

CHAPTER 4

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS IMPACTING ON WOMEN'S SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter dealt with the origin and status of Public Administration in relation to land reform. The origin and development of Public Administration was discussed in relation to the future and the ideal Public Administration. The chapter further delved into policy-making aspects that facilitate sustainable development. It is a reality that developing countries, such as South Africa, are on a journey towards improving their growth and development status on a continuous basis. Support for development that is long term and sustainable is necessary from the perspective that it must consider the environment within which it occurs. Of importance is the fact that national and international communities have a critical eye on development initiatives and their impact on the environment.

Activities that happen on a daily basis, which often lead to the achievement of developmental goals, whether small or big, happen within a specified environment. Access to land and its use is not adequate if the use of such land is in the form of exhaustive or even destructive practices that have a negative effect on both the environment and the land. Developmental initiatives are aimed at providing positive inputs towards addressing the needs of the public. It is of great importance that development takes cognisance of the fact that the environment within which it occurs is not renewable or replaceable; hence, the need for future considerations in all developmental activities. Increasing demands for services by the public are not necessarily directly in proportion to the resources that are available to meet these demands.

Women in South African were identified as the majority of the people (in Chapter One of this study).

The focus is on women who have benefited from land reform programmes in the Gauteng Province. The needs of women go beyond their personal needs – to household needs, and further on, to community needs. The allocation of resources, such as land to empower women, will ensure that most of the survival needs are addressed as well.

The reasons for redistributing land have been mainly for increased production, and to a certain extent, to address the issue of land dispossessions. Increased production will ensure continuous food security and sustain the livelihoods of those who have been allocated land. Continuous food security should be for the current and future generations, as it is assumed that all generations will have the same requirements for food. It is critical that allocated land be used in a sustainable manner – for current and future generations.

This chapter investigates the extent to which the Land Reform Policy has had an impact on aspects of promoting the socio-economic development of women, and ensuring that land is utilised sustainably. The South African Land Policy will be discussed in relation to the international Land Policy Framework. The chapter further highlights the importance of the environment within which women operate in striving to reach their sustainable development. The land Policy objectives are clear in their aim for economic growth and sustainable development.

The need for improved livelihoods has been emphasised, and the means have to be rendered available for achieving such livelihoods. The emphasis on land acquisition through the LRAD Programme is clear as regards its intention to improve the economic, social and environmental aspects of its beneficiaries – through the use of such land. Cautious and increased economic, social and environmental use of resources is vital in order to achieve sustainable development. The economic, cultural and social environment within which women operate as land owners is assessed in relation to the women's sustainable development. The last section deals with the role of government in women's sustainable development.

4.2 The South African land-related policy framework

The Land Reform Policy was one of the priority areas for the Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994:16). As of 2010, the Land Reform Policy is still a priority, as it is one of the five Priority Areas of the current government.

These Priority Areas are job creation and economic growth, improved health, better education, the fight against crime, rural development, and land reform for poverty alleviation and food security (The Presidency, 2010). According to the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP, 1994:16), it was necessary to develop a programme of affirmative action that would address the deliberate marginalisation of women and rural communities from economic, social and political power.

Land-related policies, such as the RDP (1994); the *Constitution* (1996); the *WPSALP* (1997) and its related programmes; the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (*BBBEE*, 2003) and its Agricultural Black Economic Empowerment (AgriBEE) were developed to support the Land-Reform Policy initiatives. A discussion of each of these policies is undertaken in the section that follows in this chapter.

Land and agrarian policy reform in South Africa holds the promise of increasing efficiency, equity and generating jobs (van den Brink *et al.*, 2006:25). Developing legislation that is needed to support land reform, as listed above, must, therefore, be done with the hope that efficient and equitable access to land will be achieved. Access to land is expected to create jobs and impact the economy of the country. The RDP (1994:20) further confirms that the national Land Reform Policy and its Programmes are central and driving forces for any programme of rural development.

Deininger (2003:1) is in support of the fact that access to land and the ability to use it effectively are of great importance for poverty reduction, economic growth and private sector investment -- as well as the empowerment of the poor.

In the five priorities above (The Presidency, 2010) the land reform is currently linked to the eradication of poverty and job creation.

The cabinet approved the concept of the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) on 12 August 2009 (South African Government Information, 2009).

Rural development and land reform for poverty alleviation and food security, as mentioned earlier above in this section, comprise some of the five key priorities of government, aimed at creating sustainable rural communities in South Africa. CRDP aims to provide opportunities for rural communities' development – without relocating them from their present locations.

According to the South African Government Information Act (2009), the success of the CRDP is based on three pillars. These pillars are:

- (i) an improved land reform programme;
- (ii) a co-ordinated and integrated broad-based agrarian transformation; and
- (iii) well-positioned investments in economic and social infrastructure for rural areas.

Through the above, it is hoped that improved land redistribution will address rural development challenges. As will be seen in the section that follows, “rural development” has not been used to mean the opposite of urban development, but rather to refer to farm production activities, because such farm operations are not allowed in urban areas, while they are permitted and undertaken outside urban areas. The introduction of the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) is an initiative towards linking land reform to poverty alleviation, as mandated.

Initiatives, such as the CRDP, which put the emphasis on growth and development, are basically re-enforcing the original prescripts given by the RDP (1994), the *WPSALP* (1997), the Constitution (1996), and the BBBEE Act (2003), as will be discussed in the section that now follows.

4.2.1 The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)

The RDP (1994:20) as a document that was meant to meet the basic needs of South Africans confirmed the inequitable distribution of resources, including land. According to the RDP (1994:20), the land policy had to ensure that it removed all forms of discrimination in women's access to land – by providing security of tenure for all South Africans, regardless of their system of land tenure. This is most noticeable in rural areas and much of Africa, where husbands work in the urban areas, while women effectively head rural households (de Villiers & Critchley, 1997: 102).

High levels of rural poverty, coupled with a fragile agro-ecological environment, make the contribution of women's productive activities to the household and community a crucial element for the survival of such rural populations (de Villiers & Critchley, 1997: 102). Women, as the majority of poor people in South Africa (RDP, 1994: 17 & 84; and de Villiers & Critchley, 1997: 102) had to be prioritised in regard to access to resources.

Women's access to resources and authority is mainly accomplished through men; they have limited access to land in their own right, and therefore little security of tenure (KIT Royal Tropical Institute, 2001: 63). According to the RDP (1994: 21), women face specific difficulties in obtaining land, and as such, institutions, practices and laws that discriminate against women's access to land had to be reviewed and aligned to national policy.

Land reform programmes paved the way towards improving access to land. These programmes (Redistribution, Restitution and Tenure reform) were based on the legislative framework for land reform (*WPSALP*, 1997), as discussed in Chapter One.

In addition to access, programmes such as the Land Redistribution Act, had to include provision of services to beneficiaries of land reform, so that they could use their land productively (RDP, 1994: 21). The aim was to ensure that land is accessed for purposes of improving production, and as such to improve women's overall development.

Such development from land should be supported by the rural infrastructure, support services and training at all levels – to ensure that land is utilised effectively (RDP, 1994: 21).

Development efforts have to be structured in such a way that they address the special situation of women, because they form the majority of small-scale farmers and have to deal with poverty, overcrowding and hunger – especially in rural areas (RDP, 1994: 84). The cases that will be discussed in Chapter Five are all situated in the Gauteng Province. This could lead to assumptions that these cases are not necessarily rural. However, they become part of a rural setting on the basis that:

- (i) Farms where cases have been selected are on the outskirts of Bronkhorstspuit, and are, therefore, neither urban nor peri-urban.
- (ii) The women participants that were interviewed were all originally from other provinces. They became residents of the Gauteng Province through their interest in farming. Their cultural background was already rural.
- (iii) Farming activities that are undertaken in these cases, such as pig farming and livestock farming, would not be acceptable in the cities, because they pose environmental hazards. Special permission would have to be obtained to start farming operations that have an environmental impact within cities.

