Analysis of Support Service Needs and Constraints facing Farmers Under Land Reform Agricultural Projects in North West Province, South Africa

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Abstract: The objective of the research was to analyze support service needs and constraints facing farmers under land reform agricultural projects in the Central district (Ngaka Modiri Molema) of the North West Province. The study covered the five (Ratlou, Tswaing, Mafikeng, Ditsobotla and Ramotshere) local municipalities of Ngaka Modiri Molema district in the North West Province of South Africa. Simple random technique (drawing from the hat method) was used to select 50 LRAD projects. Instrument of data collection was via structured and pre-tested questionnaire, the data was analyzed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS), regression analysis frequencies, mean and percentages. The study indicated that size of farms ranges from 6.6 – 1300 hectares. It was also evident that the project beneficiaries are faced with prominent constraints such as; lack of finance, poor building infrastructure, lack of fencing and poor input supply and these constraints have negative impact on the projects. Prominent support services needed by LRAD farmers are funding, building infrastructure, capital funds, farming infrastructure and inputs. The statistical analysis results have indicated that three of the seven variables were positive and one of the three variables was significantly associated with the probability of support services needs and constraints facing farmers under land reform agricultural projects. This is knowledge about extension officer. The regression results indicate that knowledge about extension officer ($t = 2.452$, $p = 0.019$) was highly significant. This variable tended to increase the chances of support services needs and constraints facing farmers under land reform agricultural projects.

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Introduction

Land is a very important scarce economic resource which is cherished by people of all races. It is the most basic need for rural people. The basic importance of land is that it provides people with food, fibre and other materials needed for clothing, housing and for various manufactured goods. Land contains mineral wealth and does not only form the basis of wealth, but also security and pride (Hubacek *et al*., 2002). For this reason, any attempt to dispossess rightful owners of their land can pose serious repercussions in any society. Zimbabwe can be cited as a perfect example where land issues have caused social, economic and political upheavals. In most developing countries the bulk of productive farm land is still owned by minority of land owners. The land suitable for cultivation is getting increasingly scarce because of the growing population pressure. This trend has caused a rise in the number of landless people as well as increasing the inequality of income and wealth distribution. All developing regions (Asia, Africa and Latin America) share impoverishment associated with increasing rural population pressures (Bokermann, 2008). In most countries, the highly unequal structure of land ownership is probably the single most important determinant of existing highly inequitable distribution of rural income and wealth (Todaro, 1994).

The Southern African Development Community region faces a number of land problems that relate to differences in its colonial history, land use policies, population dynamics and heterogeneity in land quality and investment. The issue of unequal access to land and control over benefits from its use and other natural resources has dominated discussions mainly in the former settler colonies such as Zimbabwe, Namibia and South Africa. The other countries that experienced low intensity settler land occupation have mostly encountered issues that are linked to utilization. Land problems have a potential to destabilize social, economic and political development particularly in Southern African Development Community region as a whole if not addressed (SADC, 2009).

The land issue has been of paramount importance in the history of South Africa. For a long time, the dispossession of land from blacks by colonial government was the order of the day. This consequently resulted in the creation of a racially diverse and divided society. The problem was accentuated by the introduction of the apartheid

system of government in 1948. Some of the effects of apartheid policies were the massive removal of blacks from their land to marginal and unproductive land. These massive removals led to the undermining of subsistence farming, which led to wide spread of poverty among black households. In contrast, white farmers were empowered to go into commercial agriculture through financial and technical support (Cousins, 2009).

The dispossession, among other things, resulted in resentment and emotional stress among people. Therefore, the desire to seek redress became of paramount importance. It is against this background that the first democratic government introduced the Land Reform Programme in 1994. As a result of decades of dispossession and racist land laws, land distribution in South Africa is among the most skewed in the world. The result of these racially divisive land laws is that 28% of South Africa's population (a large proportion of whom are farmers as well as farm workers and their dependants) live on 88% of the agricultural land. Thus the remaining 12% of agricultural land supports 72% of the rural population who are most found in former homelands (Department of Agriculture, 1998).

