under- utilized state land, held for speculation. The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) follows this line of policy, it states that the market-based measures alone cannot redress the inequities in land redistribution and that state intervention in the shape of a national land reform programme is the “central and driving force of a programme of rural development” (ANC,1994). The constitution of South Africa, adopted in 1996, provide the framework for land policy in the country. It states that, the state must take reasonable legislative and other measures within its available resources, to factor conditions which enable citizens to gain access to land on an equitable basis. Furthermore, the constitution describes that a person or community whose tenure of land is legally insecure as a result of past racial discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided by an Act of parliament, either to tenure legally secure or to comparable redress.

A person 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 (R.S.A Constitution 1996: 12).

There are three main components in this policy which embrace the democratic government's land reform programme in the Post- 1994 period, Land redistribution, Land tenure reform and Land restitution. It is imperative to note that the Policy was guided by the objectives of (i) redressing the injustice of apartheid, (ii) fostering national reconciliation and stability, and (iii) improving household welfare by alleviating poverty (White Paper, 1997). Following the above assertion, the underlying assumption is that policy changes can have the effect of dramatically altering social relations in society.

The land redistribution aims to broaden access to land for the dispossessed by purchasing white owned land and by transferring public land to targeted individuals and communities. Land redistribution, which responds to various needs and aspirations of people for land, in both rural and urban areas, in an equitable and affordable manner while at the same time contributing to poverty alleviation and national economic growth. The redistribution is also supposed to be effected through the once-off payment of a settlement / land acquisition Grant of R16 000 which beneficiaries could use to acquire land on the open market (Deininger et al, 1992:12). Tenure reform on the other hand is designed to provide greater security of tenure to rural dwellers as a whole, to those on the white owned farms, those in the former reserves, and to the peri urban dwellers in the squatter settlements bordering the cities. The object of land restitution is to compensate individuals and communities whose land was expropriated as a result of apartheid policies.

However, the one that applies to Gallawater farm is the land redistribution as this community bought the land through the willing-seller willing-buyer approach. Mini (2000) asserts that, this initiative fitted comfortably well within the willing-seller willing-buyer approach of land reform programme and was regarded as a test case of land redistribution. Land reform is further complicated by the absence of organised rural resistance around demands for land and the apparent lack of political will to do anything that may upset the delicate balance between the necessity of delivery on the one hand and the guarantees of property rights enshrined in the constitution.

It is a balance, which has structured the inertia in respect of land redistribution. Land restitution, which aims to restore land or provide comparable redress for rights in land which were dispossessed after 19 June 1913. Thus far the commission on restitution of land rights has settled 95% of claims lodged, enabling the restoration of at least 2.3 million hectares of land to victims of racial dispossession. This has not affected Gallawater rather the community benefited from one of the components of the land reform programs called land redistribution, on the basis of willing-seller willing-buyer approach.

2.6 Communal Tenure

Payne (1997) defines land tenure as the mode by which land is held or owned, or the set of relationships among people concerning the use of land its product. Payne (1997) asserts that the key factor in any system of land tenure and property rights is the relationship of an individual in a group, and of different groups to each other and the state, and their

collective impact on land.

He notes that, countries which have been subject to colonialism have particularly complex tenure arrangements, since indigenous and imposed tenure patterns may exist in the same area. It is imperative therefore, to examine the land tenure in the homelands so the following section will attempt to unpack land tenure in the reserves. The debate over tenure reform in South Africa has long been a central feature of the wider debates over access to land by African people under colonialism, segregation, apartheid and finally democracy. Cousins (1996) stresses the benefits of the communal system, especially communal grazing, in terms of social equity and environmental management.

The White Paper on South African Land Policy (1997), subscribes to this thinking by asserting that communal systems provided free and very cheap access to land for the poor. The great majority of land in former homelands was held under some form of communal tenure.

Other tenurial forms include freehold land held by individuals and groups like church missions, and state land, but these account for relatively small areas. Communal land tenure in South Africa was a hybrid form, specific to the homelands, which combines elements of individual and collective property rights.

Communal tenure was modified by success governments over the course of the twentieth century. Hendricks (1990) argues that communal tenure was an essential component of the migrant labour system, facilitating the concentration of maximum possible number of Africans in the reserves/homelands, preventing the emergence of a stratum of rich peasants or capitalist farmers and providing the basis for a higher degree of social control through

compliant tribal leaders who controlled access to land.

