



**Transformation in the forestry sector and its implication for
women in Zululand**

By

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Abstract

In post-Apartheid South Africa, transformation has afforded business opportunities for women to be involved as entrepreneurs. Stimulated by the forestry Charter, the forestry industry has been a major recipient of these entrepreneurs. While the Forestry Charter is succeeding in providing business opportunities for women, the work of sociologists, such as, Talcott Parsons, Marx and Engels and the Feminist perspective provide an understanding of the challenges faced by women in taking on social roles hitherto reserved for men in a patriarchal society. Feminist perspectives have shown how male dominance and the monopoly of the affairs of the state and the social division of labour relegated women to the households. This has often created obstacles for women in society. However, while modern social policies have begun to provide mechanisms of redress, the exclusion of women pervades. The exclusion of women from the forestry sector, which is regarded as an arena for men, mirrors other forms of marginalization and domination of women. This was the basis for the Beijing conference's recommendation for women's empowerment.

While there have been many studies on social cultural inhibitions to women's empowerment as well as men's dominance, the present study uncovers implications for women with involvement in entrepreneurial pursuits in the forestry sector. The study proposed to uncover constructs that prevent women from taking full advantage of new opportunities legislated by transformation in South Africa. As South Africans, we need to be more educated in the meaning of transformation and understand the different types of transformation that are found. Transformation is a type of change presented in a certain form, nature or appearance. Change is more regarded as a gradual process. Industrial sociologists provide an in-depth

explanation whereby they view and analyse transformation as first order change, “conforming strategies”, wherein the arrangement, including its organization, culture, defining values and sentiments, does not change. The process of change takes place within the boundaries of the system itself, and in terms of the basic principles and values of the system. The objective is to change behaviour within a prevailing system without affecting the culture, structure and defining values of the system. The study proposed to reveal how gender roles, inequalities and stereotypes affect the forestry industry in South Africa. Marx and Engels argued that gender inequality was used by the ruling class to help bind working class men to the capitalist social order.

Utilizing a survey design, the present study investigated the effects of women’s ‘coping abilities’ (COPAB), ‘mastery of life’ (MASTOL), their extent of ‘self-assurance’, (SELASSU) and their levels of ‘perception of discrimination against women’, (PERDIWOM) on their ‘Perception of empowerment and ability among women’ (PERABIL). The survey conducted used a five-level Likert scale to determine hypothesised relationships between variables. In the first stage of analysis of the research results, responses (n = 68) were reduced using Principal Components Analysis (PCA) to determine how questionnaire items contributed to variables under consideration. Subsequently, variables extracted were correlated. Bivariate correlation was used to test simple relationships between independent and dependent variables.

The hypotheses that were formulated for statistical testing revealed that there is a correlation between women’s levels of self-assurance, perception of discrimination against women (SELASSU) and extent of PERDIWOM. Further to that, the results showed that PERDIWOM and PERABIL are correlated insignificantly; the results also showed that there is a correlation between PERABIL and SELASSU. Many women entrepreneurs in

developing countries face disproportionate obstacles in accessing and competing in markets. These include women's relative lack of mobility, capacity and technical skills in relation to men (World Bank, 2009). The prosperity and growth in the South African economy and forestry sector cannot be realized without the participation and empowerment of black women in the forestry sector. Gender inequality still dominates the sector. In light of the above findings, the study recommends that, the forestry business programme needs to be rearranged in its present state. The rekindling of the business incubators in the forestry sector will see growth and attract more women, escalate productivity and reduce unemployment.

Declaration

I, Simangele Constance Cele (19892012), hereby, declare that the content of this research is my original work and has not been previously submitted to any other University for the award of a degree, either in part or in its entirety.

Signature

Date

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Dedication

In all humility, I dedicate this thesis to my late father, Mr. Jabulani Moses Mkhwanazi, an entrepreneur and graduate, who forever cherished education, an educated and successful person. I will always appreciate and remember him for rekindling the spirit of working hard and having perseverance in everything that is well-intentioned.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AIDS: Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

BBBEE: Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment

BEE: Black Economic Empowerment

CCDPSAFCA: Contractors Capacity Development Programme

CCMA: Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration

DAFF: Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries

DWAF: Department of Water Affairs and Forestry

FAO: Food and Agriculture Organisation

FIETA: Forest Industries Education and Training Authority

FSA: Forestry South Africa

GDP: Gross Domestic Product

HIV: Human Immune Deficiency

ILO: International Labour Organisation

IUFRO: International Union Forestry Research Organisation

LED: Local Economic Development Programme

NFA: National Forest Act

NGO: Non-Governmental Organisation

NPAT: Net Profit after Tax

PDP: Professional Driving Permit

QSE: Qualifying Small Enterprises

SAFCOL: South African Forestry Company Limited

SAPPI: South African Pulp and Paper Industries

SQF: SiyaQhubeka Forest

SETA: Sector Education and Training Authority

SETSA: Sector Education and Training in South Africa

KMO: Kaizer-Meyer-Olkin

PCA: Principal Components Analysis

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Science

BTS: Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

df: degree of freedom

PERABIL: Performance Ability

PERDWOM: Perception of Discrimination against Women

SELASSU: Self-Assurance

Chapter Outline

This research report consists of nine chapters

Chapter 1 consists of the introductory part of the study; it reveals that the study is quantitative in nature. It further deliberates on the research questions and hypotheses underpinning the study. This chapter shows that women had been previously disadvantaged, in a manner that there are roles in the spheres of society that were and are still regarded as for men; especially, those that have to do with leadership and economy.

Chapter 2 deliberates on the state of the forestry industry in South Africa, arguing about the fact that women are still discriminated against in different ways in the forestry business. This chapter, further, discusses the legislative framework that is aimed at regulating the forestry business.

Chapter 3 is based on the gender issue, the forestry sector and the need for women empowerment. The chapter argues that forestry is a business sector like any other. Thus everyone is capable and suitable to participate. However, the chapter proposes that in order for women to be productive and competitive in the sector, there is still a need for the empowerment of women.

It is evident in Chapter 4 that discrimination could be reduced by being strategic in empowering women. This chapter is in support of feminist theory, which emphasizes that men and women possess equal capabilities and therefore women should not be limited in

terms of functioning in the spheres of society, including their participation in the forestry sector.

In chapter 5 it is argued that the ability of women to cope in the forestry business, underlie the extent to which women are empowered, and accommodated in the sector. The argument of this chapter has been crucial in emphasizing that all stakeholders should contribute in the empowerment and capacitation of women in business and as employees.

Chapter 6 deliberates on the theory within which this study is framed. As this study utilizes the feminist and the functionalist theories; this chapter addresses the issue of women suppression, from the historical and cultural perspective. This chapter argues that women should be equally treated with men and responsibilities should be equally distributed based on merit.

Chapter 7 provides detailed information on the methods adopted in the completion of this study. It is shown in this chapter that data will be collected using a structured questionnaire. Further to that, this chapter shows that SPSS was the adopted data analysis tool, and frequency tables and the bivariate correlation technique were used to analyze data of the study.

Chapter 8 presents the results. This chapter argues that there is a need for empowerment of women as a strategy for reducing discrimination existing in the forestry sector. Therefore, it is when transformation in the forestry sector will prevail, and the sector should not be regarded as one designated for men.

Chapter 9 is the concluding chapter. This chapter accommodates all results of the study. However, it concludes that the self-assurance of women in the forestry sector will increase their perceived level of abilities. It is argued in this chapter that discrimination against women in the forestry sector will be reduced when there is self-assurance and the perceived level of their abilities increases. Only then could it be said that there is transformation in the sector.

Chapter 1: General Introduction

“In the nineteenth century, the central moral challenge was slavery. In the twentieth century, it was the battle against totalitarianism. We believe that in this century the paramount moral challenge will be the struggle for gender” (Kristof, 2008).

1.1. Introduction

The interest in improving the lot of women in developing countries has culminated in dialogues on women, which has led to international agencies and feminist organisations forging the concept of women empowerment (Malhotra & DeGraff: 1996). According to Abbot, et al (2005), feminism proceeds from the view that women are oppressed and that for many women this oppression is primary, whilst for others, this experience forms part of a multiplicity of oppression. The feminist perspectives propose that women’s freedom of action and expression is limited by the relative power of men. This is construed to be based on the fact that men, in the main, tend to possess more economic, cultural and social resources than women. While decimation pervades society, perhaps the most striking is the form of discrimination faced by women in the work place (Scarborough & Zimmerer, 2000). Attempts to bypass work place discrimination are evident in the small businesses which offer women opportunities for economic expression through self-employment and entrepreneurship. This emphasis on the development of female entrepreneurs is understandable as women represent more than 50% of the South African population but own approximately 33% of existing businesses. In fact, male-owned businesses still outnumber female-owned businesses.