According to Wibberley (1972, in Vyakarnam, 1990: 85), rural – from a geographic point of view, may be defined as an area to be regarded as either rural or urban, depending on the predominant use of the land. As a result, areas where agriculture, forestry and related settlements are the main activities should be regarded as rural. Any definition of rural life, without mention of farming, would be incomplete (Vyakarnam, 1990: 1).

The RDP is clear in its proposal to review and amend any laws that promote discriminatory actions against women. The five key programmes of the RDP (1994: 7-11) are:

- (i) meeting the basic needs;
- (ii) developing our human resources;

- (iii) building the economy;
- (iv) democratising the State and society; and
- (v) implementing the RDP.

These five key programmes of the RDP intend to bring equitable access to resources to all South Africans. The ability to implement the land policy programmes is dependent on the provision of services and the availability of resources for the beneficiaries of land reform, so that they can use their land as productively as possible (RDP, 1994: 21).

A brief discussion of the above key programmes will be provided, with the sole aim of emphasising the RDP's firm focus on ensuring that there are guidelines to achieving reconstruction and development in South Africa.

4.2.1.1 Meeting the basic needs

The initial focus of the RDP programme was to begin meeting the basic needs of people, which included jobs, land, housing, water, electricity, telecommunication, transport, healthy environment, nutrition, health care and social welfare. The basic needs listed here are not listed in any particular order of priority, but land has been listed as one of the basic needs. Section 25 (5) of the *Constitution*, (1996) confirms that the State must ensure that legislative and reasonable conditions are in place to enable citizens to gain access to land in an equitable manner.

Maslow (1908) is quoted (in Hampton, 1981: 44-49 and in Wikipedia, 2010) as stating that the safety needs in which land (described as property in the hierarchy of needs) is on the second level of the hierarchy of needs, after the physiological needs that are at the bottom level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. This makes land a necessity for survival rather than a luxury. The emphasis was on the need to involve people in these programmes – by allowing them to become part of the decision-making process, and to benefit from the jobs created – by managing and administering them (RDP, 1994: 8).

4.2.1.2 *Developing our human resources*

By its very nature, the RDP is a people-focused programme because of its emphasis on empowering people in developments that would benefit them. The fragmented and unequal nature of the education and training system has had negative effects on the development of the economy and society (RDP, 1994: 58). Special attention on developing the human resources had to be given to women, as part of society, because of their extreme marginalisation during the previous government dispensation (RDP, 1994:59).

Skills are necessary to empower people, but of critical importance are education and training programmes. According to Nell and Napier (2005: 52), the most critical and important resource in the farming business comprises the people themselves – at both management and operational levels.

The RDP has been emphatic in putting women first, by ensuring that a full and equal role for women is sustained in all aspects of the economy and society. All individuals should be able to access education and training – even beyond the school gate, in all areas of society.

4.2.1.3 *Building the economy*

At the time of the RDP, the country had strengths, such as a surplus of certain resources, including electricity. These resources could be used for economic growth.

The current scenario has produces unexpected consequences – with electricity shortages in South Africa. During 2009 and 2010, the country experienced serious power shortages that had a negative effect on the growth of the economy. Activities, such as mining, agricultural irrigation and industrial development programmes, had to be cut to the minimum, and even put on-hold, in an effort to curb power outages in the country. The South African economy cannot be built by excluding certain activities that occur, simply because of external pressure from other African countries (RDP, 1994:10).

The RDP postulated that, if South Africa attempts to dominate its neighboring countries, the growth in these countries would be reduced and would restrict the potential for market increases – resulting then in unemployment and an increase in migration from these countries to South Africa (1994: 11).

African enterprises, such as the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), play a critical role in overseeing co-ordinated development on the African Continent. The NEPAD Policy Document stated that economic empowerment for the African people would come about as a result of sustainable economic growth and job creation within the African Continent (Venter & Neuland, 2005: 312).

4.2.1.4 Democratising the State and society

The need for democratisation stems from the fact that the RDP had to be people-and-resource oriented, so that these could be available for an agreed-upon Programme of Reconstruction and Development. Section 7 (1) of the *Constitution*, (1996) states that the Bill of Rights, as enshrined therein, would be a cornerstone of democracy in South Africa. According to the RDP (1994: 120), democracy for the ordinary citizens must not end with formal rights and election periods. The preamble of the *Constitution*, (1996) stated that it was adopted as the supreme law of the Republic *to improve the quality of life of all citizens and free the potential of each person*.

Another central component in the overall democratisation of South African society was that of ensuring gender equity. The RDP (1994:121) envisaged that special attention would need to be paid to the empowerment of women. The linkage between democracy, development and people, was aimed at preparing the way for a democratic order.

4.2.1.5 Implementing the RDP

The implementation of the RDP meant that existing resources had to be co-ordinated for the attainment of better service delivery, because new programmes were non-

existent. The Land Reform Programme did not, at this point, have any funds available for redistributing land. However, the RDP was clear on its intention to prioritise programmes, such as land reform. The involvement of democratic structures became critical for the success of the RDP.

The above key programmes of the RDP are emphatic on the participation of people in development initiatives that can benefit them. Parts of the interview in the cases to be dealt with in Chapter Five will investigate the level of participation of women in the Land Reform Programme. It is easy to identify with development processes that were inclusive of all those affected by such development initiatives.

The *Constitution*, (1996) and the *WPSALP* (1997) had similar intentions; and these further made the need to redistribute land a mandatory issue. These land programmes, such as the *Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act*, 2003 (Act 53 of 2003), as well as the Agriculture-Based Economic Empowerment will be discussed in the following section.

It is through the sustainable use of resources that the quality of life for all can be improved, and future generations will be taken care of. The sensible use of land will ensure the long-term productivity of the land, as well as an improved quality of life. The linking of democracy, development and a people-centered approach, as stated in the RDP, paved the way for the democratic order, and set out the role of the *Constitution* and its Bill of Rights (RDP, 1994: 11). The *Interim Constitution*, which was adopted in 1993, was subsequently repealed and replaced by the *Constitution*, (1996). This then became the law of South Africa in 1996.

Referral to the *Interim Constitution* of 1993 in this document is for purposes of demonstrating the continuity in the government's intention to care for its citizens.

Section 28 (1) of the *Interim Constitution*, (1993) stated that every person shall have the right to acquire and hold rights in property, to the extent that the nature of the rights permits the disposal of such rights.

Section 28 (2) of the *Interim Constitution*, (1993) further states that any deprivation of such rights in property would not be permitted, unless specifically spelt out by law. The *Interim Constitution*, (1993) was later replaced by the *Constitution*, (1996). This further affirmed the rights of all citizens to the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom through Section 7 (1).

Section 25 (1) of the *Constitution*, (1996) confirmed what the *Interim Constitution*, (1993) regarding the non-deprivation of property for any individual, except in terms of laws of general application, that no law should permit the arbitrary deprivation of property. Section 195 (1)(i) of the *Constitution*, (1996) stated that “public administration must be broadly representative of the South African people, with employment and personnel management practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness, and the need to redress the imbalances of the past – to achieve broad representation”.

What the RDP (1994) had been emphasising – in terms of ensuring that past imbalances are attended to and people have equality before the law – became a priority for policies that followed the RDP. As confirmed by Milne (2009: 974), the *Constitution*, (1996) provides the overarching policy on affirmative action, and details for affirmative action are discussed within the White Papers that deal with affirmative action inside and outside government.

White Papers within government are clear on targets that will achieve women’s empowerment. The lack of such policies beyond the boundaries of government is visible from the illustrated lower figures of women that have accessed land as compared with men. Providing resources to the least-privileged in South Africa was critical in 1994, and it is still urgent to date.

4.2.2 The White Paper on South African Land Policy (WPSALP)

The *WPSALP* (1997: 18) raised concerns on the lack of any effective and integrated environmental management, as a result of landlessness and overcrowding, especially in the former homelands, and incorrect farming practices on commercial farms.

Land degradation that resulted in soil erosion is visible in South Africa, even though there are no data on the extent and rate of land degradation. Soil degradation has been due to poor land management practices, insufficient monitoring and the lack of law enforcement (*WPSALP*, 1997: 18).