Ntsebeza (1999) contends that land in the rural areas of the former Bantustans was categorised as unsurveyed, unregistered state land, and, and “trust land” (ie. Land in the previous Ciskei and Transkei. In terms of the 1936 Act, occupation of land is based on a ‘permission to occupy’ (PTO) system, which is still in effect today. According to Ntsebeza (1999) traditional leaders play a principal role in land allocation, especially after the promulgation of the Bantu Authorities Act of 1951 by the apartheid regime. The apartheid style “independence” of some Bantustans between 1976 and 1981 did not initially alter power relations in rural areas. The power of the traditional leaders, from sub-headman to paramount chief, was strengthened and continues to inform PTOs to this day. In the case of Gallawater the issue of leadership is not based on traditional authority as Ntsebeza (1999) suggests, on the role of traditional leaders in land allocation.

One of the main objectives stated before the transfer of land is documented in Gallawater A Trust, section 4 clause 4.2 of the trust constitution (Wotshela, 1999:4). In that, the trust undertakes to “to manage and administer the property and its natural resource and allocate rights and duties in respect thereof to the beneficiaries in accordance with the provisions of the trust deed”. Wotshela (1999) notes that Gallawater A trust constitution, section 4 clause 4.2, states that, the trust will “undertake such developmental and social and other initiatives and projects, including the subdivision and/or allocation of land for agricultural, residential and other purposes, and the construction and provision of buildings, amenities, works and facilities as may be appropriate to facilitate the welfare of the beneficiaries and their families”

However, by the late 1980's, the mass mobilisation which characterised most urban areas of South Africa during the 1970's and 80's, had also spread to rural areas. Tribal Authorities became the main target. Carney (1998) avers that sustainable livelihood framework helps analysis of the strengths of particular systems of land tenure, and of their evolution. The framework he argues is useful when considering options for change and their likely impact on people's asset status. Their access to capital assets, including finance, land, natural resources and social capital can provide the basis for a range of livelihood opportunities, including customary access to land and natural resources and opportunities for the poor to sell their labour.

But what is communal tenure precisely? The communal tenure system found in South Africa is 'communal' in the sense that individual entitlement to land flows from membership of a socio-political community (a village or tribe), rather than from private ownership (Bennett 1995). Communal tenure, in the South African context, does not imply communal (i.e. collective) agriculture production, even on shared resources such as communal grazing land. Nor does it imply that all decisions regarding the allocation of land are made by the entire community. Examples of such collective production are: exchange of labour or ploughing cattle, or joint production of vegetables or poultry on small projects. These are largely independent of the land tenure system in South Africa. Land for arable and residential purposes is usually obtained through the tribal chief more commonly; the village headman acting on behalf of the chief who may allocate plots from whatever land is currently available.

Once allocated, residential and arable plots are generally reserved for the exclusive use of the occupying household. Gallawater arrangement is entirely different precisely because the community doesn't have a chief or a tribal leader that regulates the allocation of residential and arable plots. This therefore qualifies the fact that, the powers in land allocation, residential and arable plots are entrusted to the trustees in the Gallawater trust constitution. This implies that all decisions regarding the allocation of land are made by the entire community under the leadership of the Gallawater trust.

Unallocated lands are generally available to community members as a common pool resource (commonage), providing pasture for livestock and other natural resources such as timber, thatching grass, edible fruits and plants and materials for use in traditional medicine (Cousins 1999: 168). Chiefs and tribal authorities have, in principle, the power to repossess land if it is abandoned, if it is needed for another purpose such as a road or public building, if it is deemed surplus to the needs of the holders, or in order to punish a landholder for some offence.

2.6 Conclusion

Gallawater was purchased by means of the Provision of Certain Land for Settlement Act no 126 of 1993. The Act facilitates and finances the acquisition of land by community groups organised under trusts which in turn assume ownership and management of land. By virtue of this arrangement the state does not designate beneficiaries, this process involves communities and individuals mobilising and organising themselves. The access to land and secure tenure is the responsibility of the entire community under the auspices of the Gallawater trust as clearly defined in its constitution. The issue of agricultural development

is one of the challenges facing this community as exposed in the findings of this study: the lack of agricultural equipments, viable irrigation scheme and sufficient support from government (Local and Provincial) in the form of supplying this community with enough seeds, fertilizers, pesticides and the transference of agricultural related technical skills stifles agricultural development in this community. In the final analysis the farm is communally owned in terms of the sharing of certain resources such as communal grazing land and joint production of vegetables. These people were subjected to the process of migration, in 1976 they moved from Glen Grey in the former Transkei and resettled in Zweledinga, in Hewu district. The community had been without land since they left Glen Grey district in 1976 and it was desperate to have land.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

A research method is explained by Kothari (1990) as a way of scientifically solving a research problem. According to Haralambos and Holborn (1995) secondary sources refer to data that already exist. The secondary data was collected by means of the review of literature such as books, journals, newsletters, newspapers and press statements. A qualitative research strategy has been employed in this research project. Qualitative research is a system of inquiry which seeks to build a holistic, largely narrative, description to inform the researcher's understanding of a social or cultural phenomenon. It takes place in natural settings employing a combination of observations, interviews, and document reviews (Creswell, 2009).