Following the advent of the new democratic dispensation, the South African government has put in place policies and programmes addressing the land issue. Land reform is the transfer of land ownership from existing land owners to new land owners with the aim of addressing the skewed land ownership patterns. Thus encouraging rural development, advancing the land rights and economic of the rural people. Land reform in South Africa is divided into three sub programmes, namely land restitution, land redistribution and land tenure reform. Land restitution is a legal process whereby persons or communities who can prove that they were dispossessed of their property after 19 June 1913, as a result of past racial discriminatory laws and practices can regain their property or receive due financial compensation for it. It is designed to restore property ownership or provide financial compensation to those who were dispossessed of their property under colonialism and apartheid. Therefore promotes equity for victims of dispossession by the state, particularly the landless and rural people. This facilitates development initiates by bringing together all stakeholders relevant to land claims and promotes reconciliation through the restitution process. This sub programme contributes towards an equitable redistribution of land rights (Department of Land Affairs, 2004).

Land redistribution is a process designed to transfer land from people who previously enjoyed favourable access to those who were excluded from land market on the basis of race. Land redistribution main purpose is to address the skewed land ownership patterns of colonial and apartheid past by providing people who were previously excluded from land market with access to land for residential and productive uses, in order to improve their income and quality of life. The programme aims to assist the poor, labour tenants, farm workers, women, as well as emergent farmers. The South African government adopted the principle of market-based approach, without lowering either the rights of those who have historically enjoyed favourable access to the land market. Government will assist in the purchase of land, but in general not be the buyer or owner. Rather it will make land acquisition grants available and will support and finance the required planning process (Department of Land Affairs, 1997).

It is more than seventeen years now since the Land Reform Programme has been operational. However, the debate has continued regarding the efficacy of the land policy and programmes. The concerns regarding the effectiveness of policy and programmes focus mainly on the lack of success of agricultural projects in the country in terms of the intended objectives. Many critics attribute the poor performance of the land reform programme to a number of issues. Anecdotal evidences suggest that farmers who were beneficiaries of land reform policy needed more than land in order to be successful farmers. Thomas and van den Brink (2006) highlighted that much more than land needs to be financed such as, other investments, inputs, resettlement, advice, overhead and land is only 30-40 percent of costs.

Geingob (2005) went further to highlight that the land reform process seems to have more concerned about the quantity of land transferred, the amount spent than the impact on beneficiaries and the beneficiaries' broader needs are not given adequate attention because the land reform process is not situated within integrated development strategies and this lack of post-transfer support keeps beneficiaries from using land productively.

Manenzhe (2007) stated that the provision of land alone is not enough to ensure productive use of that land and to make a positive difference to people livelihoods. Jacobs (2003) also revealed that after land reform beneficiaries have settled on the land, support may be required in the areas of agricultural production, infrastructure, finance and access to markets. The objective of the study is to examine and analyse support services needs and constraints facing farmers under land reform agricultural projects in North West Province, with a view to developing a comprehensive set of recommendations on how to

ensure the successful achievement of the specified set of goals.

Materials And Methods

The study was conducted in the North West Province of South Africa. The provincial land area is 118 797 square kilometers of grassland with scattered trees. Aside from mining, agriculture is the only sector in which the North-West province has a comparative advantage over the other provinces. The agricultural sector produces 13% of provincial GDP and provides jobs for 18% of the labour force in the province. Sunflower seeds, groundnuts, maize, wheat and cattle dominate the agricultural sector. The North-West province has a population of 3.5 million people, who constitute 9.5% of the South Africa's total population. In addition, 65% of this population lives in rural areas (Davis, 2009).

There are 4 districts and 21 local municipalities in North-West Province of South Africa. These districts are Ngaka Modiri Molema, Bojanala, Dr. Kenneth Kaunda and Dr. Ruth Segomotso Mompati. Ngaka Modiri Molema, Bojanala and Dr. Kenneth Kaunda districts comprise 5 local municipalities per district and Dr. Ruth Segomotso Mompati has 6 local municipalities (Department of Cooperative Governance, 2010). The selected study area is Ngaka Modiri Molema district and all 5 local municipalities in Central (Ngaka Modiri Molema) district. The local municipalities are Ratlou, Tswaing, Mafikeng, Ditsobotla and Ramotshere local municipalities. The target population for this study was beneficiaries of Land Reform for Agricultural Development (LRAD) in Ngaka Modiri Molema district. According to Rural Development and Land Reform (RD & LR) district office, the number of farmers under the approved and transferred LRAD projects as at 2011 is 75.