According to the *WPSALP* (1997:18), the current land management system in the country is fragmented, not well co-ordinated and it is not transparent. The *WPSALP* (1997) recognises the lack of a coherent information system, as well as the lack of clarity on roles (*WPSALP*, 1997:18). There is a need for co-ordination and the development of national land systems and data to guide the allocation and the use of allocated land.

The *WPSALP* (1997: 5) stated that, ideally, the Land Reform Programmes should contribute to reconciliation, stability, growth and development – in an equitable and sustainable way. The land reform programme, as mentioned in earlier chapters, is targeting to redistribute 30% of agricultural land by 2014. The total number of hectares expressed in figures amounts to 24.6 million hectares of agricultural land. The DRDLR reported that 137,521 households benefited from the Land Redistribution and Tenure Reform Programmes, of which 17,482 (12.7 percent) of the beneficiaries were female-headed households, during the period 1994 to March 2003 (DLA Annual Report, 2003: 39).

The Report indicates a slow pace, in terms of the delivery of land to women, in nine years. Up to May 2008, only 4.3% of land had been redistributed. This is equivalent to 3.6 million ha (DLA, 2008). In September 2009, a total of 5.6 million hectares had been delivered, which is equivalent to around 6.8% (Umhlaba Wethu: 2009: 1).

These totals have not been expressed in terms of the percentage of women that should be assisted, or in terms of the level of poverty that could be alleviated by redistributing the 30% of agricultural land. Over and above the challenges on accessing land, there is the lack of support on services and infrastructural development, which have been observed as a result of the lack of clarity on the status of land rights for blacks (*WPSALP*, 1997: 27). Table 4.1 below illustrates the number of beneficiaries that accessed land in all provinces from 1994 to 2009.

Even though the period of study is from 2000 to 2007, statistical reports – such as this one – are useful as an indication of the trends in women’s access to land and their development.

Table 1.1 shows the number of women in the rural areas as compared to the men. The opposite is true for men in urban hostels because of their employment. Additionally, Table 1.1 shows the number of women that accessed land during the 2008/09 financial year. In all the provinces, less women accessed land in figures that are even less than 50% of the total number of beneficiaries that accessed land in some provinces.

According to the *WPSALP* (1997: 13), some of the origins for the debates on gender and development have come, from amongst others: the Interim Constitution, South Africa’s participation in the Copenhagen Summit, the Beijing Conference (1995), and the Habitat Conference in Istanbul. The establishment of the Commission on Gender Equality in South Africa has actually intensified activities, programmes and debates on gender. Decisions made by government departments become policies because they have to be adopted as rules for governing and possible solutions to identified problems.

The welfare and wellbeing of society depend on an understanding of their needs, as interpreted by the policy formulators, the availability of resources, and the applicability of such policies.

The table below has not broken down figures in terms of women and men, but the Diagram 1.1, in Chapter One clearly indicates the trends in women's access to land.

Table 4.1: Land transferred and beneficiaries, 1994-end to Sept 2009

Prov- ince	Redistribution & tenure			Restitution			Total	
	No.	Ha	Benefits	Claims	Ha	Benefits	Ha	Benefits
EC	675	353,357	25,633	16,201	94,834	215,201	448,191	240,834
FS	799	350,291	7721	2,662	47,615	40,893	397,906	48,614
GP	286	34,513	7,328	13,159	9,476	70,179	43,989	77,507
KZN	690	547,414	67,761	14,752	642,447	433,168	1,189,861	500,929
LP	291	91,235	7,403	3,382	513,024	220,227	604,259	227,630
MP	444	322,839	13,950	2,694	399,876	225,877	722,715	239,827
NC	271	952,744	2,773	3,682	539,620	100,554	1,492,364	103,327
NW	300	268,566	40,539	3,709	373,642	172,963	642,208	213,502
WC	223	122,304	12,750	15,546	3,769	118,165	126,073	130,915
Total	3,979	3,043,264	185,858	75,787	2,624,303	1,597,227	5,667,567	1,783,085

Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2009 Monitoring and Evaluation
Unit: Pretoria: Department of Rural Development and Land Reform.

The above table depicts the progress made in different programmes of land reform, since its inception. It is visible from the above, that a lot of work, in addition to what has been done currently in the form of legislation and government grants for improving access to land, still has to be done. The questions that arise from the figures illustrated above call for a different inquiry, because for the purposes of this study, land access for women is the main focus, and the figures do not show the exact numbers for women.

According to Crowley (1999), the right of women to land is a critical factor in their social and political status, economic wellbeing, and empowerment. In most of the African countries, land is a basic source of employment, especially for women, the key agricultural input, and a major determinant of a farmer's access to other productive resources and services. As will be further elaborated on in the sections that follow in this chapter, land may be further regarded as a social asset, which is crucial for cultural identity, political power, and participation in local decision-making processes (FAO, 2010).

Land reform is important; and it has been strategically placed to redress the injustices of the past, contributing to the government's growth plans, reducing rural poverty, creating jobs and redistributing land (*WPSALP*, 1997:28). The relationship between land redistribution and poverty alleviation is dominantly highlighted here, as it was equally critical in section 4.2 above. Land reform is intended to enhance economic development, by giving households the opportunity to engage in productive land use and improved job opportunities. Apart from political and ideological motives, the general belief is that better access to land is positively linked to investment and production initiatives (Krishna & Ghimire, 2001).

Land, as one of the factors of production, is viewed as a means for achieving sustainable food security. Venter and Neuland (2005: 448) quote the NEPAD Dialogue 3 of (2003:4), as noting that the production of goods on land dominates most African economies. The two writers further confirm that there is a link between agriculture, as in the productivity of the land, in poverty, because better performance means more jobs, increased incomes – and eventually improved food security for Africa (Venter & Neuland, 2005:448).

There is a direct relationship between what the *WPSALP* (1997:5) put forth as the government aims in 1997 – in terms of land reform for poverty alleviation – and what the government priorities were in 2010. An observation from the foregoing would be that land reform was important during the 20th century, as it still is, even in the current 21st century. The benefits of this programme, in terms of ensuring sustainable development, should be tracked and followed up in such issues as equitable access and improved livelihoods.

The above correlation between land access, rural development and poverty alleviation will be further investigated in the discussion in Chapter Five – because the cases selected were for women, and women are responsible to ensuring that there is food for their families.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, women are responsible for three-quarters of the food production, and they account for more than 50% of the labour force in agriculture (World Bank, 2009:37).

Food production may be expanded to include food preparation – to ensure food security in families. Chapter Four adds value in terms of the economic, social, cultural issues. Chapter Five looks at case studies in land reform that will be later used to arrive at conclusive research recommendations.

4.2.3 Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment

The basis of the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (*BBBEE*) is the *Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment Act, 2003* (Act 53 of 2003). According to the *BBBEE, 2003*, support to HDIs has to be prioritised, especially towards women, youth and people with disabilities. In the RDP (1994: 21), women were identified as having specific challenges that required them to be prioritised.

The preamble of the *BBBEE, 2003* recognises the fact that under the apartheid era race was used to control access to South Africa's productive resources and access to skills. It was further acknowledged that South Africa's economy still excluded the vast majority of its people from ownership of productive assets and the possession of advanced skills. There is, therefore, a need to strengthen the participation of the majority of South Africans in the economy.

According to Bosch (2007) (quoting the Business Report, 16 May 2007), affirmative action policies - as well as policies to achieve black economic empowerment – face the risk that their primary beneficiaries may be black elites, rather than the most disadvantaged group originally targeted. Bosch (2007) (in the Business Report, 16 May 2007) further emphasises that it is understood that skills development has contributed to the rise of a black middle class.

However, such skills development is currently only directed at those who are already employed; and thus, does not tackle the skills shortage adequately in the country as a whole.

This disparity occurs across the board equally for men, as for women also. In this instance, women would be totally vulnerable, because they hardly have a voice on aspects of life that directly affect their livelihoods. There is a huge lack of information and knowledge which could further assist in the development of women. The challenge is that women have to travel long distances to access the necessary information, and they incur costs.