The reason for selecting the qualitative method for this study is that, the topic needed to be explored flexibly with the main aim of accessing specific information rather than mere generalization of the findings. The goal of the qualitative research is to describe and understand rather than the explanation and prediction of human behaviour. One clear advantage of qualitative approach to research is its ability to get information directly from the source: ie: from Gallawater. This chapter will review this process, and how I have analysed documents, collected data and how results will be presented.

3.2 Sampling Procedure and data collection method

Within the community, a sample representative of the total population was chosen and twenty five people were selected. Based on the approximate size of Gallawater of one hundred and fifty people, this represented a sample of twenty five. The sample was chosen randomly, and all households had an equal chance of being selected. Leedy (1989) also agrees that in random sampling, the choice of respondents is left entirely to chance. Because every household will have equal chances of being chosen, bias will be avoided. Random sampling is only one generally acceptable method of choosing a sample that is unbiased and therefore representative of the larger population.

The research project also includes population description in terms of demography, occupation, agricultural land-use practices, household sources of income, expenditure and its effect on socio-economic wellbeing of the community. This made up a formal set of questions, and the questionnaire was thus designed to include both closed and open-ended questions. However, open-ended questions are advantageous because they provide original views, opinions and attitudes of respondents. Behr (1983) also says that open-ended questions are advantageous because they allow respondents to give personal and unguided answers. Political and traditional leadership were also interviewed members of the cooperatives active in Gallawter were also interviewed. The questionnaires were self administered, the reason for this is because not all respondents understand and could write English. Observation during fieldwork also helps to relate information collected from the respondents.

The main advantage of this data-collection procedure is that the behaviour which is to be studied, is recorded first hand as compared to interviews and questionnaires in which information is presented at second hand. It is noted that researchers do not have to depend on the participant's possibly misleading reports about the relevant behaviour, but observe it directly.

3.3 Analysis of data

Babbie (2013) contends that, qualitative data analysis is the non-numerical assessment of observations made through participant observation, content analysis, in-depth interviews, and other qualitative research techniques. According to De Vos (2005), qualitative data analysis change data into findings, this involves reducing the volume of raw information, filtering significance patterns and constructing a framework for communicating the fundamental nature of what the data reveals.

Thus, data analysis is the act of transforming data with the intention of extracting constructive information to make possible conclusions. Furthermore Maxwell (1998) states that qualitative research consists of methodical and detailed study of individuals in their natural setting. The analysis of data, the data collected for this study commented on occupation, age, employment, level of education, marital status, household sources of income, and agricultural activities, as well as the type of farming preferred, and how this impacted on livelihoods. The results of the study were analysed in two portions. The first part focuses on non-quantifiable responses, ie: those from open-ended questions. It will also include information obtained by observation. Simple statistical measurement like percentages and averages has been used to describe the data.

When analysing my data, I have used various perspectives to inform my work. When data is analysed by themes it is called thematic analysis. Which is highly inductive, that is, the themes emerge from the data and are not imposed upon it by the researcher. In this type of analysis, the data collection and analysis take place simultaneously. The background reading can form part of the analysis process, especially if it can help to explain an emerging theme. Closely connected to thematic analysis is comparative analysis. Using this type of method, data from different people are compared and contrasted and the process continues until the researcher is satisfied that no new issues are arising.

Comparative and thematic analyses are often used in the same project, with the researcher moving backwards and forwards between transcripts, memos, notes and the research literature (Gerber, 2013) The content analysis according to Gerber (2013) the process is mechanical with the analysis being left until the data has been collected. The most common method of doing this is to code by content. Using this method the researcher systematically works through each transcript assigning codes, which may be numbers or words, to specific characteristics within the text. The researcher may already have a list of categories or she may read through each transcript and let the categories emerge from the data. Some researchers may adopt both approaches.

Creswell identifies various steps to analyze the qualitative data, which were helpful to this study. The first step is to organize and prepare the data for analysis. This involves transcribing interviews, optically scanning material, typing up field notes, or sorting and arranging the data into different types depending on the sources of information.