In South Africa's forestry sector, the goal of transformation was to ensure legitimate and equitable representation of major demographics of the population. Transformation in this sector however seems to be stifled as a result of contributing factors based on discrimination, and women (dis)empowerment. These forms of disempowerment are the result of factors that inhibit the participation of women in their new social roles. The male counterpart is still ahead of the female counterpart in the forestry sector which tends to impede transformation in forestry. Kiptot & Franze (2011) confirmed that women's participation is very high in enterprises such as the production and processing of indigenous fruit and vegetable products, apparently because indigenous species require fewer labour inputs. Women have a natural touch for nature and have always attached themselves to tilling the soil for nurturing their families. In Africa, the extent of women's involvement relative to men in activities such as soil fertility management, fodder production and woodlots is fairly high in terms of the participation of female headed households but low when measured by the area such households allocate to these activities and the number of trees they plant.

The feminist approach as a theoretical framework is best suited to explain the gap that still exists between males and females in the forestry industry. The feminist theory provides a framework for thinking about particular measures of wellbeing. The aim of this chapter is to engage theoretical factors, which have contributed in the formation and achievement of the objectives of the study. This advocates for transforming the forestry sector; considering the amount and nature of implication it historically and currently has on women.

1.2. The deliberation on the forestry sector

Forestry is historically known to be a male dominated sector, providing minimal room for women. Transformation has been viewed as the Republic of South Africa's conduit to the future. As South

Africans, we need to be more educated to the meaning of transformation and understand the different types of transformation that are found, as indicated by Finnemore and van Rensburg (2004). Nonetheless, there is first order change, “conforming strategies”, whereby the arrangement, including its organization, culture and defining values and sentiments, does not change. The change process takes place within the boundaries of the system itself, and in terms of the basic principles and values of the system. Finnemore and van Rensburg continue to explain that, “the objective is to change behaviour within a prevailing system without affecting the culture, structure and defining values of the system”. Change is more regarded as an evolutionary process. The researcher’s point of view is that, there are many organizations in South Africa and the best example for the moment is Sappi (South Africa Pulp and Paper Industry), which has kept or preserved its organizational culture and structure, but gradually tries to comply with the statutory requirements regarding change. The second order change, “transforming strategies”, Finnemore and van Rensburg define as more fundamental in nature. Its principal aim is not to intervene in the operations of an organization, but to change its structure, culture, defining values and overall form. Martel, as cited by Finnemore and van Rensburg (2004), refers to this model of change as structural change, emphasizing the fact that a fundamental transformation of an organization’s total make-up is on the agenda. In this aforementioned explanation the entire frame is broken down or dismantled, hence it is revolutionary in nature.

Mondi Business Paper may partially qualify as adopting the second order change strategy as it consistently redefines its organization structure. Human societies are characterised by gender principles, by which inanimate objects, individuals and animals, are sorted and given a value. Throughout history, social phenomena have been given a masculine or feminine connotation. Specific ideas of feminine or masculine qualities are connected to certain roles, expectations, positions and tasks in individuals. The idea of what is appropriate for men and women lays the foundation for the distribution of work for both sexes. Thus, Forestry is not an exception to this

perception, since it has been generally regarded as an arena mainly for men's work and business (FAO: 2006). Response to women entering male-dominated areas such as Forestry has often been negatively perceived. In Norway, for example, since Forestry has traditionally been regarded as a male rural occupation, women have faced negative attitudes upon joining the Forestry industry (Brandth & Haugen, 1998; Brandth & Haugen, 2000). Interest in improving the lot of women in developing countries, culminated in the Cairo population Conference of 1994 and Beijing Women's Conference of 1995, which led to the international agencies and feminist organisations, alike, to rally behind the concept of "women empowerment" (Malhotra & DeGraff: 1996). Studies of the impact of microcredit in societies where women have traditionally been excluded from the cash economy have found that women's access to credit led to a number of positive changes in women's own perception of themselves (Kabeer: 2001). In a research study prepared for the Sector Outlook European Forest, the study found that the share of women in Forestry is low in all countries.

The status of women in Forestry is a reflection of the explicit and implicit values of societies, which is influenced by the social, cultural and historical factors that have made it difficult for women to enter and progress in the Forestry Sector. The fact that the Forestry industry is highly dominated by men, may be discouraging to many women, who may feel that there is likely to be discrimination and that their opportunities for career development may be held back. Although there does not appear to be any direct research evidence on this issue, it is a factor highlighted as a stumbling block to women considering the male dominated industry. In terms of the prevailing situation in the Forestry industry in South Africa, there is clear evidence of discriminatory practice against women. In the past, this has been very explicit in certain sectors and evidence suggests that this is still very much the case. In many countries the situation has improved since the introduction of equality legislation. Since the introduction of the equality legislation, discrimination appears to have become more implicit. Many women in the Forestry industry refer to discrimination,

stereotypes and the culture being closed to them, awakening memories of a men's "club" with male focused standards and values. In a research study undertaken with the America Foresters Society (Kuhns et al., 2004) the study reported that 65% of the women felt that gender discrimination existed in their workplace; 71% of the participants indicated that women did not have the same opportunities as men in the Forestry industry.

In another study conducted by the International Labour Organization on the employment trends in the European Forest Sector in 2003, the study revealed gender differences in the Forestry industry as a whole. In the section of the status and trends of employment and productivity in Forestry, the research states: "The participation and share of women in forestry is low in all countries. Only in 4 countries of the 20 providing data does it reach or exceed 20 percent. A general trend is that in all countries women are still strongly underrepresented in management and decision making structures" (FAO, 2006). In this research, we also draw from sociological perspectives on Resource Theory, gender inequality and comparative social contexts which are in support of the findings of this study. Gender inequality from the functionalist perspective was most robustly articulated in the 1940s and 1950s, and largely developed by Talcott Parson's Model of the Nuclear Family. According to functionalist paradigm, gender inequalities exist as an efficient way to create a division of labour, or as a social system in which particular segments are clearly responsible for certain respective acts of labour. A structural functionalist view of gender inequality applies the division of labour to view predefined gender roles as complimentary. That is, men provide for the family while women take care of the home. Thus, gender inequality, like other social institutions, contributes to the equilibrium of society as a whole (Boudless, 2014).

Although gender roles and their accompanying inequalities have changed somewhat in industrialized societies, functionalists point out that traditional arrangements still remain in place in most societies. The existence of the traditional division of labour according to the functionalist

view, testifies to the usefulness for human societies. According to the principles of functionalism, the functional prerequisites are the basic needs, namely, shelter, food money and clothing that the individual needs in order to survive. According to structural functionalists, gender serves to maintain social order by providing and ensuring the stability of such functional prerequisites. While gender roles, according to the functionalist perspective, are beneficial in that they contribute to a stable social system, many argue that gender roles are discriminatory and should not be upheld. On the contrary, the feminist perspective takes the position that functionalism neglects the suppression of women within the family structure (Boudless, 2014). The conflict perspective is compatible with the Feminist Theory in its assertions that structured social inequality is maintained by ideologies that are frequently accepted by both the privileged and the oppressed.

These ideologies are challenged only when oppressed groups gain the resources necessary to do so. Unlike Conflict Theory's focus on social class and the economic elements necessary to challenge the prevailing system, feminists focus on women and their ability to gain resources from a variety of sources, like involvement in business in the Forestry industry. Feminists work through a number of avenues to increase women's empowerment; which is the ability for women to exert control over their own destinies. One of the most important contributions of the feminist perspective in sociology, and the present study in particular, is its attention to the multiple oppressions faced by people whose status sets are disadvantaged due to distinctive combinations based on their race, gender and social class. For example, when the issue of poverty becomes "feminized" the issue is defined primarily by gender. Women are more at a risk of being poor than men. On the contrary, conflict theories deny the historical inevitability and necessity of the traditional division of labour between women and men. The division of labour between women and men may have been functional in non-industrialized societies, where physical strength was required by many tasks. However, in industrialized societies, the situation has changed. The continuance of the traditional division of labour between men and women and the social inequality that it produces merely

contribute to unnecessary social conflict and are therefore, not functional for society. The Forestry Charter, for example, advocates for the rendering of business opportunities for women in the Forestry industry.