According to Farazmand and Pinkowski (2006:94), the flow of technology, knowledge, people, values and ideas across national borders has affected not only the world's economic order, but also the international and intra-national political order. The population of various poorer countries tends to aspire for the same political rights and economic benefits regardless of the countries' resources and political dispensation.

According to Section 2 of the *BBBEE Act*, 2003, the objectives of this Act are aimed at achieving the following:

- (i) facilitating broad-based black economic empowerment by promoting economic transformation – in, order to enable the complete and value-adding participation of black people in the economy;
- (ii) achieving significant change in the racial composition of ownership and management structures and the skilled occupations of existing and new enterprises;
- (iii) increasing the extent to which communities and workers within enterprises become co-owners of such enterprises; and their ability to access these economic activities;

- (iv) increasing the extent to which black women, in particular, own and manage existing and new enterprises, and improving their access to economic activities and infrastructure;
- (v) promoting investment programmes that lead to broad-based and meaningful participation in the economy by black people – in order to achieve sustainable development and general prosperity;
- (vi) empowering rural and local communities by facilitating access to economic activities, land, infrastructure, ownership and skills; and
- (vii) promoting access to finance for black economic empowerment.

Section 3 of the Act mandates that this Act must be interpreted towards realising the *Constitution* (1996).

The main purpose of the *BBBEE Act*, 2003 was to ensure the following:

- (i) promoting the achievement of the constitutional right to equality;
- (ii) increasing broad-based and effective participation of black people in the economy;
- (iii) promoting a higher growth rate and increased employment for an attractive and equitable distribution of income;
- (iv) establishing a national policy on broad-based black economic empowerment – in order to promote the economic unity of the nation, whilst protecting the common market; and
- (v) promoting equal opportunities and equal access to government services.

Lack of access to resources, including land, as well as lack of skills, were emphasised by the *BBBEE*, 2003. This confirmed the call for equitable redistribution and allocation of land, especially for women. At this point, the lack of success and progress with regard to equitable access will become a serious concern for development when so many legislative mandates call for the same approach towards positive change. Prosperity, economic development and sustainable development have been identified

as the main goals of the *BBBEE*, 2003; the RDP (1994: 78); the *WPSALP* 1997: 5; and Section 195 (1) (b) and (c) of the *Constitution*, (1996).

The realisation of land reform goals will concern itself with calls to redress poverty, as also stated by the above legislation.

The main thrust of the *BBBEE*, 2003 is to ensure equitable access to resources and services by all. National Policies towards ensuring the achievement of the broad-based black economic empowerment had to be established – such as the Agricultural Black Economic Empowerment (AgriBEE).

The former Department of Agriculture launched the AgriBEE framework as part of the *BBBEE*, 2003, to guide Black Economic Empowerment within the agricultural sector in 2004. The AgriBEE is aimed at promoting equity in agriculture-related initiatives. The charter for the AgriBEE noted that empowerment starts with improved access to land and tenure security. The charter provided a distinction between land and enterprise ownership, with voluntary sales of land from the current land owners. Preference is to be given to land sale transactions that benefit the employees within that enterprise.

The charter confirmed the target, as stated by the *WPSALP* (1997), that 30% of the agricultural land had to be targeted; and viable and sustainable enterprises were to be established.

4.3 International policy framework supporting women's sustainable development

According to Mukhopadhyay (1998), in KIT (2001: 13), the first United Nations International Conference on Women held in Mexico in 1975 and the declaration of the International Decade for Women, with the official themes of equality, development and peace, inaugurated a new era for gender equality. Further debates regarding gender equality have gained momentum, as a result of follow-up world conferences on women,

amongst which was the Nairobi conference in 1985, and the Beijing conference held in 1995.

Additional work, through relevant international conventions, including the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) was undertaken. Mukhopadhyay (1998) in KIT (2001: 13) confirms the conspiracy which exists on women's right to own and control property in their own right and not merely as sisters, wives, daughters or widows.

As part of a larger community, women's lack of interest and urge to own land as individuals is superseded and suppressed by their desire to be accepted by the larger community as respectable citizens.

According to the International Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (ICARRD, 2002), and the researcher's own observation, throughout the world, women constitute a large portion of the economically active population engaged in agriculture, both as farmers and as farm workers; and they play a crucial role in ensuring household food security, despite enjoying very limited rights to land.

In many countries, the role of women in the usage of land through agricultural production has increased in recent years, as a result of men's migration to urban areas and absorption in non-agricultural sectors, such as mining and transport, as drivers. However, in many parts of the world, women have little or no access to resources, such as land credit and extension services. Moreover, women tend to remain concentrated in the informal sector of the economy.

In plantations, they often provide labour without employment contracts, on a temporary or seasonal basis, or as wives or daughters of male farm workers.

Although land and natural resource legislation tends to be gender-neutral, or to explicitly prohibit sexual or gender discrimination in relation to land, it is scarcely implemented in

rural areas. At the same time, customary law is widely applied in the rural areas of Africa, Asia, and in those regions of Latin America inhabited by indigenous communities; and the exercise of women's land rights is consequently affected by entrenched cultural attitudes and perceptions (ICARRD; 2002).

The amazing trend is that even women who have relocated to the cities to be with their husbands still remain obedient and culturally subordinate to their husbands. Decisions to be involved in government programmes, such as the land reform, have to be approved by the male counterpart before the female can participate in such decisions.

Poverty reduction, economic development and sustainable development have been placed on the international agenda, because of their cross-cutting nature throughout the world. Some of the international declarations agreed upon in relation to these development initiatives are the Millennium Development Goals, Agenda 21 and World Summit on Sustainable Development. These will be discussed for the purpose of providing their relatedness to the international policy framework that supports sustainable development in the following section.

4.3.1 Millennium Development Goals for women's sustainable development

In an effort to address human challenges of commonality amongst the nations, the United Nations leaders agreed to adopt the United Nations Millennium Declaration in September 2000 (United Nations, 2000). This Declaration committed nations to a new global partnership that aimed at reducing extreme poverty and setting time bounds and targets to achieve these goals during 2015. These goals were named the Millennium Development Goals. A total of eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were agreed upon and adopted.

All eight of these MDGs are closely related to sustainable development, because these range from improved child education to reducing child mortality and improving the development of youth and women. Of the eight MDGs, four are relevant to this study;

and these will be discussed briefly. A list of all MDGs will be provided, but the four MDGs that are related to sustainable development for women will be discussed.

The adopted MDGs were (2007: 13 - 45):

- (i) MDG 1: Eradicating Extreme Poverty and Hunger;
- (ii) MDG 2: Achieving Universal Primary Education;
- (iii) MDG 3: Promoting Gender Equality and Empowering Women;
- (iv) MDG 4: Reducing Child Mortality;
- (v) MDG 5: Improving Maternal Health;
- (vi) MDG 6: Combating HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases;
- (vii) MDG 7: Ensuring Environmental Sustainability; and
- (viii) MDG 8: Developing a Global Partnership for Development.

MDGs one (1), three (3), seven (7) and eight (8) are related to issues of sustainable development, as discussed in this study. According to the Australian AID (AusAID) (2010), all MDGs are related to issues of gender; and the involvement of women can help realise all the MDGs, although some of the specific MDGs will now be discussed.

4.3.1.1 Millennium Development Goal 1: Eradicating Extreme Poverty and Hunger

The Asian Development Bank (ADB), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), and the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP) (2006: 45) prioritised MDG 1, which is: “eradicating extreme poverty and hunger”, and it is acknowledged that poverty is wider than just food security, as it includes insecurity and disempowerment, diminished capabilities. The target and measure for goal one is in the form of income poverty.

Income poverty measures are based on household-level data; there is little indication of the allocation of income, consumption and assets within the household – in particular between men and women. According to the ADB, UNDP and UNESCAP Report (2006: 45), the household survey data in these poverty measures permit comparisons based

on the household head characteristics and countries distinguishing between male-headed and female-headed households in terms of their poverty monitoring and analysis.

The assumption is that female-headed households are more highly exposed and more vulnerable to poverty than male-headed households. Some MDG reports have confirmed this assumption, such as reports from Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Kazakhstan, Malaysia and Mongolia (ADB, UNDP & UNESCAP, 2006:45).