According to Creswell (2009) the second step is to read through all the data, a first step is to obtain a general sense of information and to reflect on its overall meaning. What general ideas are participants saying? What is the tone of the ideas? The third step is to begin a detailed analysis with a coding process. Coding according to Creswell is the process of organizing the material into chunks or segments of text before bringing meaning to information. It involves taking text data, segmenting sentences (or paragraphs).

3.4 Summary

Qualitative research strategy was employed in this research project. The goal of the qualitative research is to describe and understand rather than the explanation and prediction of human behaviour. One clear advantage of qualitative approach to research is its ability to get information directly from the source. The data has been collected from Gallawater and the results of the study were presented in two parts. The first part involved itself with non-quantifiable responses, including responses from open-ended questions. Simple statistical measurements like percentages and averages were used to analyse the data. The demographic socio-economic status of the community was included, these variables help to understand the composition of the community and also assess development needs and capacities.

CHAPTER 4

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter the results of the study are presented in two parts. The first part concerns itself with non-quantifiable responses, including responses from open-ended questions. It will also include information obtained by observation. Here I have used simple statistical measurements like percentages and averages to describe the data. The demographic and socio-economic statuses of the community were included, and these variables help to understand the composition of the community and also assess development needs and capacities.

The most important core finding of the study is underpinned on the lack of agricultural equipment, as well as technical skills and capacities that may provide food security for people in Gallawater. This is particularly relevant to those who rely on government grants and given the overall lack of success of land reform programs in Gallawater, particularly for alleviating poverty. Information on the availability of technical capacities and the level of literacy will be presented. The data will be presented in order to get information of what resources this community has and whether they have the capacity to fix agricultural equipment that is not working. The other issue dealt with in this chapter is the demographic profile of the Gallawater community members.

4.2 Demographic information

A questionnaire was used to collect demographic information from households and other information about their socio-economic position, age, education, employment and occupation. It was easy to get access to the Gallawater community through the community members, but they also wanted assurance that their problems be solved through this study. They also complained of similar studies being conducted on their farm and that they were promised to be assisted but that didn't happen. Even though it was explained to them that the study was for academic purposes they insisted that, they were given assurance by previous researchers that, their problems will be solved. Thus, the respondents were assured that the information given will be used for academic purposes. Here, the demographic information discussed has a significant role to play towards community development because it provides an overall view of the characteristics of communities. It therefore becomes easier to make suggestions to help in identifying development based on population composition, needs and capacities. The demographic profile of the data gathered in this investigation and explained below focused on age, sex, education levels, occupation of the sampled respondents who were interviewed.

4.3 Household size

The Gallawater community have relatively large households, especially when household, which usually has more members compared to urban areas. This can be attributed to the extended household, which tends to support more people than just immediate core family members.

Table 1: Households

Community	Households interviewed	Average household size
Gallawater	25	7

Table 2: Gender

Gender	Number of respondents	Percentage %
Male	18	72
Female	7	28
Total	25	100

Table two shows that seventy two percent of respondents (i.e. 18 out of 25 persons) were males and 28 percent of respondents (i.e. 7 out of 25 persons) were females. It indicates that there were many males than females that were interviewed. From the information collected it is evident that men are the head of families in the Gallawater.

Table 3: Age

Age	Number of respondents	Percentage %
16-25	0	0
26-35	1	4
35+	24	94%
Total	25	100

Table three shows that four percent (4%) of respondents were between the ages of 26 and 35. Ninety four percent of respondents were above thirty five years of age. The above table reveals that the ages of the community members who answered the questionnaires range from 26 and above 35 years of age.

Table 4: Marital Status

Marital status	Number of respondents	Percentage %
Married	21	84
Single	4	16
Total	25	100

The above table indicates that 84 percent of respondents were married and 16 percent of respondents were single.

Table 5: Level of education

Standard passed	Number of respondents	Percentage %
Secondary	0	0
Primary	17	68
Illiterate	8	32
Total	25	100

The above table reflects the education levels of the Gallawater community. It can be seen that the education levels are very low. Thirty two percent of the community members are illiterate. This table also indicates that 68 percent of the community have low primary level of education. It indicates that for them to support their livelihoods would be difficult if the community is not supported by government through development projects or initiatives that seek to alleviate their plight. In other words their level of dependence on state grants is high, mainly because people do not have sufficient education to organise and run a business. Given the level of education of the respondents it would be difficult for them also to manage the resources hence there is an urgent need amongst the respondents for capacity building and technical support. In terms of government intervention in introducing massive irrigation schemes that will contribute in the realization of their hopes as they left their place of origin voluntarily to search for a piece of land for farming.