From four districts in North West Province, Ngaka Modiri Molema was selected randomly. From five local municipalities in Ngaka Modiri Molema there are 75 LRAD active projects from which 50 LRAD projects were selected randomly using the drawing from the hat method. A questionnaire was designed as a tool for data collection which consisted of open and closed ended questions. The questionnaire covered demographic and socio-economic variables of LRAD beneficiaries, support services needed by LRAD beneficiaries and constraints facing LRAD beneficiaries. Descriptive statistics such as standard deviation, mean and frequency distribution were employed to summarize the socio-economic data. Regression analysis was done to establish the socio-economic factors that influence support services needs and constraints facing farmers under land reform agricultural projects.

Results

The results of the study are presented in figures and tables. Figures 1, 2 and 3 show the demographics, socio-economic and sources of information of the respondents respectively. Table 1 presents the farming enterprises among respondents, Table 2 shows support services needed, Table 3 highlighted the level of severity of constraints and Table 4 presents the parameter estimates from multiple regression analysis.

Table 1: Farming Enterprises among respondents in the study area

Crop enterprises	Frequency	Percentage
Maize	25	50
Sunflower	22	44
Groundnuts	5	10
Wheat	4	8
Vegetables	12	24
Livestock enterprises		
Beef	35	70
Goats	12	24
Broilers	3	6
Dairy	4	8
Sheep	20	40
Pigs	8	16
Layers	1	2