South Africa has a similar scenario in which female-headed households are exposed to more poverty and are more vulnerable than male-headed households. There are exceptions, according to the case in Viet Nam where reports state that female-headed households have lower poverty rates compared with male-headed households (ADB, UNDP & UNESCAP, 2006: 45). The AusAID (2010: 5) further confirmed that actively supporting women's participation in economic, social and political aspects is a key factor in reducing poverty, enhancing economic growth and democratic governance. This leads to the improved wellbeing of women and their families.

Australia's International Development Assistance Program further recognised that both women and men have a role to play in all aspects of development, especially sustainable development (AusAID, 2010:5). The case of women accessing land and needing top-up loans requires that their husbands give consent for the loans, since women lack the necessary collateral.

This is common where male members find jobs away from home, and they send money back to the wives to take care of their families. Long-term jobs, such as fisherman's jobs occupy men for periods of up to six months. In such cases, the women are heading the households and are responsible for all the activities within the household. Poverty is linked to the lack of food, or insufficient food; and therefore, where there is poverty, there is no sustainable supply of food; and hence, no sustainable development.

4.3.1.2 Millennium Development Goal 3: To promote Gender Equality and to empower Women

The achievement of equality between men and women is critical in reducing poverty and ensuring that all people are able to fully participate in development initiatives within their communities. According to the source book by the World Bank, FAO and IFAD (2009: 2), gender equality is crucial for agricultural development and the attainment of the MDGs. The RDP (1994:8) is emphatic on the involvement and participation of people, especially in decisions that would empower them and create jobs for them.

Both women and men should hold positions as leaders in their communities, and equally be able to participate in all levels of education and have the ability to equally undertake paid employment. Co-operation, therefore, is essential for the benefit of both men and women in development that improves their wellbeing. The reality is that even though women's challenges date back and deserve more attention, men are crucial in ensuring that women become sustainable in their development.

This has been revealed by the interviews that were undertaken with the women land owners. Two of the participants confirmed that they had approached men for assistance in gaining access to land. Whether men are succeeding and achieving sustainable development with their own land allocation, through these programmes, is a topic for other studies.

4.3.1.3 Millennium Development Goal 7: To ensure Environmental Sustainability

According to AusAID (2010: 18), the MDG on ensuring environmental sustainability focused on supporting sustainable development and reversing the loss and degradation of environmental resources. This involves the increasing continuous access to safe drinking water and sanitation and improving the lives of people living in slums. The AusAID (2010:18) confirms that women make up a larger proportion of the agricultural workforce across the world.

Women's roles in caring for family members and children also make them more responsible, since they must care for themselves, as well as for their households.

Women's desire to till land and make a living from the land is reason enough for them to have better access compared with men. Women make a living out of land and the use of land. This can lead to deterioration of the land, if it is not treated in a sustainable manner. Section 24 (b) of the *Constitution*, (1996) states that everyone has the right to live in an environment that is protected – for the benefit of the present – and future generations.

As stated in Chapter 3, through Diagram 3:2, which denotes the three pillars of sustainability, sustainable development is made up of social, economic and environmental aspects. The linkage between these three sustainable developmental elements is that *viability* links the economic and environmental issues; whilst *bearable* links the social and environmental aspects; and lastly, *equitable* links the economic and social aspects of sustainability.

A simplified explanation of the above is that economic growth for both social and economic benefits should take cognisance of the viability of the environment. Such an environment should be used in an equitable and bearable manner for future generations. Sustainable development is said to unite environmental, social and economic concerns and initiatives (Dalal-Clayton & Bass in UNDP & OECD, 2002: 13).

4.3.1.4 Millennium Development Goal 8: To develop a global partnership for sustainable development

According to the AusAID (2010: 20), MDG 8 recognises the need for a globalised partnership to achieve development and to eradicate poverty. This partnership requires the provision of better developmental assistance and fair trade – to help countries that are committed to poverty reduction and sustainable development.

The MDG confirms the importance of women in the form of gender equality, and the need for their empowerment.

Such a global partnership for sustainable development needs to involve men and women as partners and participants in decision-making and promoting benefits, such as employment. Formal agreements between countries are essential – to ensure that men and women benefit equally from the work aimed at achieving the MDGs.

According to the UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon (2002), *“the Goals are ambitious, but feasible, and together with the comprehensive United Nations Development Agenda, set the course for the world’s efforts to alleviate extreme poverty by 2015”*.

The MDGs, as stated above, all have an element of addressing human needs, especially in terms of poverty alleviation and sustaining initiatives for future development. Access to land and the use thereof are crucial in poverty alleviation, and especially rural development, in countries such as South Africa.

In line with the MDGs, the South African MDG Report (2007: 56) has realised that there is a need to improve the performance of the state by re-enforcing better co-ordination and the allocation of responsibilities between the spheres of government.

The *Constitution*, (1996) is one of the most progressive in the world with regard to gender equality and women’s rights (Section 9 (3)). These Constitutional commitments are taken up in several government policies, and are expected to be carried through in all spheres of government. The key challenge is to ensure that women’s rights and entitlements are incorporated in all programmes throughout the three spheres of government. Government needs to face these challenges with a commitment of their own: to take responsibility for all spheres of government in seeking to address the legitimate concerns of South Africa’s citizens as a whole.

National gender policy directives and guidelines should be adhered to within provincial and local governments in terms of the Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS) and the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) processes and outcomes.

Policies were also introduced to redress imbalances in land ownership arising from the past racially based policies.

4.3.2 Gender 21

As presented by Raynolds and Goldsmith (2002: 3), Gender 21 co-ordinates independent projects in developing the role of women in achieving sustainable development. According to Raynolds and Goldsmith (2002: 2), Gender 21 grew out of the Rio Earth Summit and the Beijing Women's Conference. The initiative was seeking to expand and develop women's identified role as the majority group, and a group that is important in achieving sustainable development.

This role was identified as crucial by world leaders, because they recognised that women world-wide are fundamental to the management of local resources and the sustaining of local communities. The writers further confirm that all over the planet women are the poorest members of society: hopelessly under-represented at all levels of authority, and often without the power even to decide their own personal destiny.

Men and women alike should recognise and value the qualities of nurturing and caring, and come to a consensus that caring for nature today is vital for the future custodianship of the planet.

Gender 21, as an initiative, is working towards welcoming a holistic and harmonious 21st Century – by liberating the power and potential of women to achieve sustainable development. The protection and caretaking of the planet knows no gender; and therefore, men and women should overlook the issues of gender in caring for the resources. In its broadest context, this relates to the many commitments made by the world's governments through the UN process, such as the MDGs, as stated above.

The need to empower women has been emphasised throughout. Raynolds and Goldsmith (2002: 3) further assert that the connections between environmental sustainability and gender are also evident in the Platform for Action: the outcome

document from the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing 1995 and the Earth Summit on Environment and Development held in Rio 1992 – from which Agenda 21 was produced.

4.3.3 Agenda 21

As mentioned in Section 3.4 of Chapter Three, agenda 21 is a blueprint for sustainable development in the 21st Century. Agenda 21 came about as a result of a United Nations conference in which over 18 government leaders endorsed an action plan for sustainable development (Van Rooyen, 2002 in Kuye *et al.* 2002:136). Its basis was agreed upon during the "Earth Summit" at Rio in 1992, and signed by 179 Heads of State and Government (Wikipedia, 2010).

At Rio, an undertaking was given that local councils would produce individual plans for a Local Agenda 21. Agenda 21, like other frameworks aimed at development (UNDP, ADB & UNESCAP, (2006:45); Copenhagen, (March 1995); RDP (1994: 8); Section 195 (1) (e) of the *Constitution*, 1996) – all emphasised the need to involve and consult with the community, mainly because the people in the area have the local knowledge needed to make sensible decisions for their future.