The findings of this study are further supported by the Forestry Charter whose aims are; to promote investment programmes that lead to sustainable Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment growth and development of the forest sector and meaningful participation of Black people in the entire Forestry value chain; to achieve sustainable change in the racial and gender composition of ownership management and control structures and in the skilled positions of existing and new forest enterprises; to increase the extent to which Black women and men, workers, cooperatives and other collective enterprises own and manage existing and new forest enterprises and increase their access to economic activities, infrastructure and skills training; to nurture new Black-owned and/or Black-managed enterprises to undertake new forms of economic and value-adding activities in the Forest Sector. The Charter proposes to use the Forest industry as a catalyst for empowering rural and local Black communities to access economic activities, land, infrastructure, ownership and skills. Promoting sustainable employment and contracting practices in the Forest Sector. In turn it will promote access to finance for Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment in the Forest Sector and; promote equitable representation in industry structures and equitable access to forestry support systems. Finally, it seeks to provide an enabling environment for transparency, fairness and consistency.

In most cultures, men have historically held most of the world's resources. Until recently, women in Western cultures could not vote or hold property, making them entirely dependent on men. Men, like any other group with power or wealth advantage, fought to maintain their control over resources, namely, political and economic power. Consequently, conflict between the two groups contributed to the establishment of the Women's Suffrage Movement and was responsible for

social change. On the other hand, Symbolic Interaction also called “the interactionist perspective” of gender inequality focuses on how inequality is perpetuated by the transmission of traditional cultural definitions of masculinity and femininity from generation to generation. For example, learning these definitions influences people’s expectations about the types of statuses that women and men are capable of occupying and the types of roles they are capable of performing. Compared with functionalists and conflict theories, inter-actionists are optimistic as to the prospects of reducing if not eliminating such gender inequalities. Since gender roles and division of labour that they support are the products of what each generation teaches the next generation, we can change them by teaching different gender roles and different ideas about division of labour. In this study, the analysis of data indicated how gender roles and stereotypes affect the Forest identity in South Africa. Gender equality in South Africa can be achieved without having to wait for the restructuring of society implied by functionalist theories though this process might take several years to achieve. Neither is it necessary to resort to revolutionary strategy to achieve gender equality as proposed by such conflict theorists as Marx and Engels. Finally, the Forest industry plays an important role in the everyday life of millions of people all over the world. Research has revealed that over the last few years, very important changes have taken place in the views and demands of forests by society.

Changes in South Africa caused by urbanization, globalization, increasing time budgets for recreation, tourism and sports, and environmental awareness and access to multiple sources of information all have had severe impacts on people’s perceptions and attitudes towards the Forestry industry. If women do not participate fully in forest entrepreneurial activities, we are likely to lose the potential of our society and economic development will be jeopardized. Bendix (2006) stipulated that the change process itself is the most multifaceted, intricate and least documented. This explains why in spite of the realization of the need for change, not much change occurs. Furthermore, it is not a smooth process, since a frequent degeneration to the security of old habits

is unavoidable. Opportunities are being laid out for women to be involved in Forest activities as a result of the involvement of the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry's approach in developing a Forest Charter that would purely engage women in a profound manner, to open business opportunities and simultaneously further their skills in areas that are very critical in sustaining their businesses. Prior to the development of the Forestry Charter, women have somehow penetrated the Forest sector, and this has not transpired to their full satisfaction, since it is very challenging to engage in an industry that is historically dominated by males and of whom the majority is white. The Forest environment is still currently experiencing enormous resistance to change and yet the South African government is trying by all means to break new grounds for all sectors pertaining to growth and ownership. This is a huge challenge to both the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry (DWAF) and the corporate growers, like Mondi Business Paper and Sappi, to name just a few. This is to support women in the context of Forestry business, ownership and training. Redefining forestry is a challenge and yet it is an urgent requirement. There are various problems that South African women are faced with and the main reason is the manner in which Forestry is defined beyond the limits of timber extraction, it is often equated with logging which has historically been 'men's work'.

1.3. Statement of the problem

According to Nieman et al. (2003:34), traditionally, a woman's role has been that of mother and wife, but the economic role of women has emerged in South Africa. Women were always seen to be in the kitchen; nowadays they are represented in large numbers in boardrooms. Women entrepreneurs seem to be the most disadvantaged group because until recently they could not spear-head or champion a business activity without taking their husband or a male counterpart along. One can ask how a woman can be a successful entrepreneur if she is overworked in the home, not educated, unskilled and untrained, or unexposed to markets, or cut off from financial resources, or

just generally discriminated against in a male-dominated society. For modern society the idea of a bread-winning husband and an in-house wife has become extended and somewhat barbaric (Swiss & Walker, 1993). It is on those bases that this study attempts to contribute in the transformation of the forestry industry, in a manner that recognizes the potential of women and strives to empower them. This study advocates the notion of gender equality, thus emphasizing that opportunities in such sectors like forestry should be made available to them, either for business or employment. In modern societies the values and gender roles of pre-industrial families are being changed daily (Brubaker, 1993). Child care and division of household chores can also become issues. Men today may be doing a little more around the house and women a little less, but the division of labour is still lopsided. The family structure was simple and the functional scope was limited on the basis of sex and age (Taplin, 1989).

In pre-industrial societies men spent most of their time hunting while women gathered crops, cooked and nurtured children (Giddens, 1997). However, (Haralambos & Held, 1980), states that the role of a woman is to nurture and socialize the young. In general, approximately 70% of women nurture their families through Forest related resources and as well as for the well-being of all who fall under their care. In most parts of Northern Zululand, many women strive for growth in order to become entrepreneurs in Forestry, but most unfortunately, whether it is through doubt or resistance which still lingers in the hearts of corporate growers, women's aptitude, and capability are still questioned. However, evidence exists of women who have had impudence and embarked on Forest projects without adequate information, but have managed to take it upon themselves to conduct research, consult and build their own professional networks. Today, we are proud of the few who own land and women who have managed to qualify for long term contracts with well renowned corporate growers in South Africa.

This is not adequate as women still need well-grounded support systems to be in place to assist them towards growth as entrepreneurs and feature in the wider Forest value chain. There is a dual challenge in terms of transformation in this context; firstly, it is transformation which is long overdue of transparently exposing and allowing opportunities to historically disadvantaged individuals more particularly women and secondly, transformation in terms of Forest engineering, whereby the Forestry industry is being propelled in the direction of providing solutions to complex Forestry problems. The former is proof that the Forestry industry is transforming and some of the major reasons for this transformation are due to the following:

- i. HIV/AIDS pandemic
- ii. Increasing absenteeism
- iii. Nutritional problems
- iv. Serious injuries
- v. Fatalities
- vi. Terrain etcetera.

It is the researcher's viewpoint that women have, to a minimal extent, played a role in the industry that is transforming very gradually. The main concern is the first part of transformation, as aforementioned, which is not yet fully achieved and yet there is the second transformation of mechanization, which is a huge challenge in terms of developing a system as to how women will engage in this undertaking.

1.4. Motivation for the study

There is a misconstrued notion of Forestry and agriculture, yet there is a distinct dichotomy between the two in nature. However, this study is solely on Forestry. Some of the challenges that exist which are faced by women in Forestry are the following:

- i. Women and mechanization are one of the greatest challenges that exist as there is a dire lack of skills' enhancement, competencies and equity in this area.
- ii. Redefining Forestry is a challenge, yet it is an urgent requirement in that women role players should be manifest in the holistic Forest structural equation.
- iii. Transformation issues that the government has leveled grounds for a just, fair, non-discriminatory and equal opportunity Forest sector through the provisioning of equity policy. The extent to which the sector answers fundamental equity questions is one of the critical issues for the investigation as that explains its involvement of women as a historically and economically disadvantaged gender.

Another source of motivation for the present study is that the researcher has been practically and intensively involved in commercial Forestry work as an Incubator manager for a Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) subsidiary company of Mondi Business Paper, called SiyaQhubeka Forest, and in the capacity of a Forestry contractor. The researcher's exposure has led her to closely understand the daily functions within the Forest sector and more precisely, the challenges that historically disadvantaged people have. This exposure has contributed to the election of the researcher by the Department of Forestry to serve as a member in the Forest Charter Council of South Africa. The Forest Charter was formulated, completed and officially launched in March 2008 and the Forest Charter Council also exists, whose main objective is to drive the implementation

process of the charter. One needs to scrutinize the whole equation as to whether women will finally have an incontestable stake in the sector. The focus of the study is to place women in the Forest mosaic holistically. However, this research is worth being conducted in order to determine how women would be supported or incubated. The issue of finance has also manifested to be the dominating challenge and this study is essential as it will determine how the financing problem may be overcome. South Africa has well renowned multinational corporate growers, such as Mondi Business Paper and Sappi. These growers have invested billions of Rands in South African Commercial Forest, such that the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry (DWAF) is relentlessly engaged in a process of transforming the Forest sector and cannot do this in isolation, but is obliged to interact with the corporate growers and other relevant stakeholders in this endeavour.