Table 6: Unemployment

COMMUNITY	No respondents	Percentage
UNEMPLOYED	25	100%
EMPLOYED	0	0%
TOATAL	25	100%

Table 6 reveals that all the respondents that were interviewed are unemployed. This also reflects a negative picture because most people are simply without a regular income.

Given the level of education of the respondents it would be difficult for them to enjoy decent and comfortable standard of living.

Table 7: Farming

Farming	Number of respondents	Percentage %
With land	15	60
No land	10	40
Total	25	100

Table 7 indicates that a large number of people do have land to cultivate. Forty percent of the respondents interviewed in this community do not have land and their plots are very small. In other words, these individuals only have small garden plots and do not have large agricultural fields where they can plant maize and dryland crops. This suggests therefore that these people are not attached to the land as a resource to derive a living. They depend largely on government handouts like pension grants and other economic activities for a

living such as remittances. This table also shows that 15 out of 25 people are engaged in stock farming as the sole farming activity that they practice. It can be deduced from table 7 that the Gallawater community has livestock that assist them in sustaining their livelihoods. Cattle are also a resource for community members as the sale of livestock can bring in substantial cash

4.4 Discussion

Lack of agricultural equipment has been mentioned as one of the serious problems facing the resuscitation of agriculture in Gallawater farm. Fencing of the arable land is not adequate as some of the livestock feed freely on crops. Respondents interviewed also indicated that the soil is not suitable for cultivation. Although some sections appear good, some are down. Local and outside stock stray freely on arable land and on several occasions crops have been plundered. The situation regarding access to primary health-care is difficult. Respondents indicated that they only have access to a clinic on Fridays, this being a mobile clinic that sometimes does not arrive. They have to travel to either the towns of Sada or Whittlesea to have access to clinics. Three out of 25 respondents indicated that they usually get their financial support from remittances, usually from family members employed elsewhere. Other support that they receive is government handouts like pension grants. Their financial status makes it difficult for them to buy any material for their houses.

All respondents interviewed indicated that the soil is too hard to cultivate because of the scarcity of rain. The agricultural output however, is mostly affected by insufficient machinery and this prevents them from meeting their needs. The respondents reported that as much as they attended some training workshops, they were not trained to fix an engine machine to pump water from the near river. This created a very serious problem as their

irrigation scheme was faulty for almost eight months and this affected their crop production especially (cabbages).

People stressed that, had they been trained on how to fix the machine they could have made some profit as they could sell their products to the nearest spar in Whittlesea. Tractors are very appropriate agricultural equipments that can be utilized but the major problem facing this community is the hiring of a tractor. Since the unemployment rate is high in this community it is difficult to hire a tractor at R300 when this community wants to carry out agricultural activities such as ploughing, and cultivation. Traditional equipment is lacking and the land for cultivation is rocky and hilly, making their activities difficult. Grazing land is used as a common resource on which everyone has equal access but there are few households who own live-stock of any significant number.

The other theme that emerged prominently from the data collected is that respondents simply wanted a piece of land where they could involve themselves with farming (on a collective basis). The fact that they were subjected to the process of migration and removal, meant that stock is really important to people. All the respondents indicated that stock farming assisted them in sustaining their livelihoods, particularly through sale of stock at livestock auctions. Given this data, I was able to investigate some aspects of income generation particularly input from live-stock which remains a pivotal economic asset. Numerous stock sales have been held on the farm. A diversity of income-earning opportunities in Gallawater may help to stabilize livelihoods and agricultural output is of three kinds, annual crops from arable lands, vegetable crops and livestock production. The Gallawater community is committed to mixed type of farming with emphasis on stock

farming. The tract of land in Gallawater is rugged, rocky and this restricts the extent of cultivation and because of the quality of land this community stresses on livestock farming.

The original owner had divided the grazing land into 12 grazing camps and fencing separated camps. However, respondents indicated that fencing in many parts of the farm had collapsed and the community does not have adequate resources and capital to maintain the fence. The respondents also indicated that, in many instances animals have managed to cross to the neighbouring commercial farms and these animals have been impounded leading to tensions and conflict with the neighbouring farmers.