Agenda 21 is a guide for individuals, businesses and governments in making choices for development that will help both the society and the environment. The Agenda 21 document deals with (Wikipedia, 2010):

- (i) The social and economic dimensions of developing countries; and co-incidentally these are common and they range from: challenges on poverty; consumption patterns; population growth levels; health issues – HIV and AIDS being current priorities currently; decent human settlements versus slums; integrating the environment and development.
- (ii) Conservation and the management of resources in countries, including: land for production; forest management (both existing and new); desert management; the preservation of mountains; eco-friendly agricultural practices; biodiversity management and preservation; ocean management; fresh-water preservation from

pollutants; the non-use of toxic chemicals; the management of hazardous radioactive matter, solid waste and sewage.

- (iii) Strengthening the role of major groups, such as women; children and youth; indigenous people; non-governmental organisations; local authorities; workers; business and industry; farmers; scientists and technologists.
- (iv) Means of implementation, especially for the marginalised groups, such as women, youth and people with disabilities through access to finance; improved technology transfer and science; education, skills training and capacity-building; international institutions, in terms of partnerships and legal measures with information management.

According to Wikipedia (2010), deliberations on and the implementation of Agenda 21 is headed forward at global level with a series of summits, involving governments such as: Social Development (March 1995), Cities (1996); and world conferences (Human Rights, Women, Population, Climate and Global Warming and Food). Agenda 21 is an all-inclusive approach towards improved life. Whereas, the MDGs put little emphasis on climate issues, global warming and the conservation of resources, Agenda 21 is stronger on these issues.

The need for sustainable development, as a result of these interventions and engagements both locally and internationally, goes beyond matters of gender, or the social and cultural aspects of a community. Agenda 21 also puts forward the need to allow women to have a role as a part of the community that has been left out of developmental initiatives. The Social Summit (Copenhagen, March 1995) produced a Declaration and Programme of Action for Social Development, which further stressed the need for the full participation of all people in decision-making for the future.

The Declaration and Programme of Action contained a series of 10 commitments agreed on by the governments (Earth Summit: 2002):

- (i) an enabling environment for social development;
- (ii) the goal of eradicating poverty;

- (iii) the goal of full employment;
- (iv) the promotion of social integration;
- (v) equality of men and women;
- (vi) education;
- (vii) speeding up the development of the least-developed countries;
- (viii) ensuring that structural adjustment programmes include social goals;
- (ix) better resourcing for social development; and
- (x) a better framework for international co-operation for social development.

A lot of commonalities are seen to exist between the above Copenhagen Commitments, Agenda 21 and the MDGs. This is proof that challenges – whether social, economic, environmental or political know no bounds or take cognisance of the developmental status of countries, but should be dealt with, nevertheless, in an effective and efficient manner. The aspect of gender equality and participation in decisions that affect people has been emphasised throughout the international interventions for sustainable development.

The proposal that one would make is that within the sustainable development elements which are social, economic and environment, a lack of participation in decision-making could just be the missing link.

4.3.4 The World Summit on Sustainable Development

A discussion of women's sustainable development from an international perspective would not be complete without mentioning the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD). The WSSD was held in South Africa, Johannesburg, during 2002.

The WSSD commitments and resolutions are based on all citizens, not necessarily unique from the MDGs, but they have been more generic – and not with any specific focus on gender issues, as have the other international declarations and commitments.

The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs' (UNDESA, 2010) definition of sustainable development is not different from the definition provided in Chapter One of this document, as it defines sustainable development as: “*development that meets the needs of present generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs.*” The WSSD held in 2005 in New York, discussed progress on the MDGs, as being the UN’s reform programme. The summit further reconfirmed State leaders commitment to sustainable development and the 2010 biodiversity target (UNDESA, 2010).

4.3.5 The importance of international partners for women’s sustainable development

According to Venter and Neuland (2005:452), without assistance from its international partners, Africa would not be able to meet the important MDG of eradicating poverty and hunger. The use of NEPAD made it possible to measure the involvement and influence of Africa’s international partners in the form of the aid given or promised and significant aid and promises came from the G8 countries. These are: Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia, the United Kingdom and the United States (the European Union is also represented, but cannot host or chair [Wikipedia, 2010], and Venter and Neuland, 2005:452). This promised assistance ranged from setting up an international finance facility known as the Emerging Africa Infrastructure Fund, and the Africa Growth and Opportunities Act (AGOA).

These organisations aimed to assist African countries in meeting their MDGs; to give grants for capacity-building and meeting basic human needs; to promote economic growth throughout Africa and to the development of markets in Africa (Venter & Neuland, 2005:452-455).

Land reform is back on the agenda of international development institutions, as well as many nation states (Lodhi, Borrás Jr. & Kay, 2007:1). The support for growth and development has been crucial for international countries, and is still of importance.

Here, the emphasis must be on the need to involve women, and to prioritise them in any decisions that will affect their development. It is hoped that land reform will empower women and contribute to the eradication of poverty and hunger. These are some of the critical MDGs. The section that follows discusses women's sustainable development in relation to their economic, cultural and social environments.

4.4 Women's sustainable development and the economic environment

A discussion that deals with the economic environment should preferably start with the definition of what economics is. Halcrow (1980: 4) defined economics as a scientific discipline concerned with the allocation of limited resources to satisfy unlimited needs. Economics involves marketing, because products must get to where they are wanted most, when they are wanted – and in the desired form to satisfy the customers' needs.

Continued economic growth is seen as the means of actualising the better quality of life that environmental protection can bring (Ilbery *et al.*, 1997:16). Protection of the environment during productive activities ensures continued economic growth and stability. The Business Dictionary defines the economic environment, using terms that describe it; and these are: the totality of economic factors, such as income, employment, interest rates, inflation, productivity and wealth; and these influence the buying behavior of consumers and firms. Nell and Napier (2005: 42) define the external environment as the most important economic component of any farming business.

The external environment incorporates important variables, such as the business cycles, interest rates, exchange rates, input costs and taxes (Nell & Napier, 2005:42). In the cases that have been selected for this study all the above factors are applicable, including the input cost analysis and gross margins. The economic environment on a land-related business includes aspects of production costs versus markets and sales and wealth as a result of the successful production of the land. Formal and informal training are both necessary to achieve success within the economic environment.

Wikipedia, (2010) defines economics as the social science which analyses the aspects of production, distribution and the consumption of goods and services. The term economics comes from the ancient Greek *oikonomia*, meaning management of a household and administration, *oikos* meaning house, and *nomos* meaning custom or law: “rules of the household”.

According to the RDP (1994:10), the economy has certain strengths and weaknesses. The identifiable weakness is the inequality in ownership, employment and skills, especially along racial and gender lines.

Access to capital is difficult for women because they commonly do not have independence in accessing funding; they depend on their husbands, and if the husbands are not willing to co-operate, the hope of getting outside funding in the form of loans cannot materialise. This has been one of the reasons for the land reform failures. In these areas, women do not have the right to sign for loans because of their lack of collateral – whether in the form of secured jobs or assets.

Women are usually the unemployed; and they stay at home, where most of the land reform occurs. Their willingness to participate in the programme is discouraged by their lack of anything registered in their names. Exceptions are if the husband has died and the husband’s relatives do not have any interest in what their son owned. Government intervention in the form of policies should be cautioned in addressing some of these challenges.

Section 24 (b) (iii) of the *Constitution*, 1996 provides for a secure ecological sustainable development and the use of natural resources, while promoting justifiable economic and social development. According to Deinenger (2003:1), access to land and the ability to exchange it or use it as collateral – but in an effective and efficient manner – is critical for poverty reduction, economic growth and private sector investment. Documents, and legislation, that have been discussed earlier on addressing the imbalances of the past

have the clear intention of bringing women into the mainstream of the economy, but very little has materialised in the way of redressing the imbalances of the past.

Land has been identified as being more important in developing countries, where it goes beyond representing household assets, but is a key determinant of the household's welfare (World Bank Policy Research Report, 2003: 17). According to Kachika (2009: 41), in Ghana an estimated 52% of women are engaged in agricultural work, 70% are involved in subsistence crop production, and 90% provide labour involved in marketing farm produce. Women, however, find themselves faced with more constraints in regard to land acquisition than do their male counterparts.