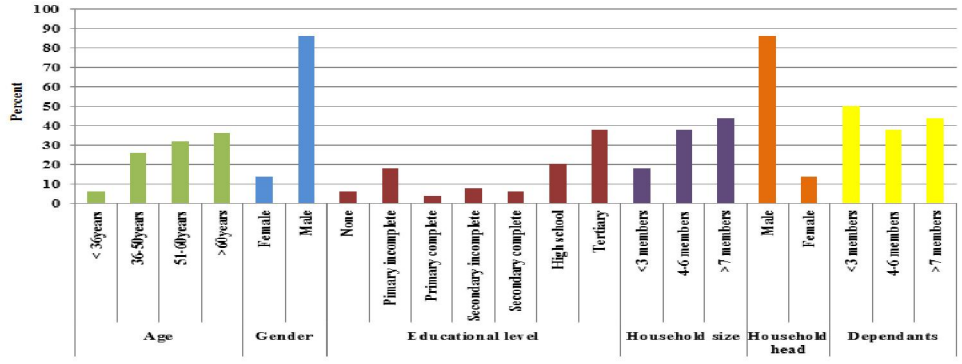

Figure 4.1 : Demographics of the respondents of the study

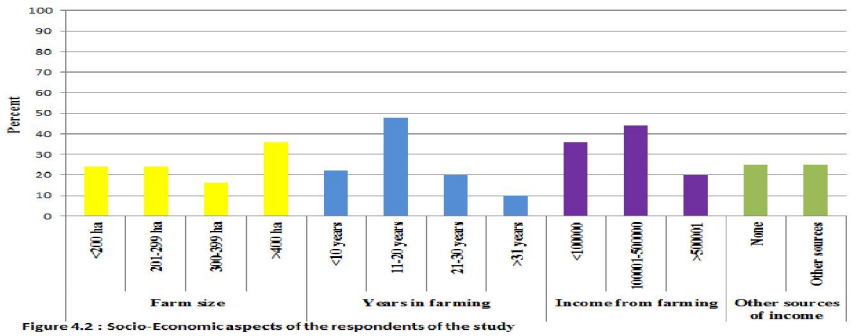

Figure 4.2 : Socio-Economic aspects of the respondents of the study

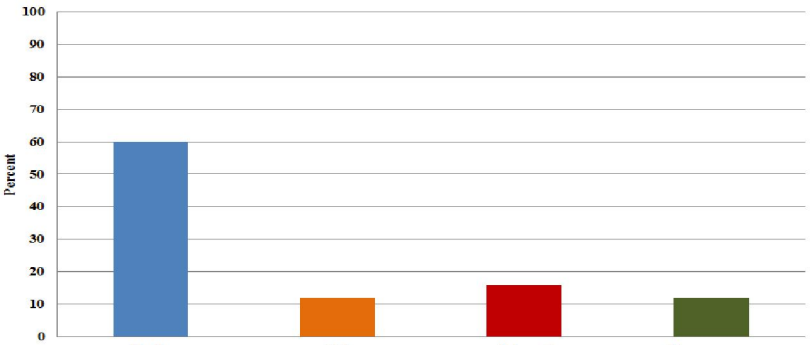

Figure 4.3 : Sources of information

Table 2: Support services needed

Services	Low	Medium	High
Funding	1(2)	3(6)	46(92)
Marketing	7(14)	35(70)	8(16)
Transport	4(8)	30(60)	16(32)
Building infrastructure	3(6)	11(22)	36(72)
Water	13(26)	22(44)	15(30)
Financial advice	7(14)	32(64)	11(22)
Roads	7(14)	25(50)	18(36)
Fencing	7(14)	10(20)	33(66)
Skills	3(6)	40(80)	7(14)
Training	2(4)	40(80)	8(16)
Management	2(4)	40(80)	8(16)
Inputs supply	7(14)	7(14)	36(72)
Support Services	4(8)	28(56)	18(36)
Capital funds	4(8)	2(4)	44(88)
Inputs	4(8)	8(16)	38(76)
Extension support	1(2)	36(72)	13(26)
Farming infrastructure	3(6)	11(22)	36(72)
Skills	2(4)	41(82)	7(14)
Mentorship programmes	4(8)	37(74)	9(18)
Farming advice	2(4)	40(80)	8(16)
Skills development facilities	2(4)	39(78)	9(18)
Access to electricity	21(42)	23(46)	6(12)
Labour force	36(72)	10(20)	4(8)
Machinery and implements	1(1)	28(56)	21(42)

Table 3: Level of severity of constraints

Constraints	Low	Medium	High
Funding / finance	1(2)	2(4)	47(94)
Marketing	7(14)	36(72)	7(14)
Transport	5(10)	25(50)	20(40)
Building infrastructure	3(6)	11(22)	36(72)
Water	13(26)	22(44)	15(30)
Erosion	42(84)	5(10)	3(6)
Roads	4(8)	28(56)	18(36)
Fencing	3(6)	12(24)	35(70)
Skills development facilities	1(2)	39(78)	10(20)
Lack of training	1(2)	40(80)	9(18)
Lack of management skills	1(2)	41(82)	8(16)
Inputs supply	2(4)	8(16)	40(80)
Lack of extension support	1(2)	37(74)	12(24)
Lack of cooperatives	17(34)	30(60)	3(6)
Conflict among members	43(86)	5(10)	2(4)
Linkage with projects	2(4)	47(94)	1(2)
Lack of sense of ownership	39(78)	7(14)	4(8)
Markets	9(18)	40(80)	1(2)
Labour force	36(72)	10(20)	4(8)
Lack of capital funds	1(2)	5(10)	44(88)
Lack of resources	1(2)	33(66)	16(32)
Poor performance	9(18)	36(72)	5(10)
Market price	2(4)	45(90)	3(6)
Lack of access to land	48(96)	1(2)	1(2)
Communications infrastructure	4(8)	44(88)	2(4)
Education	6(12)	37(74)	7(14)
Flows of information and opportunities	2(4)	42(84)	6(12)
Lack of access to credit	9(18)	34(68)	7(14)
Lack of practical Commercial know-how	5(10)	41(82)	4(8)
Lack of capacity building	2(4)	40(80)	8(16)

Table 4: Parameter estimates from multiple regression analysis

Variables	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
(Constant)	41.840	15.058		2.779	.008
Age	.110	.124	.151	.887	.380
Educational level	-1.142	.654	-.281	-1.745	.088
Household head	-4.687	3.824	-	-	.227

			.188	1.226	
Farming experience	-.200	.100	-.263	-1.379	2.00
Farming income	-2.615E-6	.000	-.217	-1.587	.120
Farming experience	2.905	4.700	.091	.618	.540
Extension contact	9.204	3.754	.346	2.452	.019
F	2.598				
Sig.	0.026				
R	0.554				
R Square	0.307				
D-Watson	2.035				