The lack of provision for water in most grazing camps is a serious problem and present a hindrance to the implementation of management of veld resources. Overall, grazing areas in Gallawater farm were not in good condition when the farm was sold in 1993. The community remains dependent on cash flows from outside the village and old age pension is also a major source of income for this community. In sum, the resettlement in Gallawater shows limited potential for addressing inequality, poverty and dependence on external sources of income.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The focus of this chapter is to unite insights from literature with evidence from Gallawater with bring specific reference to land reforms, and in order to provide a conclusion and recommendations. The basis of the study was to build up a clear picture concerning land reforms and agriculture, examine and document the challenges facing agricultural production in Gallawater farm. This will provide an impetus to examine as to why land reform programs are not making significant impact in the alleviation of poverty in this farm. This chapter will be divided into two sections.

5.2 Key findings of the study

From the collected data, the researcher found out that extensive livestock agriculture can be the only viable form of farming, due to the difficulties facing agricultural production. A lack of agricultural equipment has been mentioned as one of the serious problems facing the resuscitation of agriculture in the Gallawater farm. The fact that, they were subjected to processes of migration has motivated many people to focus on stock farming, and all respondents indicated that stock farming mainly assists them in sustaining their livelihoods. Given low levels of education it would be difficult for this community to manage their agricultural resources hence there is an urgent need amongst the respondents for capacity

building and technical support. The researcher found that training could have been an important factor if some of the community members attended intensive training workshops, especially irrigation equipments, since they could have made a profit on produce sold to shops in nearby towns. Tractors are seen as appropriate agricultural equipments, but high costs prevent people from making use of these, given the high rate of unemployment-which is 100%. Fencing of the arable land is not adequate as some of the livestock feed freely on crops. In many cases people do not have adequate resources and capital. The community remains dependent on cash flows from outside the village and old age pension is also a major source of income.

5.3 Recommendations

In terms of government intervention it is imperative to point out that, in order for this community to be able to fight poverty, government should ensure that viable and well managed development initiatives in the form of income generating projects must be established. The role of the extension officers do not have much impact as the community indicated that, their role is minimal. Extension officers provided certain community members with seeds and assisted the community with disease control and dosing, but not much else. What transpired quite prominently was the lack of capacity building and technical knowledge. Hence the government needs to invest on transferring technical knowledge if this community can be able to realize its dream of eradicating poverty. I recommend that, the department of agriculture needs to work closely with the community by setting up a very strong committee that will assist the community in channelling its problems to the government. Furthermore, given the level of education it would be difficult

for this community to manage the resources hence there is a dire need for capacity building and technical support. The challenge for the land reform programme is to provide land beneficiaries with technical knowledge or skills and capacities that may provide food security for people of this farm. It can be deduced from the collected data that, one of the major challenges impeding the Gallawater farm in utilising land is the lack of machinery. This area is faced with climatic conditions that are too dry to ensure sustainable production and hence irrigation is a suitable way of removing the risk of crop failure due to drought. The government should massively support this community with irrigation scheme as this has had detrimental effects on the general level of its production. Investment in fertilizers and other production inputs should be encouraged so as to support the traditional ways of production.

5.4 Conclusion

Settlement stage under land reform is very critical because the success of land reform is not only measured by the number of farms and hectares redistributed, but also by what happens when people are on the land. As reflected in the recommendations of this research project, a coherent strategy on development for land reform beneficiaries must be established. Such development should be implemented with a clear insight for the area, planning and provision of adequate support service to beneficiaries.

The involvement of local authority such as municipality must play a central role in ensuring that, this community is massively supported with agricultural equipments, technical skills and machinery such as: irrigation scheme, conduct intensive workshops related to land use activities, a tractor which is perceived as an appropriate agricultural equipment. This

justifies a need for strong government intervention as high costs prevent Gallawater community from making use of these equipments, given the high rate of unemployment which is 100%. The scope of land reform in most countries includes some mix of access to land and formalisation of land rights and entitlements, as well as improving post-reform production structures and livelihoods (Ghimire, 2001: 7-10). Ghimire (2001) argues that when people are provided with land and support, they could be assisted to move out of poverty through land use initiatives that increase household income and food security.

What Ghimire is raising is linked to Gallawater farm in relation to the lack of services and non-availability of strong government initiatives on a massive scale. The failure of government intervention has exposed this community to poverty as the rate of unemployment is very high. It is therefore, important that the government must take the responsibility in providing support services to land reform beneficiaries to suit their needs and this must be directed at empowering them. It can be deduced from the findings that most black rural communities, who are now landowners as a result of settled land claims or redistribution projects, were in the past marginalised and excluded from the mainstream economy and they lack skills and capacity to run commercial farms.