Critical attention should be given to the vital food producing and entrepreneurial roles of women in rural and urban African communities (NEPAD, 2003: 78). It is here suggested that as much as 30% of the agricultural land should be transferred to the historically disadvantaged individuals. South Africa has engaged in several land-related programmes.

LRAD was introduced as one of the land-redistribution programmes. The LRAD Manual was first introduced in 2001, to improve on land access, and as a result of the challenges posed by SLAG. These challenges faced by SLAG were that little or no production has occurred, as a result of the large groups which have settled on farms. Groups from SLAG experienced conflicts over leadership, production funds and personal preferences, as far as farmhouse occupations are concerned, instead of prioritising the utilisation of farm land for the production of crops.

In 2007, the LRAD Manual was reviewed to assess its success rate since its inception in 2001. The LRAD Manual reviewed in 2007 is hereafter referred to as the *Reviewed LRAD Manual, 2007* and the Manual introduced in 2001 is referred to as the *LRAD Implementation Manual (2001)*.

The main objectives of the Reviewed LRAD Manual (2007: 3) were to:

- (i) Improve the nutrition and incomes of the rural poor, who want to farm on any scale to stimulate growth from agriculture.
- (ii) Create stronger linkages between farm and off-farm income-generating activities.

According to the Reviewed LRAD Manual (2007:4), a vehicle for redressing gender imbalances in land access and ownership had been established, thus improving the number of rural women and households that can be supported. The LRAD Implementation Manual (2001:7) referred to the expansion of opportunities for land acquisition by women and young people in rural areas – as one of its objectives. The LRAD Implementation Manual (2001: 7) further states, as one of its eligibility criteria, that “men and women will have equal access to all benefits under LRAD, and women will be actively encouraged to apply”.

The LRAD Implementation Manual (2001), unlike the Reviewed LRAD Manual (2007) is not clear on the processes that should be followed in ensuring the active encouragement of women to apply. The Land Redistribution Programme will serve as a means of creating opportunities to enable women to develop in different spheres of life; thereby, giving them security against poverty and providing them with an independent economic living.

The Reviewed LRAD Manual (2007:4) states the aim for LRAD, ensuring that government meets its international commitments, such as the Beijing Platform for Action (1995) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1996) and the Declaration taken at the 4th World Congress on Rural Women. These were all committed signatories to:

- (i) elevate the matter of employment and freedom from hunger as a central focus of the development agenda;
- (ii) undertake the necessary measures to give rural women full and equal access to productive resources, including the right to inheritance and to ownership of land and other resources that meet their basic requirements;

- (iii) support the increase in agricultural production to ensure food security through investments in rural physical and institutional infrastructure; and
- (iv) generate employment by focusing on the development of micro- and small enterprises.

According to the reviewed LRAD Manual (2007: 4), women-only projects are allowed for and encouraged, a scenario of not less than one third of the transferred land resources must accrue to women. Land reform in South Africa has been effectively subordinated to an economic development model that is not intended to transform land and agriculture in accordance with the priorities of the end-users. It may be assumed that the land reform efforts since 1996 have highlighted the need for a more comprehensive review of land-reform policies, rather than a mere increase in the pace and misplaced targets.

The Reviewed LRAD Manual (2007) emphasised the economic growth from the use of land, whereas the LRAD Implementation Manual (2001) was concerned with the use of land for agricultural purposes. There are a few economic aspects that apply to women's sustainable development, but for the purposes of this document and production practices, market-related enterprises and market access will be discussed.

4.4.1 Production practices

The impact of production practices on the economy of the participants in this study is through sales of produce from the land. Product sales are further affected by the quality and quantity of the produce. The study participants reside on the farms; and therefore, make a living through their farming activities. Issues of concern are the level of training that the participants have received. On-farm and off-farm training are both critical for good quality products. On-farm training is the responsibility of the participants, whereas off-farm training is the responsibility of both the participants and the government.

Coupled with training, is the need for proper management, both for the land and its use. The use of land in an effective and safe manner sustains its use and ability to meet the needs of the future. Added to training and management of participants is the need for

commitment from the participants themselves. Amongst the questions asked of the participants was the question of their exposure to off-farm training by government, as part of the support towards production practices.

The main question was on the government support in the form of off-farm training. The answers provided are presented in the form of a table. Participants that received training are rated from 0 to 5, with 0 indicating no training since occupation, 1 - 3 indicating average training received, while 4 is for enough training, and 5 for excellent training opportunities supplied by government.

Table 4:2: Participants that received off-farm training and were able to use the training on the farm

Participants from project	Training in production practices			
	0	1 – 3	4	5
1 (RESPS 1)	X			
2 (RESPL 1)		X		
3 (RESPL 2)		X		
4 (RESPP 1)				X
5 (RESPP 2)			X	

KEY: RESPS 1: stands for Respondent SLAG 1

RESPL 1: stands for Respondent LRAD 1

RESPL 2: stands for Respondent LRAD 2

RESPP 1: stands for Respondent PLAS 1

RESPP 2: stands for Respondent PLAS 2

The table above shows that participants from the SLAG project did not receive any form of training from government, with LRAD participants having received average training – but they are doing their best to succeed. Participants from PLAS received excellent government off-farm training; and this has helped to improve their level of production on

the land allocated to them. Further details are provided in Chapter Five, in terms of the economic benefits of such a training course.

The economic environment permits the participants to stay on their land, because of the positive benefits acquired from the use of the land.

4.4.2 Market-related enterprises

Success in the use of land for agricultural production also depends on the different enterprises practiced on the land. The four factors of production are: land, labour, capital and market. These are not listed in any form of importance or priority, but they all form part of a whole in the success of land use. Land is the basic resource for production with labour being essential for tilling such land if the finances for meeting the input costs are available, and there are markets that are ready to receive the produce. In the cases selected for the study, there were both formal and informal markets. Formal markets were highlighted as being advantageous, because the participants had targeted production in terms of choosing their enterprises. Informal markets are random markets that are discovered because of excess produce from the farm, or discovered by coincidence.

Income, in the case of formal markets, is usually more consistent and guaranteed; and it comes generally in bulk, because the supply of products is contractual.

The informal markets receive merely scattered returns, because the quantities are small. It becomes possible for formal markets to reinvest money in the land use business.

Market trends are occasionally released by the National Marketing Council of South Africa – to encourage the growing of farm products that are targeted by the market.

4.4.3 Market access

Market access is an important source of income, assets, and the factors of production and consumption to sustain the needs of the household and the welfare of the family (The World Bank, FAO & IFAD, and 2005:4). As indicated above, access to markets is dependent on the quality of the produce, as well as the supply of such produce. The demand should ideally be equal to the supply of goods, because an excess in one would lead to a market influx.

One of the PLAS participants had a formal market for her pigs; and she knew when to send the pigs and how often they must be weighed and fed. When policy-makers attempt to interfere with the markets for agricultural products or inputs, they often do that with the sole purpose of increasing incomes for the farmers (Hill, 1989: 28). The abolishing of the Marketing Board led to the free market in South Africa, and this meant that there is now no control of prices. The quality of products and the market price of the product at the time of sale determine the amount of money that should be paid for a specific delivery of products. Market access promotes growth, and growth is related to success. Success, on the other hand, depends on the consistency of the supply to the markets. Market-led production has the potential to promote sustainability, because the production is guided from the initial stage in terms of quality and quantity.

4.5 Women's sustainable development and the cultural environment

Cultural factors are those that are found in the external environment and influence the views, values, beliefs, attitudes, opinions and lifestyles of people (Nell & Napier, 2005: 44). The beliefs in the presence of women in the *kraal* are thought to cause problems, such as dystocia (difficulty in birth) in cows. Women's presence in the midst of men's discussions can lead to discussions failing and not achieving their targeted end-result. These beliefs are regarded as a way of living amongst families and have a negative effect on how women perform their duties around the farm.