1.5. The aim of the study

The primary aim of the study is to examine the progress of the transformation process in the forestry sector and the implications this has for women in Zululand.

1.6. Objectives of the study

1.6.1 To determine if there is any relationship between forestry women's level of mastery of life and their perceived extent of discrimination against women

1.6.2 To determine if there is any relationship between forestry women's level of mastery of life and their perceived empowerment and ability among women.

1.6.3 To determine if there is any relationship between forestry women's level of coping ability and the perceived discrimination against women.

1.6.4 To determine if there is any relationship between forestry women's level of coping ability; empowerment and ability among women.

1.6.5 To determine if there is any relationship between forestry women's self-assurance and their perceived discrimination against women.

1.6.6 To determine if there is any relationship between forestry women's self-assurance and their perceived empowerment; and ability among women.

1.7. Research Questions:

1.7.1 Is there any relationship between forestry women's level of mastery of life and their perceived extent of discrimination against women?

1.7.2 Is there any relationship between forestry women's level of mastery of life and their perceived empowerment and ability among women?

1.7.3 Is there any relationship between forestry women's level of coping ability and their perceived discrimination against women?

1.7.4 Is there any relationship between forestry women's level of coping ability and their perceived empowerment and ability among women?

1.7.5 Is there any relationship between forestry women's self-assurance and their perceived discrimination against women?

1.7.6 Is any relationship between forestry women's self-assurance and their perceived empowerment and ability among women?

1.8. Hypotheses of the study

1.8.1 **H0:** Mastery of Life (MASTOL) is correlated with the Perception of Discrimination against Women (PERDIWOM)

H1: There is no correlation between Mastery of Life (MASTOL) and the Perception of Discrimination against women (PERDIWOM)

1.8.2 **H0:** Mastery of Life (MASTOL) is correlated with the Perception of Empowerment and Ability among Women (PERABIL)

H2: There is no correlation between Mastery of Life (MASTOL) and Perception of Empowerment and Ability among Women (PERABIL)

1.8.3 **H0:** Coping Ability (COPAB) is correlated with the Perception of Discrimination against Women (PERDIMOM)

H3: There is no correlation between Coping Ability (COPAB) and Discrimination against Women (PERDIWOM)

1.8.4 **H0** Coping Ability (COPAB) is correlated with the Perception of Empowerment and Ability among Women (PERABIL)

H4: There is no correlation between Coping Ability (COPAB) and Ability among Women (PERABIL)

1.8.5 **H0:** Self Assurance (SELASSU) is correlated with the Perception of Discrimination against Women (PERDIWOM)

H5: There is no correlation between Self Assurance (SELASSU) and the Perception of Discrimination against Women (PERDIWOM)

1.8.6 **H0:** Self Assurance (SELASSU) is correlated with the Perception of Empowerment and Ability among Women (PERABIL)

H6: There is no correlation between Self Assurance (SELASSU) and the Perception of Empowerment and Ability among Women (PERABIL)

1.9. Subsidiary hypotheses:

1.9.1 **H0:** There is no correlation between Social Demographic variables and Mastery over life (MASTOL)

H1: Social Demographic variables correlate with Mastery over life (MASTOL)

1.9.2 **H0:** There is no correlation between Social Demographic variables and Coping Ability (COPAB)

H2: Social Demographic variables correlate with Coping Ability (COPAB)

1.9.3 **H0:** There is no correlation between Social Demographic variables and Self Assurance (SELASSU)

H3: Social Demographic variables correlate with Self Assurance (SELASSU)

1.9.4 **H0:** There is no correlation between Social Demographic variables and Perception of Discrimination against women (PERDIWOM)

H4: Social Demographic variables correlate with Perception of Discrimination against Women (PERDIWOM)

1.9.5 **H0:** There is no correlation between Social Demographic variables and Empowerment and Ability of Women (PERABIL)

H1: Social Demographic variables correlate with Perception of Empowerment and Ability of Women (PERABIL)

1.10. Significance of the study

1.10.1. The study highlights the extent to which transformation has played a role in affording opportunities for women to be involved as role players in forest activities.

1.10.2 The study also sheds light on the extent to which the Forestry Charter is succeeding and progressing in affording business opportunities for women in the Forestry industry.

1.10.3 The study elucidates and identifies barriers that prevent women from guaranteed activism in the Forest sector in South Africa.

1.11. Operational Concepts

Discrimination: It is a perception displayed by a person or a group of people towards another person or a group of people, in a manner that excludes that person or group of people from forming part of the collective.

Gender Discrimination: is the exclusion of women from participation in the predominantly male areas which emanates from the patriarchal perception which is a norm of a society.

Discrimination reduction: is a process whereby the perception of excluding women is minimized with the aim of eradicating discrimination in the long process.

Transformation: is the process of causing gradual and organized change to be effective in an organization and society.

Forest Charter: is the transformation strategic tool formulated to expedite positive change in the forest sector.

Gender: is that which characterizes the sex of an individual.

Feminism: is the strategy to action radical change in the negative perception towards women.

PERABIL: perception of empowerment and ability of women in forestry.

PERDIWOM: perception of discrimination against women in forestry.

SELASSU: self- assurance of women

1.12. Limitations/ Delimitation of study

The study aims at examining the processes of transforming women in the forestry industry. This study has been limited by postulating the extent to which transformation in the forestry sector has afforded women opportunities for involvement in the forest sector, without considering the different levels and types of transformation processes that need to be undertaken to reach a progressive destination that will transform the forestry industry. In addition to the aforementioned, the study furnished much emphasis on the discrimination, performing ability, and self-assurance of women in forestry, whilst overlooking barriers to structured activism in the forestry industry. According to Nieman et al. (2003:34), traditionally, a woman's role has been that of mother and

wife, but the economic role of women has emerged in South Africa. Women have been for a long time confined to domestic activities; and disallowed freedom to be economically active. In addition, the study has had limitations in addressing the extent to which the Forestry Charter has provided business prospects for women in the forestry industry. The Forest Charter is a tool designed to expedite the process for the dignified inclusion of women in forestry and according to a ‘Companion to the Draft Forest Sector Transformation Charter’: 2007:8, the Forest Sector makes a major contribution to the South African economy. Further research may be conducted to address the limitations experienced in this study.

1.13. Ethical Issues

Permission to conduct the study was obtained from corporate growers and independent contractors. Part of the participants of this research was women who are illiterate and afraid to engage in interviews; hence it was equally important to explain to them and get an informed consent when they answered the questionnaire. The right to privacy, voluntary participation, anonymity and confidentiality were maintained.

1.14. Conclusion

This chapter has established the basis for this study. The chapter stated the research questions and objectives of the study, its potential value, the research problem and a short overview of the research method utilized. However, the methodology for the study is discussed in greater details in Chapter seven, whilst Chapter eight that follows is the presentation of results, arguing the status quo of women’s representation and participation in the forestry industry. The next chapter will deliberate on the state of forestry industry in South Africa.

Chapter 2: State of the Forestry Industry in South Africa

“It’s not the tools you have faith in. Tools are just tools.....they work or they don’t work. It’s the people you have faith in or not” (Steve-Jobs, 2015).

2.1. Introduction

The overall aim of this study was to examine the progress of the transformation process in the forestry sector and the implication this has for women. The introduction of the Forestry Charter in South Africa in March 2008 has afforded South African women a chance to engage in business opportunities in an industry which is historically dominated by men. The forestry charter is a transformation tool which has to be implemented by all forestry role players, and this may only be achieved if all stakeholders commit to the forestry charter strategies. This implementation will allow for the level of discrimination to be reduced and the empowerment of women to rise. The main aim of the Charter is to promote and enhance Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment in and through the Forestry Sector by commissioning the following: Promoting investment programmes that lead to sustainable B-BBEE-driven growth and development of the Forestry Sector and to promote meaningful participation of Black people in the entire forestry value chain. Furthermore the aim is to accomplish sustainable change in the racial and gender composition of ownership, management and control structures and in the skilled positions of existing and new forestry entities. To enhance the extent to which Black women and men, workers, cooperatives and other collective enterprises own and manage existing and new forestry initiatives. And to increase their access to economic participation in forestry, skills development programmes, and

entrepreneurship programmes which already exist, while the issue of creating balanced and integrated gender leadership in forestry still remains a challenge.