Discussion

Demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the 50 LRAD beneficiaries interviewed, such as age, gender, educational level, household size, household head, dependants, farm size, years in farming, income from farming, other sources of income and sources of information at the time of survey are presented in Figure 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 respectively. The demographics of the respondents are presented in Figure 4.1. The results indicate that (36%) of the respondents were above 60 years of age, (58%) were between the age of 36-60 and only (6%) were 36 years and younger. This shows that there are more adults in the agricultural sector. This may be due to the rural-urban drift of the young. IFAD (2011) stated that the lack of interest by youth in farming poses a threat to agriculture and aggravates urban unemployment and social problems. IFAD further found that one of the difficult issues is that of attracting male and female youth. The study results established that (86%) of the respondents are males and (14%) are females. This shows that there are more men in farming than women. Adams (1995), found that land reform in Kenya favored men against women.

The distribution of respondents according to educational level show that (6%) never attended the school, (18%) primary school incomplete, (4%) primary school complete, (8%) secondary school incomplete, 6% secondary school complete, (20%) high school and (38%) tertiary. Werner (2003) found that most resettled beneficiaries had little or no knowledge of proper farming skills. The utilization of new technologies is critically dependent on workforces that is aware of them and understand how to use them. This also shows that there is a large number of project beneficiaries who are semi literate. Low education will also decrease productivity and income. However, good level of education helps to enhance technology adoption and increase the productivity and agricultural knowledge.

Households with less than three members was (18%), (38%) had between 4-6 members and 48% had more than 7 members. This shows that there are more households with more than 7 members. Aqhajanian (1986) suggested that farmers do adjust their household size to various aspects of the agricultural structure and further stated that considering the high rate of fertility in rural areas, the demographic mechanism of the downward adjustment of household size is the selective migration of young males to work in urban areas. Eighty six percent (86%) of the household heads are males and (14%) are females. This might be due to the fact that more male headed households are involved in farming than females. Kazianga & Wahhaj (2011) revealed that in many instances, gender is an important determinant in the allocation of resources within the household.

Figure 4.1 further shows that (50%) of the respondents have less than three dependants, (38%) had between 4-6 dependants and (44%) had more than 7 dependants. This might be due to the fact that farmers are aware of the importance of family planning. Abdul-Hakim and Che-Mat (2011) found that the dependency ratio, which is the ratio of the farmer to the number of dependants in the household, has a negative relationship with the probability to participate in off-farm employment and further state that the lower the dependency ratio, i.e. the larger the number of dependants, the higher the probability for the farmer to look for off-farm employment and since a farmer with a larger number of dependants requires a higher income to sustain the family and hence, has a higher probability to look for off-farm job.

The socio-economic aspects of the respondents of the study are presented in Figure 4.2. The results revealed that the farm size ranges between 6.6 – 1300 hectares. Thirty six percent (36%) of the respondents had more than 400 hectares, 16% had farm size that ranged between 300-399 hectares, (24%) had a farm size that ranged between 201-299 hectares and only (24%) had less than 200 hectares. This shows that the farms sizes of the majority (36%) of the respondents are more than 400 hectares. Joerger (2012) suggested that the size of a farm should be dependent upon the financial goals of the producer, hence meeting financial goals can be accomplished with a lower gross farm returns when the net farm income percentage is high, however increasing net farm income percentage requires a high level of willingness on the part of the manager to improve his or her farm management skills.

Regarding farming experience, (22%) of the respondents have spent less than10 years in farming while (48%) have 11 – 20 years of farming experience, (20%) have 21 – 30 years of farming experience and (10%) have more than 31 years of farming experience. This shows that the majority (48%) of respondents have 11 – 20 years of farming experience. Chiremba and Masters, (2012) stated that farming experience and skills are strong predictors of good performance and

farming experience is measured by the number of years that the household head has been farming and resettled.

The results indicated that (36%) of respondents had farm income of less than R100 000 per year. Forty four (44%) had a farm income that ranged between R100001 – R500000 per year and only (20%) had more than R500001 as farm income per year. This shows that the majority of the respondents had a farm income that ranged between R100001 – R500000 per year. World Bank (2009) found that the income of resettled households is more than five times as high as that of communal households in similar areas. To a certain degree (25%) gets a portion of their income from other sources like pensions and none farm enterprises.