REFERENCES

- Adams, M. 1995. Land Reforms: New Seeds on old ground? No. 6 October 1995. ODI Portland House.
- Baldwin, A. 1975. Mass Removals and Separate Development, *Journal of Southern African Studies* vol.12 April 1975.
- Behr, A.L. 1983. *Empirical Research Methods for Human Sciences*. Butterworth's. Durban
- Berry, S. 1993. No condition is permanent. The social dynamics of agrarian change in Sub-Saharan Africa. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.
- Binns T. and Nel E. 1999. Beyond the development impasse: the role of local economic development and community self-reliance in rural South Africa. United Kingdom. Cambridge University Press
- Carney, D. 1998. Sustainable rural livelihoods: What contribution can we make? London. Department for International Development.
- Coetzee J.K, Graaff J and Wood G. 2001. *Development: Theory, Policy, and Practice*. South Africa. Oxford University Press Southern Africa, Cape Town.
- Coetzee, J.K, Graaf, J, Hendricks, F and Wood G. 2001. *Development: Theory, Policy, and Practice*. Oxford University Press Southern Africa. Cape Town.
- Cousins B. 1999. 'Invisible Capital: The contribution of communal rangelands to rural livelihoods in South Africa'. *Development Southern Africa*.
- Creswell, J.W. 2009. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. London. SAGE Publications, Inc
- Deninger K. and May J. 2000. Can there be growth with equity? An initial assessment of land reform in South Africa. Washington DC. Policy research working paper World Bank Development Research Group.

- De Vos, A. S. 2005. Research at Grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions. Pretoria: Van Schaick Publishers.
- Delville, P.L, Toulmin C, Colin J.P and Chauveau J.P. 2002. Negotiating Access to Land in West Africa: A Synthesis of Findings from Research on Derived Rights to Land. London. International Institute for environment and development.
- Deninger K. And May J. 2000. Can there be growth with equity? An initial assessment of land reform in South Africa. Washington DC. Policy research working paper World Bank development research group.
- Gerber, 2013. Guided Research Study Guide. Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. Port Elizabeth
- Ghimire K.B. 2001. Land Reform and Peasant livelihoods: The social dynamics of rural poverty and agrarian reforms in developing countries. TDG Publishing. London.
- Giddens A. 2006. Sociology. Cambridge. Polity Press.
- Department of Land Affairs. 1996. Green Paper on South African Land Policy.
- Border Rural Committee. (BRC). 1997. Groundwork.<http://www.brc.21.co.za>
- Haralambos and Holborn. 1995. Sociology Themes and Perspectives. United Kingdom. Harper Collins Publishers Limited.
- Hendricks, F.H. 1990. The Pillars of apartheid: Land Tenure, Rural Planning and The Chieftaincy. Upsala Studia Sociologica Upsaliensia, Sweden.
- Coetzee, J.K, Graaf, J, Hendricks,F and Wood, G. 2001. Development: Theory,Policy, and Practice. Oxford University Press Southern Africa. Cape Town.
- Kothari, C.R. 1990. Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques. New Delhi. Wishwa Prakashan.

Kothari, C.R. 1990. Research methodology: Methods and techniques. New Delhi: Wishwa Prakashan

Kumar, R. 1999. Research Methodology: a step by step guide for beginners. London. SAGE Publications, Inc.

Department of Land Affairs. 1995. Land Information. Vol. 4. Ecological Engineering Applied to Agricultural and Land use planning.<http://www.sciencedirect.com>

Land Reform Policy Discussion Document. 2012. ANC.

Leedy, P.D. 1989. Practical research: Planning and Design: A basic text for all courses in research methodology. New York. Macmillan.

Leo C, 1984, Land and Class in Kenya. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Levin and Weiner, 1991, "Land and Agrarian Transition in South Africa," Vol. 23, pp. 18-31

Manenzhe T.J. 2007. Post Settlement Challenges for Land Reform Beneficiaries. Cape Town; University of the Western Cape.

Marcus T. 1996. Down to Earth: Land Demand in the new South Africa. Durban, Indicator Press.

Maxwell, J.A. 1998. 'Designing a qualitative study' in Bickman, L and Rog, D.J (eds) Handbook of Applied Social Research Methods, Thousand Oaks, Sage Publications.

Mayende G. 2009. The Land Belongs to Us: The Land and Agrarian. Pietermaritzburg: Today. Intrepid Printers Limited.

Mini S.E. 2000. The Environmental Sustainability of Land Transfer in South Africa: The case of Gallawater in the Eastern Cape. Journal of Geography Education, Vol. 43, pp.82-94 Seoul National University

Ministry for Agriculture and Land Affairs. 1998. A discussion document, Tshwane

Moyo S, 1995, The Land Question in Zimbabwe. Harare: SAPES Books.