The results of this study indicate that self-assurance has a relationship with the discrimination of women in the forestry sector; Bartol & Butterfield's study reveals this phenomenon, more especially when a woman naturally displays masculine traits in her leadership style. However, men then tend to be protective of their macho trait territory and this may lead to the undervaluing of women. It becomes evident that self-assurance in women will be highly compromised which relates to discrimination. This is also reflected in the pace and progress in accommodating women based on their individual strengths and capabilities, which is overwhelmingly slow. This highlights the argument in that women's rights may easily become marginalized or may not be recognized, especially in the context of efforts to introduce statutory laws and formal administrative procedures (Quisumbing et al., 2001). The implementation of the forestry charter becomes law and will compel all forestry role players to adhere to the law and in this way gradually detangle all discriminatory knots. The previous chapter highlighted that there is still discrimination experienced by women in forestry. According to Scarborough & Zimmerer (2000), women face discrimination in the workforce, and in order to combat this, the proper approach needs to be taken.

The present chapter attempts to discuss the state or complexity of the forestry industry, whereby the issue of discrimination and the empowerment of women have been addressed but it seems progress is stifled. (FAO, 2011 & Shackleton et al. 2011) Various practical interventions have been proposed to increase the benefits obtained by women and men from the trade of NWFPs, including understanding gender roles along the entire value chain; supporting those activities performed by women (often in the household); assessing the gender impacts of interventions to increase production profits and efficiency; working with existing processing and marketing groups; and, where appropriate, assisting women to organize into groups and federations for effective

collective action (Awono et al., 2010). This chapter takes into account the aforementioned issues in order to deliberate on the complexity of forestry in relation to women. Women usually make significant labour contributions to agroforestry (e.g. by planting, weeding and watering trees). Their opportunities in the sector are often limited to low-return activities that are of little or no interest to men, while men tend to control the production and marketing of higher value products as well as the use of the income so generated (Rocheleau & Edmunds, 1997). The chapter further discusses the economic growth, empowerment of women and the ability for women to cope in this male protected industry.

2.2. Overview of the forestry industry

Commercial forestry is an economic force in the South African economy. For example, in 1999, the industry was a net exporter to the value of R3300 000 000, which was approximately 2.4% of the total exports excluding gold exports, based on data from (FOA 2000). The commercial forestry industry employed some 75 000 people directly, and 500 000 indirectly; and, some 2 100 000 people were dependent on commercial forestry for their survival based on data from (FOA, 2000). The economic significance of commercial forestry is expected to increase in the future for the following reasons. Firstly, the long-term growth prospects of the industry are assessed to be excellent. It is believed that annual wood demand facing the forestry industry is expected to double from the current consumption of 19 000 000 m³ by 2005 (Schargetter, 1987; Gasana, 1999). Secondly, there are strong income incentives for downstream wood processing industries to integrate backwards so as to plant more to earn more. Thirdly, being a world leader in pulp and paper technology, South Africa has a strategic competitive advantage which can be harnessed to its benefit (Kaplan et al., 1995).

However, since the beginning of the transition to democracy in 1991, there has been increasingly vociferous attacks on the industry; in particular, regarding its urban and big-business bias and the damage it has been causing to the environment. Also, after the transition to democracy, various other new groups have joined the ranks of stakeholders actors constellations, giving rise to the two strong advocacy coalitions: one, the old one, which has an urban and big business bias and white-dominated management; and two, the new one, which encompasses a myriad of stakeholders and has the environmental value of forests at heart. The role of commercial forestry is hence being questioned as the transformation in South African society proceeds. Major concerns have been raised about the environmental damage that it is causing to society. The environmental damage is of diverse nature, and includes the loss of water through stream flow reduction, increasing land degradation, loss of biodiversity and habitat, deterioration of scenic beauty and aesthetic value of environment, and so on. Sufficient scientific evidence has been gathered by the new advocacy coalition, which strongly believes that the success of commercial forestry, in particular the pulp and paper sector, has come at the expense of the environment. In sum, the twin factors; growing environmental concerns and the emerging strong environmental advocacy coalition have contributed to the rising concerns about the sustainability of commercial forestry per se.

Sustainability in light of the South African context embraces a wider definition, which refers to environmental, social, religious, and cultural interests in forests as the white paper on forestry reads: The new forestry policy of South Africa is defined as one that deals with the scope of relationships between people and forest resources. It includes the use and husbandry of wood; fruits and other products that come from trees and non-timber forest products. The overall goal of government is to promote a thriving forestry sector, to be utilized for the lasting benefits of the nation, and for it to be developed and managed to protect the environment. These goals will be pursued by wide participation in formulating and implementing policy and plans for forestry, which will be developed to facilitate the role of people in communities, the private sector, and the

government (Ministry of Water Affairs and Forestry, 1996). As a matter of fact, commercial forestry in South Africa is in a state of flux as it now seeks a socially, economically, and environmentally sustainable growth path. Ensuring sustainability of the commercial forestry industry has thus become a major concern for policymakers, the new environmental advocacy coalition, and, of course, to those inside the industry or old coalition.

The new situation has demanded the restructuring of priorities for commercial forestry. It can no longer simply follow the path of profit maximization, and be impervious to changes in the broad socioeconomic environment. This is reinforced by the new environmental law, which adopts a 'polluter pays' principle and makes commercial forestry responsible for the externalities that it generates (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1997). In a nutshell, this requires an understanding of various issues to solve the puzzle of sustainability, namely: the environmental damage that commercial forestry inflicts upon the nation; the changing structures of stakeholders and strengthening of the environmental advocacy coalition, especially after the democratic transition; the institutional and policy vacuum that has been generated as a result of these changes; and finally, the nature of principal policies that will meet the objective of sustainability and resolve conflicts between the coalitions.

South Africa is not a naturally forest-rich country and most of its natural forests are concentrated on the eastern coast in the provinces of Mpumalanga and KwaZulu-Natal. It is believed that a very small area 0.1% of the total geographical area was originally covered by indigenous natural forests. These principally included stinkwood and yellowwood tree vegetation. With the onset of European settlers in the 17th century, the indigenous forests were slowly cleared (Bethlehem, 1994). Several efforts, dating as far back as 1882, were made to control the cutting of natural forests. These efforts

met with little success. Finally, the government banned the cutting of natural forests by law in 1939 (Bethlehem, 1994). However, the continuous rising demand for timber forced the government to resort to plantation forestry. The first plantation forest dates back to 1890 (Bethlehem, 1994; King, 1938.) In the beginning of the 20th century, the government gave a big boost to plantation forestry as an initiative to provide income and employment to poor whites and soldiers returning from the First World War: The timber famine occurring during and after the First World War was a strong motivation for the government of the Republic of South Africa to establish saw timber plantations with the object of attaining self-sufficiency within 50 years. The economic depressions in the post-war period, and the unemployment coupled therewith, provided the incentive for the RSA government to embark upon large afforestation schemes to provide a living to poor whites and returned soldiers (Van der Zel, 1989).

During the years following the First World War, timber prices rose significantly due to an international timber shortage. This gave further impetus to investment in the forestry sector and attracted the private sector to participate in afforestation (Lack, 1957). Up until the 1960s, the bulk of afforestation was carried out by the South African government; and after that, private afforestation proceeded rapidly. The species planted were all exotic, mostly obtained from Australia and California. Between 1920 and 1990, over 1 000 000 ha of commercial forests were planted (Bethlehem, 1994). Currently, commercial forestry covers some 1 500 000 ha, 1.25% of the total land area of the country based on data from (FOA, 2000). Of the total afforested area, some 46% of the area is under the control of private forestry companies, such as Mondi, Sappi, and other large private companies. Another 24% of the total cover is owned by individuals and partners under the umbrella of the South African Timber Grower Association SATGA, commercial farmers. The remaining 29% is under public ownership and is governed by the South African Forests Company Limited Safcol and other state public organizations. This effectively transformed South Africa from a net importer into a net exporter of timber products in the international market and the

industry earns some R3500 000 000 to 4 000 000 000 per annum in foreign exchange (Burger, 1998; FOA, 2000). In addition, some 72% of this foreign exchange is attributed to the export of pulp and paper related products based on data from FOA (2000). The pulp and paper sector of the industry is hence of utmost importance to the economy.

The pulp, paper and board sector of South Africa is small, but has a significant place in the international export market, traditionally dominated by North America and the Scandinavian countries. South Africa supplies less than 2% of international demand, although physical volumes have grown substantially over the last decade. South African companies have evidently established themselves as a significant player in the international market. It is obvious by now that commercial forestry had become an economic force in the 1990s and beyond. This has happened due to both government protection and support and the economic opportunities that the industry had enjoyed over the years. However, this is only one side of the story; the other side is the intangible environmental costs it has imposed on society. The new environmental advocacy coalition has used these facts in their support. Interestingly enough, although the social cost benefit analysis of commercial forestry has not yet been carried out, ample scientific evidence exists to demonstrate the significant environmental damage caused by the industry.