The sources of information are presented in Figure 4.3. The results revealed that most (60%) of the respondents were receiving information through radio, television (12%), internet (6%) and news papers (12%). This shows that main sources of information remain radio. Access to usable information can have a significant impact on production. These results agree with that of Farm Radio International (2011) that radio is the most widespread medium for mass communications and by broadcasting in local languages, addresses the information and education requirements of farmers in Mali, Ghana, Tanzania and Uganda. This finding is further supported by Sokwanele, (2012) that radio is the main source of information among Zimbabwean farmers.

Farming enterprises are presented in Table 1. The majority (50%) of the respondents were engaged with maize, (44 %) sunflower, (10%) groundnuts, (8%) wheat and (24 %) for vegetables. This might be due to the fact that maize is eaten as a staple food by the majority of people in South Africa. Chianu *et al.*, (2009) highlighted that maize is the largest locally produced field crop and a key staple crop in the farming systems of Western Kenya. From Table 1, majority (70%) of the respondents rear beef cattle, (24%) goats, (6%) broilers, (8%) dairy, (40%) sheep, (16%) pigs and (2%) layers. It is clear from the table that the majority of the respondents' rears beef. Palmer and Ainslie (2012) stated that nationally, beef production is the most important livestock related activity, followed by small stock (sheep and goats) production.

The support services needed by LRAD beneficiaries are presented in Table 2. Most LRAD farmers indicated a high need of financial support. This shows that LRAD beneficiaries are in dire need of funding. With all things being equal, the absence of funding will lead to failure of LRAD projects. Tuta (2008) stated that most of the LRAD farmers reflected a need for more financial support in order for them to buy agricultural equipment. Tuta went further to highlight that the challenges experienced that were reflected by the interviewee when they provide their services amongst others, are insufficient financial resources which results in insufficient support services like vehicles.

It is seen from the table that (72%) of the respondents mentioned that the support services needed (building infrastructure) is high while about (22%) medium and (6%) low. This shows that LRAD farmers are in need of building infrastructure. Building infrastructure plays an important role in farming. Lahiff *et al.* (2008) highlighted that there is a general assumption on the part of the DLA that the provincial Department of Agriculture will provide support to beneficiaries of land redistribution, but there is no system yet in place to check what specific support will be required and whether the department has the resources and appropriate skills to meet the needs. It is also seen that that (88%) of the respondents mentioned that the support services needed (capital funds) is high while about (4%) medium and (8%) low. This shows that there is a lack of capital funds. Geingob (2005) highlighted that the situation is due to lack of efficient and effective post-settlement support services for beneficiaries and no funding for agricultural production has been established for the beneficiaries and the transfer of land is the end of the process for most beneficiaries hence they have to struggle all alone to better their living. Kariuki (2004) went further to highlight that the greatest challenge that faces the success of the land reform project is the lack of production capital to execute goals of business plan.

The majority (76%) of the respondents maintained that the support services needed (inputs) among members is high while about (16%) medium and (8%) low. This shows that LRAD farmers are in need of inputs. It is necessary that LRAD farmers should have access to support services. Kirsten and Machethe (2005) in a review of projects in the North West Province highlighted that there is a general agreement that government and the private sector should take hands in the delivery of land reform and in this joint venture, agribusiness and farmers will be the main partners of government. Kirsten and Machethe went further to highlight that agricultural cooperatives are the input supplier to cattle farmers, followed by rural trading stores and both cooperatives and agribusiness provide only limited additional support to their land reform clients, with the proportion of the (26%) projects that were supported, the highest in categories 1 and 2, which confirms the important role agribusiness needs to play in land reform.

Seventy two percent (72%) of the respondents maintained that the support services needed (farming infrastructure) among members is high while about

(22%) medium and (6%) low. This shows that LRAD farmers are in need of farming infrastructure. If LRAD farmers are to be empowered to play a constructive role in the development of agriculture, it is necessary that they should have access to support services. Manenzhe (2007) stated that recent studies have shown that land reform beneficiaries experiences numerous problems regarding access to complementary services such as infrastructure support, farm credit, agricultural inputs, training extension advice and access to markets for farm outputs and also assistance with productive and sustainable land use.