Ntsebeza L. 1999. Land Tenure Reform in South Africa: An Example from The Eastern Cape Province.UK.

Payne G. 1997. Urban Land Tenure and Property Rights in Developing Countries: A Review. London: Intermediate Technology.

African National Congress. Reconstruction and Development Programme. 1994. A policy framework. Johannesburg. Umanyano Publications.

Extension of Security of Tenure Act .1997 . No. 62

Rose-Innes J.1936. The Glen Grey Act and the native question. King Williams Town: Lovedale Press.

Southal R. 1982. South Africa's Transkei. Johannesburg, Helneman.

Department of Land Affairs. 1997. The White Paper on South African Land Policy.

Van Zyl J. 1996. Agricultural Land Reform in Southern Africa: Policies, Markets and Mechanisms. Cape Town. Oxford Press.

Department of Land Affairs. 1997. White Paper on South African Land Policy.

Wotshela L. 1999. Diagnostic Evaluation of The Gallawater A Trust-Queenstown District. Unpublished Report for the Eastern Cape Land Reform.

[Http://www.incontact.com](http://www.incontact.com)

[Http://www.fao.org](http://www.fao.org)

[Http://www.odi.org](http://www.odi.org)

www.nda.agric.za

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

A study of two irrigation projects in the Kat River Valley, Eastern Cape, with specific reference to land reforms and agriculture

SECTION A

1. Head of family

MALE	FEMALE
------	--------

2. Marital status:

SINGLE		
MARRIED		

3. Age in years:

17-27	
28-38	
39-ABOVE	

4. Number of dependents:

1		4		
2		5		
3		6		

5. How many children who are at school?

1	
2	

6. Level of education:

LOWER PRIMARY	
HIGHER PRIMARY	
SECONDARY	
OTHER	

7. Household size

What is the overall average household size?

Community	Households surveyed	Average households

Gallawater		
------------	--	--

SECTION B

What farming activities are you currently busy with?

ARABLE	
STOCK FARMING	

8. Do you have any agricultural equipments?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

9. If yes, name/list them

.....

.....

.....

.....

10. If no why?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

11. How much money do you spend on?

	MONTHLY	YEARLY
TOOLS		
LIVESTOCK		
FENCING		

Are you employed?

.....

.....

.....

12. What were the challenges you faced when you first came on this farm? Name them

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

13. Have you experienced any conflicts with regards to land use or the distribution of resources across the community?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

14. Do women actively participate in land use activities and if they do in which capacity?

.....

.....

.....

15. Do you have land/ field to cultivate?

.....

.....

.....

16. Do you have irrigation schemes in this community?

.....

.....

.....

17. What kind of development is currently undertaken on this farm or is there any agricultural development project initiated by government?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

18. Have you been involved in any training or workshop to manage the land?

.....

.....

.....

19. Is the land maintained and conserved for productive use? If not why?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

SECTION C

20. When did you arrive at Gallawater?

NAME	YEAR	MONTH

21. Did you leave voluntarily or chased away?

.....

.....

.....

.....

22. Who purchased this land?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

23. How much money were you required to pay?

.....

.....

.....

.....

24. Which other parties were involved in buying this land?

.....

.....

.....

.....

25. Who was the owner?

.....

.....

26. How much did this land cost?

.....

.....

.....

.....

27. Did you have any representative or organization when the land was purchased?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

28. What do you like most about this area?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

29. Do you have stock? How many sheep, goats and cattle do you have

SHEEP		
GOATS		
CATTLE		
OTHER SPECIFY		

30. What do you use for ploughing? Tractor, draft animals

.....

.....

.....

.....

31. Who does it belong to?

.....

.....

.....

32. Does the department of agriculture provide any assistance?

.....

.....

.....

33. Are there any extension officers assisting you ?

.....

.....

.....

.....

34. Where do you do shopping?

FORT BEAUFORT	
QUEENSTOWN	
WHITLEASEA	

35. What transport do you usually use for shopping?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Fort Hare Institute of Social and Economic Research
(FHISER)

4 Hill Street

East London

Tel: +27 (0) 43 704 7511

Cell: +27 (0) 76 034 4985

6 December 2013

Editing of Mr Wana Lundi's MA dissertation (NMMU - Development Studies)

This serves to confirm that I have acted as supervisor to the above student, and have edited his written dissertation during 2013. I have encouraged him to submit his academic work for examination during December 2013.

Much thanks

Dr. Teresa Connor

Senior Researcher, FHISER

tconnor@ufh.ac.za