From the early days, when plantations of eucalyptus or pines began, the South African government was aware of their long-term environmental consequences. The controversy about the effects of afforestation on water supplies began in the 1920s, and still continues today. This led to the development of the afforestation permit system, AFS, since 1972. The major objective of the permit system was to allow plantations in areas where environmental damage was within required limits. By 1994, nearly 1 00 000 ha had been permitted for afforestation, but only 40% of this was planted. Social awareness about the environment and public pressure on policymakers rose incredibly rapidly in the 1990s and thereafter. Two important social forces elevated awareness

about the environmental costs imposed by the industry on the South African public. Firstly, global awareness about the environment has been rising since the 1970s. This reached its zenith in 1991, when the countries of the world gathered at the Rio summit.

The growing body of environmental knowledge and its dispersion made people increasingly aware of the intangible costs that commercial forestry imposed on society without paying for them. Environmental activists and non-governmental organizations played a significant role in making these concerns heard at national and international levels. Secondly, during the early 1990s, the democratic transition in South Africa took place and a new constitution provided safeguards for the protection of the rights of people and the environmental resources of the nation; the 'polluter pays' principle was accepted by the South African parliament. The empowerment of people made them question the status that the commercial forestry had enjoyed in the past.

Although commercial forestry generates a sizeable amount of foreign exchange and employment, it also creates much intangible damage to the environmental capital of the country. This damage becomes especially important if we view its impact on the sustainability of the industry in the long-run context. If this damage were allowed to continue unabated, the cost to society would be enormous, and also perhaps irreversible. The environmental damage occurs in various forms, including the loss of water yield, soil pollution, increasing soil compaction, loss of biodiversity, deterioration of scenic beauty and habitat, and so forth. To ensure profitability, commercial forestry grows water-hungry alien species principally pine and eucalyptus, which occupy approximately more than 80% of the total planted area.

It is the substantial dependence of these alien species on both groundwater and surface run-off rain, which affords them their rapid maturity rate. Approximately 8% of the utilizable average annual rainfall is used by commercial forestry (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1997).

In essence, water is the main contributing factor to the limitations of tree growth, and its availability has been recognized as the main factor influencing the growth of commercial plantations in South Africa (Schonau & Grey, 1987). Commercial timber planting uses larger quantities of water compared to shorter vegetation types, such as scrub, herbs and grass (Le Roux, 1990). Van der Zel (1985) indicated that, in the Umvoti catchment, pine trees would use 1080 mm of water compared to 850 mm for grassland. Whitmore (1983) conducted a study in the Eshowe area, which indicated that afforestation tended to substantially deplete both the annual total water yield and the base flow in the dry season. Some estimates suggest that an establishment of 6 ha of timber in South Africa would reduce the run-off by an equivalent amount of water required for 1ha of irrigated wheat (Le Roux, 1990).

Pine plantations consume more water than indigenous trees, as their evaporation rate is higher, resulting in a reduced stream flow. If these trees are planted in the catchment areas on a large scale, they have a major impact on the stream flow reduction. Unfortunately, owing to their high water-dependence, most plantations in South Africa were established in the escarpment areas of the country, which are also the water catchments of major rivers, particularly in the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Mpumalanga provinces. As a result, commercial forestry is classified as the major stream flow-reducing activity by the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry. Besides stream flow reduction, the plantations also contribute to lowering of the water table. Finally, this may be translated into declining timber yields, as successive rotations of eucalyptus and pines deplete the reserves of groundwater (Schonau & Grey, 1987). Downstream agriculture is also adversely affected. In KwaZulu-Natal, for instance, communities are experiencing severe water shortages as a result of such practices, and rain-dependent agriculture has been further marginalized as the water table has dropped. In addition, the very high use of pesticides and fertilizers in commercial forestry reduces the quality of water for downstream users.

2.3. Increasing land degradation

Commercial forestry contributes to the process of land degradation in two major ways: first, the use of pesticides causes soil pollution; and, second, the use of heavy machinery leads to soil compaction and to subsequent soil-erosion problems. Commercial forests necessitate the heavy use of pesticides and fertilizers. There are environmental dangers associated with these chemicals drifting into the air or dissolving in rainwater, which can in turn seriously affect the water quality, and hence the health of downstream communities' agriculture. Over and above the monetary expense of repeated fertilization, it also bears a biological risk, in that nitrogen and phosphorous in fertilizers attract harmful insects (Mueller-Dombois, 1992). Such insect infestation on eucalyptus plantations has resulted in a high death rate of species in Australia. The success stories pertaining to eucalyptus in South Africa can be attributed to the absence of insect pests; however, this continued absence is by no means guaranteed. Once trees are infested, insect control will ultimately exacerbate the costs of maintaining eucalyptus plantations in South Africa (Mueller-Dombois, 1992). The other aspect of land degradation is soil compaction and erosion (Brink, 1990; Armstrong & Van Hensbergen, 1996) and increased mechanization in the industry adds to the problem.

The compaction involves a closer rearrangement of the soil particles, thereby increasing the bulk density. Compaction has been associated with the weight of the machinery used in the industry; however, it has been shown to be rather a combination of the pressure on the soil from the tyres or track of the vehicle and the axle load (Whittal, 1991). Other important influencing factors include the type of machinery employed, the number of passes, vibration levels, the frequency of harvesting and the stationary time (Brink, 1990). Research conducted by the Institute for Commercial Forestry Research ICFR in South Africa has indicated that soil compaction on sensitive sites has several damaging consequences. The negative effects of compaction include: the inhibition of root development, thereby reducing the volume of soil penetrated by roots for the

uptake of nutrients and water; poor root pattern development; inadequate water infiltration and permeability, which in turn limits the availability of water to the plant, and increases soil erosion through higher runoff; poor aeration, resulting in a reduction in oxygen diffusion; a reduction in the availability of soil moisture; higher root penetration resistance; and erosion of valuable top soil (Whittal, 1991).

South Africa has a vast forestry history, where state forest has been sustained in pre-1994. During this period forestry was like most other businesses covertly operated and this act was supported by the apartheid regime policies. South Africa has always been a country highly contested exogenously and endogenously. Post 1994 South Africa rose to democracy whereby enormous legislative amendments and augmentation had to be effected to redress the inequality of the past (Bhullar, 2013). The forestry sector had to transform, and it is in this process where Sappi and SiyaQhubeka had to be included in the initiation of the sector charter. This chapter reflects on the holistic landscape of SiyaQhubeka and Sappi forestry. Commercial forests in the Northern Zululand area are vastly spread in a patterned formation (Cairns, 2000). This is a manifestation of an assemblage of organised corporate growers in the vicinity. It is only the forest engineers, and scientists who have the ability to differentiate the original species and the cloned species of the trees; whether they belong to SiyaQhubeka Forests or Sappi Forests. Sappi and SiyaQhubeka Forests are the predominant commercial forest entities in the area (Cairns, 2000). All their trees are grown intertwined in a variety of land pockets, mostly in the Northern belt of Zululand, not far from the Northern coastal strip.

This forest coverage places the neighbouring community as beneficiaries in better positions for employment, skills development and knowledge based opportunities in commercial Forestry, indigenous forests and many other forest related programmes (Fowler et al, 2011; Greig-Fran, 2008). KwaZulu-Natal leads in the Forestry and paper sector in the whole of South Africa. The

forest-product export sector nationally is made up of paper (45, 2%), solid wood (23.3%) and pulp (28.9%). The sector employs an estimated 462 000 people with some two million dependents. Pulp and paper made up 12% of KwaZulu-Natal's exports in 2009. Mondi and Sappi are both large international companies and both have historic, and deep seated ties with KwaZulu-Natal. High concentration of commercial forests is found in five regions: Northern KwaZulu-Natal, Midlands, Southern KwaZulu-Natal, Zululand and Maputaland. An estimated half a million hectares, 38.5% of the land in the province, is allocated to timber plantations (Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, 2011). In 2006, a total of about R4.5 billion was allocated to salaries and wages. The majority of the jobs created are in rural and remote areas where unemployment is extremely high and other forms of employment opportunities are scarce. An estimated 870 000 people, including family dependants, depend on the sector for their livelihood. The majority of South Africa's rural and poverty-stricken population makes serious use of forest products from woodlands and plantations for everyday consumption and small-scale business (Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, 2011). Firewood, building poles, medicinal plants and edible fruits are essential to livelihoods of the impoverished and provide a safety net to the most vulnerable families. The major obstacle to growth and sustainable equity in the Forest Sector is the scarcity in round wood supply, which is not aligned with the increase in local demand for forest products (Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, 2011).