The level of severity of constraints facing LRAD beneficiaries are presented in Table 3. When the LRAD farmers were asked of what level of severity of constraints they face, most (94%) of them reflected a high level of severity of finance, while about (4%) medium and (2%) low. This shows that LRAD beneficiaries have very limited or no access to financial services, to obtain assistance. With financial support, farmers would be able to better manage scarce economic resources such as land, labour and capital and without it land reform projects can be severely handicapped. Jordaan and Jooste (2003) in a case study of Qwa Qwa emerging commercial farmers found that the lack of production finance and proper extension support experienced by respondents are problems encountered by other land reform beneficiaries.

It is seen that that (72%) of the respondents maintained that the level of severity of constraints (building infrastructure) among members is high while about (22%) medium and (6%) low. This shows that building infrastructure has a high level of severity. If LRAD farmers are to be empowered to play a constructive role in the development of agriculture, it is necessary that they should have access to support services. Kirsten and Machethe (2005) in a review of projects in the North West Province highlighted that of the 43 projects that were selected for in-depth appraisal, 19 had either decreased (10) or zero (9) production due to lack of investment in, and improvements and maintenance of farm infrastructure. It is also seen from the table that (70%) of the respondents mentioned that the level of severity of constraints (fencing) is high while about (24%) medium and (6%) low. This shows that there is a lack of fencing. Manenzhe (2007) in a review of three case studies from Limpopo Province found that smallholders have struggled to expand their production on these farms because of lack of irrigation and fencing to ward off stray livestock and individuals have applied for assistance under the Department of Agriculture's CASP, but have had no response from the extension officer or the Department since.

The majority (80%) of the respondents mentioned that the level of severity (inputs supply) is high while about (16%) medium and (4%) low. This shows that LRAD farmers are in dire need of inputs supply. Inputs supply plays a major role in farming. Manenzhe (2007) highlighted that land reform beneficiaries experience numerous problems regarding access to complementary services such as agricultural inputs, infrastructure support, farm credit, training extension advice and access to markets. Eighty eight percent (88%) of the respondents maintained that the level of severity of constraints (lack of capital funds) among members is high while about (10%) medium and (2%) low. This shows that lack of capital funds. Kirsten and Machethe (2005) in a review of projects in the North West Province highlighted that of the 43 projects that were selected for in-depth appraisal, 19 had either decreased (10) or zero (9) production due to limited access to funds to cover production costs.

The results of the multiple regression analysis showing relationship between socio-economic characteristics and services needed by LRAD farmers are presented in Table 4.9. The independent variables were significantly related to services needed ($F = 2.59$, $p< 0.05$). Also R value of 0.55 showed that there was a strong correlation between independent variable and services needed by LRAD farmers. The results further predicted (31%) of the variation in services needed by LRAD farmers. Significant determinants were educational level ($t = 1.74$, $p = 0.08$), farming experience ($t = -2.00$, $p < 0.05$), and extension contact ($t = -2.45$, $p < 0.05$) It implies that as educational level increases, services needed by LRAD farmers also increase, while as farming experience and extension contact increases, services needed by LRAD farmers decreases. A unit change in educational level leads to (28.1%) decrease in the services needed by LRAD farmers, while a unit change in farming experience will lead to 26.35 decreases in services needed by LRAD farmers.

The regression results show that a unit increase in extension contact will decrease support services needs and constraints facing farmers under land reform agricultural projects. Knowledge about extension officer exerts a positive effect on support services needs and constraints facing farmers' variable. Extension contact has a positive and significant relationship with the probability of support services needs and constraints facing farmers, i.e. the probability of support services needs and constraints facing farmers' decreases with an increase in extension contact. This suggest that a unit change in the extension contact leads to 34.6% change on the support services needs and constraints facing farmers under land reform agricultural projects.

The study has shown clearly that the beneficiaries of LRAD in North West Province are mainly males, between the ages of 36-60 years, had

tertiary education and had more than 7 persons as household size. Also majority had more than 400 hectares as farm size, with 11 – 20 years of farming experience, farm income that ranged between R100001 – R500000 per year, receiving information through radio and produce maize and rear beef cattle. The majority of the respondents received no support from CASP, and rated quality of support from CASP as poor. The most expected support by LRAD beneficiaries was financial and building infrastructure development. Funding and inputs supply were the major constraints with highest level of severity

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