Men's and women's priorities for land are basically contrary; usually men seem to take an all-or-nothing view of the gender struggle for control of the land (Meer, 1997: 29). The fear is increased excessively if women are allowed access to land and can take charge. They could take control of both land relations and the domestic sphere, taking all power from the men (Meer, 1997: 29). An additional constraint is associated with the strength of patriarchal attitudes within communities, as well as the government's reluctance to intervene actively in all spheres of government.

Patriarchy is defined as the ideology of male supremacy that results from the social construction of gender, which in turn, justifies the social, economic and political distinctions between men and women (Bazilli, 1991: 9). Women's access to land is feared from an empowerment and economic angle, because men are regarded as the economic providers, and due to patriarchal beliefs, women should depend on their husbands for sustenance.

4.5.1 *The role of women in the homestead*

The nature of women's belief has, and still is, that their role is to take care of their families. Women's engagement in farming is commonly associated with a food security agenda (The World Bank, FAO & IFAD, and 2009:522). Women have limited access to production resources and services (The World Bank *et al.*, 2009:522).

This has led to women taking a back position in the matters that are outside the household and the belief that they have little or nothing to say. This has been the case in matters that involve development and addressing the needs of women. An observation of the lack of assertiveness in women is common in most meetings that involve women; whereby, they say very little or nothing at all, irrespective of the nature of the topic under discussion.

Women's needs are taken as known by all, and the decisions made are expected to be acceptable. Mayson (2003:4) argues that women in female-headed households and widows have better access to social government benefits and land than their married

counterparts, because they are able to access land in their own right as individuals. The married women are culturally dependent on their husbands and should not concern themselves with superior issues such as land within the homestead. The focus should be on putting food on the table.

This was accepted and taken as the order of the day and not considered a hindrance to women. Specific key obstacles to poor rural women accessing land under the old redistribution programme were the following issues (Cross & Hornby, 2002: 60):

- (i) The household as a beneficiary unit does not facilitate or secure women's separate access to land rights;
- (ii) Legal entities, as the nearest and the local manager of land allocation and rights, tend to default to traditional practices that do not recognise women's rights to land, as prescribed by the *Constitution*, (1996) and land policies, because they are not institutionally expected to do so; and
- (iii) Implementation procedures do not build in mechanisms for ensuring that women, and poor women in particular, have either independent access to land, or secure access through their households.

Added to this, as stated by Bazilli (1991: 125), the family is a central site where all forms of oppression (national, economic and gender) are acted out, as well as where struggles are waged against these same forms of oppression. It is often at the family level where one can best understand the true meaning of triple oppression. This state of affairs was further exacerbated by the manipulation of the family through migrant labour and the homeland system which played a critical role in achieving the apartheid policies.

Women have been regarded as home-based, and not permitted to look for jobs of any kind, until recently when some of the women lost their husbands due to sickness and mine accidents. The nature of women's engagement has been to work from home and no policy had a say, because the assumption was that this is cultural.

The role of women was regarded as that of the family minder, as engaging in war was also regarded as being too dangerous for women. Women in Malawi still till their land using man-made hoes and they till up to 8ha in two to three days, while in the evening they have to cook for their families. This is not seen as a challenge because it has always been done like this.

There is a positive relationship that exists between women and land access, because women regard land as a means of achieving their family's food security.

It is common to find the women's roles within the household crossing over to the level of the community because they are caregivers, child-bearers and minders of the aged and sick. The following section discusses women's roles in the community.

4.5.2 Women's roles in the community

Kariuki and Van Der Walt (2000: 19) state that rural women constitute one of the most oppressed layers in South African society. The majority of working women on the farms exist to provide cheap and often seasonal labour, with access to land typically being dependent on employment in the homelands (Kariuki and Van Der Walt, 2000:19). These two writers also confirm that women's access to land has been limited by traditional institutions, such as the chieftaincy.

Chieftaincy is not applicable in the Metropolitan areas, such as in the Gauteng Province, where this study was undertaken. But, the challenge of poor land access amongst women faces women in both rural and urban situations. The ever-increasing centrality of the market to the government's land reform programme is set to reproduce these patterns, as poor rural women lack the money necessary to set up as independent farmers (Kariuki and Van Der Walt, 2000:19).

This has been observed in situations where women needed loans from financial institutions, such as the Land Bank – to top up their land-reform grants, and were unable to acquire these loans unless their husbands were willing to endorse the loan

application requests. In some land acquisition transactions, women were forced to pull out of a land-acquisition process due to the lack of any proper funding. The following section looks at practical situations related to land reform assessed in terms of their ability to address the involvement of women in the main stream of land reform – in order to improve their livelihoods.

4.6 Women’s sustainable development and the social environment

The FAO (2008), according to a submission by Gender Links, argues against the tenure security approaches that have been used over the past four decades. Even though gender equality is a common problem, different approaches need to be applied for tenure systems. The need for different approaches comes about as a result of the importance of Sustainable Development which the FAO, together with other environmental institutions and related bodies take very seriously – and abide by the very specific expectations of these terms.

Section 24 (b) (iii) of the *Constitution* (1996) as stated above, promotes justifiable and ecologically friendly sustainable development that ensures economic and social development. It becomes a challenge to have economic development without equal social development, because if the economy of people is excellent, their health, education, standard of living and cohesion would also be improved. The cultural aspects, as mentioned above, play a role in women’s self-esteem.

The fact that, culturally, women are regarded as inferior and cannot make decisions in the household, will affect their social engagements outside the household. In community improvement programmes, such as health clubs, savings mobilisation clubs for women, where women have to lead, they are not easily nominated. The extent to which women are allowed opportunities and freedom in the household, determines how the outside community treats them. The devaluation of women’s competence, when coupled with the tendency to assume that women’s success is due to luck, further puts additional pressure on women and how they are treated at work in face-to-face interactions (Landrine & Klonoff, 1997:11).

Land ownership and distribution has affected economic and social development way beyond the agricultural sector (Deinenger, 2003:17). Government attempts to improve on land ownership has created an environment where programmes such as CASP, MAFISA and AgriBEE were introduced to deal with the lack of access to land for women.

The fact that the *WPSALP* (1997) has indicated its priority beneficiaries as women, adds to the importance of emphasising certain categories in the implementation of the Land Reform Policies. According to the year book 2001/2, the Department of Land Affairs has revised its Land-Reform Programmes to support sustainable rural development policies and interventions (GCIS 2001: 400). The linkage between policies, as decided upon by the political arm of government, community needs and the cultural, as well as certain socio-economic aspects of communities, has a bearing on the successful implementation of these designated policies.

According to Walker (1998:14), one of the notable consequences of the history of struggles over land in South Africa, is the precipitous decline in peasant production in the twentieth century, as a result of the combination of factors flowing from State policy. These include the dispossession of black land rights, desperate overcrowding in the established native reserves, soil depletion, migrant labour and non-investment in black rural areas (Walker, 1998: 14).

The goal is certainly ambitious: to redress the injustices of the grossly skewed past land dispensation, to reduce poverty, to contribute to sustainable land use and economic development, and to establish security of tenure for all (DLA, 1996a:1). This calls for a rigorous review of the policies to check whether the set objectives have been achieved. The likelihood of improving conditions on the above target is declining, however. About half the South African population still lives in rural areas, and the great majority in extreme poverty.

4.7 Conclusion

The South African government has introduced land-reform policy the main aim of which is to address economic development and empower women. However, several factors, such as skills shortages, weak institutional arrangements, especially in the rural areas, lack of finance and information have contributed to the ineffectiveness of these policies. In recognition of these weaknesses, government has come with remedial measures to expose women to learning opportunities through – amongst others -- exchange programmes. A clear selection of beneficiaries and the involvement of appropriate stakeholders during policy development is necessary, in order to avoid conflicts during policy implementation. This should be coupled with a judicious use of the limited resources.

Barriers and challenges facing women must be dealt with collaboratively by all those affected, because, as stated in 4.6 above, some of these challenges are internal, while some are external. In both scenarios, women have little or no control over these situations, as some are purely cultural and traditional. The will to change women's circumstances has to be negotiated, registered and agreed upon by all those affected. Chapter Five will describe the cases that formed the main body of the study. This chapter will discuss each case individually, and will state how women accessed and used land in these particular cases.