According to Forestry South Africa, if this problem is not addressed immediately, growth and employment prospects and opportunities for transformation in the Forest Sector will be seriously dwarfed. Sappi is a forest company operating in Zululand (Northern KwaZulu-Natal coastline), it has an office in Kwambonambi, and has its head office in Pietermaritzburg Natal Midlands in Cascades (Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, 2011).

The main species grown on the company's plantations in Northern KwaZulu-Natal are eucalypts. The Sappi operations vary from nursery, silviculture, manual harvesting and mechanical harvesting. Sappi has outsourced the operations to contractors (through a tender bidding process), and who are mostly from the area (Jacoville, 2014; Bhullar, 2013; Fowler et al, 2011; Junkin, 2007). The contract period varies from three to five years. Contractors are also encouraged to employ people from the local communities. Apart from contracting work, Sappi initiated a Project Grow programme as a form of increasing participation and creating room for more people keen on Forestry (Jacoville, 2014; Bhullar, 2013; Fowler et al, 2011; Junkin, 2007). Project Grow started in 1983, a tree farming scheme, that is initially focused on supporting subsistence farmers in South Africa who had access to one or two hectares of land on which to grow trees.

In the years leading up to celebrating its 30th anniversary in 2013, Project Grow increased vastly to include community Forestry projects and Forestry projects handed to land reform beneficiaries (Jacoville, 2014; Bhullar, 2013; Fowler et al, 2011; Junkin, 2007). Project Grow forms the bases of the company's corporate social responsibility, and enterprise development focus. The Projects Grow initiative started in KwaZulu-Natal, covering the area from Manguzi, near Kosi Bay in the north, to Port Edward and inland as far as Ixopo and Nongoma. Communities make their land available for planting eucalyptus trees (Jacoville, 2014; Bhullar, 2013; Fowler et al, 2011; Junkin, 2007). Growers are provided with sponsored seedlings (grown by Sappi nurseries for the realisation that the growers plant only the quality available genetic material), as an interest free loan, and technical advice. A guarantee of a future market is also provided to the grower. Growers are individuals (who come from communities and hence are representatives of the community), the entire community is part of the project and embarks in Forestry. This intervention leads to the community being highly involved in forestry (Khosa, 2000; Mahonge, 2009; Mayers & Vermeulen, 2002). Some social institutions like schools, churches and co-operatives have joined the scheme; in these instances the proceeds go to the institution and all the members benefit.

SiyaQhubeka Forests' (SQF) plantations are located on the east coast of KwaZulu-Natal. The topography varies from gently undulating slopes of the Zululand coastal plains in the north to slightly steeper slopes in the south (Khosa, 2000; Mahonge, 2009; Mayers & Vermeulen, 2002). In October 2001, SAFCOL – (South African Forestry Company Limited) privatised its KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) commercial plantations. The successful bidder, SiyaQhubeka Consortium (comprising Mondi Ltd and Imbokodvo Lemabalabala Holdings), obtained the landholdings in an empowerment transaction valued at R100 million. Imbokodvo Lemabalabala became the first Black empowerment company, rather than a community trust, to obtain shares in a lucrative and significant Forestry enterprise in South Africa (Khosa, 2000; Mahonge, 2009; Mayers & Vermeulen, 2002). The St Lucia plantation is adjacent to the iSimangaliso Wetland Park Authority, a registered World Heritage Site and one of South Africa's historic game reserves. In recent years, SQF has played a pivotal and responsible role in growing the size of the park to include sizeable portion of its plantations, allowing for a better management and freer mobility of animals.

This represents an enormous association between the forestry sector and a high priority conservation area. SQF currently employs 85 permanent employees and outsources most of its plantation activities such as silviculture, harvesting and transport to local businesses which in turn collectively employ over 1,406 people (Khosa, 2000; Mahonge, 2009; Mayers & Vermeulen, 2002).

Ten of these contractors are black empowered and in total employ 283 people (Mondi Case Study). SiyaQhubeka Forests has a sequential connection of three plantations (St Lucia, KwaMbonambi and Port Durnford) along the N2 north bound road. These plantations comprise 22,500 plantable hectares, and stretch from Nyalazi in the north, to Port Dunford in the south. The St Lucia plantation borders largely on the Greater Simangaliso Wetland Park, a registered World Heritage Site and one of South Africa's oldest game reserves. The land under SiyaQhubeka commercial

forest is currently rented from government, through the Department of Forestry and Fisheries. The three estates are planted to gum and pine (SiyaQhubeka Forests Socio-Economic Assessment Report: 2005). Most of the area settlements are located in areas under the control of Traditional Authorities and they are:

- i. Mpukunyoni-Mkhwanazi Tribal Authority
- ii. Mbonambi Tribal Authority
- iii. Sokhulu Tribal Authority
- iv. Mkhwanazi Tribal Authority
- v. Zungu- Madlebe tribal Authority
- vi. Dube Tribal Authority



Figure 1.1: Aerial Photograph of Sappi Forests

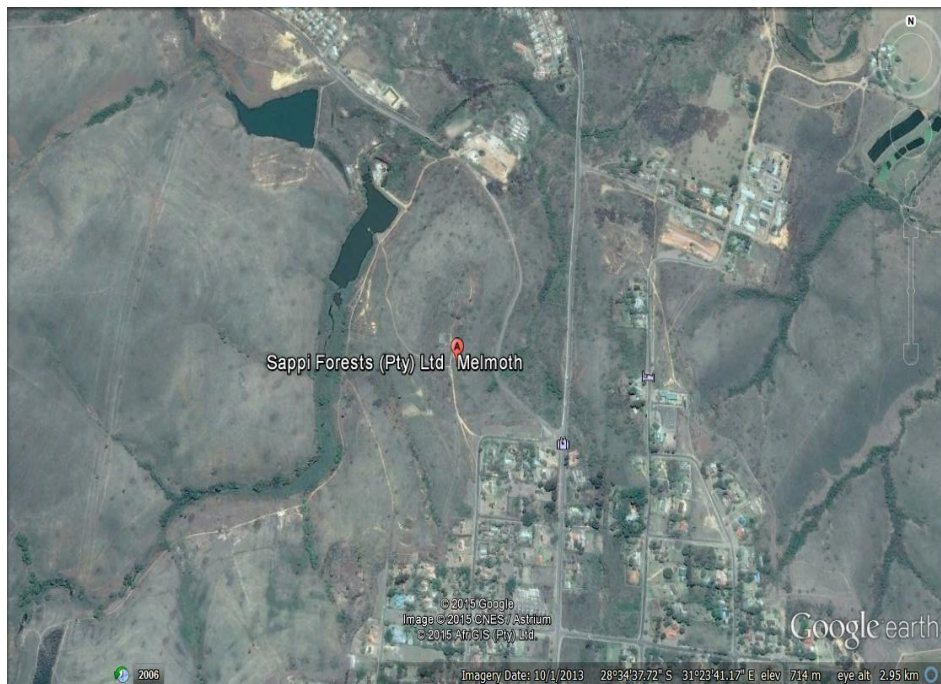


Figure 2.2: Aerial Photograph of Sappi Forests in Melmoth



Figure 2.3: Aerial photograph of SiyaQhubeka Forests



Figure 2.4: Aerial photograph of SiyaQhubeka Forests



Figure 2.5: 'Blanket' of Commercial Forest on a hill

The Forest sector has been dominated by White males for a long time, in this regard gender roles have been in a grey area, and this has had an effect on transformation. The main aim of this chapter is to assess the current nature of gender roles within the forest sector, with specific reference to

SiyaQhubeka forest, and Sappi in Northern KwaZulu-Natal. SiyaQhubeka Forest carries a profound history, and is one of the better examples to describe the economic, transformation and industrial sociological phenomena. We conducted our research with SiyaQhubeka managers, foresters, general employees and Forestry contractors (silviculture, harvesting, health and safety, and fire fighting). The methodological approach underpinning the study was semi-structured interviews and questionnaires. The study revealed that though certain tools are in place, for example, the Forest Charter, work still needs to be conducted with regards to the implementation of projects and programmes that will furnish a support structure for the total emancipation of women. The study will add value to SiyaQhubeka Forest management to reinvent their programmes in order to accommodate or balance the women to men ratio in the sector. This chapter presents an overview on the profile of the Forest Sector. It sheds light on the establishment of SiyaQhubeka Forest and Sappi, the role they carry in the daily activities in their various business fields and whether they are currently fulfilling the objectives stipulated in their empowerment transaction.

A legislative framework, a theoretical framework and relevant literature will also be presented to show alignment and support to the topic. According to a Companion to the Draft Forest Sector Transformation Charter (2007) the Forest Sector makes a major contribution to the South African economy. The commercial forest resource of some 1.33 million hectares forms the basis for a well-developed, highly integrated and diversified forest products industry in South Africa. The fibre sub-sector is dominated by a small number of large, corporate growers that are involved in the capital-intensive pulp, paper and composite board industries Companion to the Draft Forest Sector Transformation Charter (2007). These industries are formulated by their backward linkages into plantation Forestry, motivated by the need to secure reliable roundwood supply. These, together with a small number involved in saw milling, own 58.8% of the plantation forest source. A large number of medium and emerging entities are located in the sub-sectors of growers, Forestry contractors, sawmilling, pole treatment, charcoal manufacturing and paper processing Companion

to the Draft Forest Sector Transformation Charter (2007). The Contribution of the Sector to GDP for 2006 was about R140.0 billion. This equates to about a 1% contribution to the total Republic of South Africa's GDP. The Forest products industry rates amongst the top exporting industries in South Africa. On average over the past few years, sector exports amounted to R11.0 billion per year, which after deduction of imports of forest products of R40 billion gave a net foreign exchange earning to the country of R7.0 billion per annum (Companion to the Draft Forest Sector Transformation Charter 2007).

The Forest Sector contributed 15.6% of the country's trade balance. The Forest Sector generates employment for more than 170 000 workers, of whom 63% are in commercial Forestry, which includes the sub-sectors of growers and Forestry contractors. Total remuneration amounted to R4.6 billion in 2006. Most of the jobs created are in rural and remote areas where the rate of unemployment is high and alternative employment opportunities are scarce. Including family members and their dependants, an approximation of 870 000 people rely on the Sector for their livelihood (Seidman, 2005; Winker & Marquard, 2011). Most of South Africa's rural poor make extensive use of forest products from woodlands and plantations for daily consumption and small-scale business. Firewood, building poles, medicinal plants and edible fruits are critical to livelihoods of the impoverished and provide a safety net to the most vulnerable families (Seidman, 2005; Winker & Marquard, 2011). The major challenge to growth and sustainable equity in the Forest Sector is the shortage in round wood supply, which is not keeping with the increase in the local demand for forest products. If this challenge is not addressed, growth and employment prospects and opportunities for transformation in the Forest Sector will be seriously constrained (Seidman, 2005; Winker & Marquard, 2011). In October 2001, SAFCOL – (South African Forestry Company Limited) privatised its KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) commercial Forestry assets. The successful bidder, SiyaQhubeka Consortium (comprising Mondi Ltd and Imbokodvo Lemabalabala Holdings), acquired the landholdings in an empowerment transaction valued at R100 million.

Imbokodvo Lemabalabala was the first Black empowerment company, other than a community trust, to obtain shares in a significant Forestry enterprise in South Africa. The St Lucia plantation borders the iSimangaliso Wetland Park Authority, a registered World Heritage Site and one of South Africa's oldest and renowned game reserves. In recent years, SQF has played a principal role in growing the size of the Park to include sizeable portions of its plantations, allowing for a better management and freer mobility of animals (Spadaverchia, 2007; Van Dijk & Herman, 2009; Mahonge, 2009; Seidman, 2005). This represents an extraordinary association between the Forestry sector and a high priority conservation area. SQF currently employs 85 permanent employees and outsources a larger portion of its plantation activities such as silviculture, harvesting and transport to local enterprises which in turn collectively employ over 1,406 people. Ten of these contractors are black empowered and jointly employ 283 people (Mondi Case Study). SQF strives to encourage small and medium enterprises' development in the Zululand region (Spadaverchia, 2007; Van Dijk & Herman, 2009; Mahonge, 2009; Seidman, 2005).

Forestry identified and implemented small business initiatives with a plan to creating jobs, alleviating hunger and encouraging the sustainable use of natural resources. A project where people from the local community of Port Durnford, under the kingship of Inkosi Mkhwanazi, collect wood from the harvested plantation to be sold as firewood and as fencing and building material. This activity is conducted under controlled supervision whereby the wood collectors should acquire permission from the plantation area office prior to entering the plantation. This is done in order to protect the plantation from being vandalised and thus disturbing the required growth of the trees and quality of the soil. Bee Farming is a joint venture with Economic Development and Tourism to institute a bee farming and honey production project at the Port Durnford plantation.

The project, involving 20 trained participants from the neighbouring Mkhwanazi community, comprises of four apiary or beehive sites, 200 hives (of which 30 are swarmed) and over 100 catch

boxes. SQF, with the help of local community leaders, identified 15 unemployed youth from the neighbouring Mkhwanazi community and established a block and brick-making project. The project is registered as a close corporation and employs a further 10 young people. As cash flows are important to the sustainability of small businesses, SQF has implemented a policy of providing early payment terms for targeted contractors.

The Forest sector is a business oriented industry. Corporate growers like Sappi and SiyaQhubeka Forest operate internationally and have outsourced most of their forest operations, like nurseries, silviculture, harvesting and hauling. This segment of operation needs entrepreneurs who would be awarded contracts ranging from three to five years and run their business ventures under the umbrella of the aforementioned corporate growers. The corporate grower ensures that they select contractors or entrepreneurs that would generate good revenue and become “catalyst for its economic activity” as pointed out by Nieman et al. (2003). Nieman et al. 2003: 327) further state that in the South African economy, entrepreneurs are seen as the principal creators and champions of new businesses and, therefore, they are clearly distinguished as economic actors. Due to slow economic growth, high unemployment and an unsatisfactory level of poverty in South Africa, entrepreneurship becomes a critical solution. People have taken a bold move towards either choosing entrepreneurship as their career path or circumstances will force them to create their own employment, even women and youth are exploring this phenomenon. Forest plantations are commonly found in rural areas and are mostly surrounded by neighbouring communities (Spadaverchia, 2007; Van Dijk & Herman, 2009; Mahonge, 2009; Seidman, 2005).

Historically, forestry has been a tradition to most of these communities and it is very common that people are acquainted to working in forest plantations as they used to own a few hectares of plantation for their survival (Kaplan et al, 1995; Gasama, 1993; Brink, 1990). Due to severe economic situations, most people struggled to maintain their forest plantation and opted for either

employment or ventured into alternative survival, like being employed either directly by the corporate grower or the entrepreneur who is contracting to the corporate grower. Some people in the community, albeit they are not well educated, are mentally strong, have the entrepreneurship mentality, have persevered as forest entrepreneurs (Spadaverccchia, 2007; Van Dijk & Herman, 2009; Mahonge, 2009; Seidman, 2005). This process of penetrating the industry as an entrepreneur has been created by the amended laws of South Africa, as stipulated in the B-BBEE Act and corporate growers have been forced to comply by outsourcing work to the people from the neighbouring communities or to people who have been working for the corporate grower (Cele 2010). On the issue of women as indicated by Nieman, G et al, women are not as visible in entrepreneurial and management levels, but are more visible as employees either planting or debarking gum species using very sharp hatchets (Cele 2010). According to Nieman et al. (2003:34), traditionally, a woman's role has been that of mother and wife, but the economic role of women has emerged in South Africa. Women were always seen to be in the kitchen; nowadays they are represented in large numbers in boardrooms.

Women entrepreneurs seem to be the most disadvantaged group because until recently they could not spear-head or champion a business activity without taking their husband or a male counterpart along. Albeit, the woman entrepreneur has made her mark in the self-employment sector, one cannot help but to ask how a woman can be a successful entrepreneur if she is overworked in the home, not educated, unskilled and untrained, or unexposed to markets, or cut off from financial resources, or just generally discriminated against in a male-dominated society. Goffee & Scase (1985:24) designed a typology that distinguishes women entrepreneurs on the basis either two principles attachment to entrepreneurial ideas which indicates the presence of entrepreneurial attitudes, as originally defined by McClelland (1961), such as achievement motivation, independence, risk-taking propensity, self-esteem and the internal locus of control. Acceptance of traditional gender roles denotes the extent to which women conform to culturally presumed roles.

Establishing and operating a business involves profound and immeasurable risks and effort for entrepreneurs, particularly in view of the high failure rate. Probably the risk is even bigger for the woman entrepreneur, who not only has to contend with the challenges associated with operating in a traditionally male-dominated area, but due to the lack of education and training in this specific field. Although both men and women face difficulties in establishing an enterprise, women experience specific obstacles. Among these obstacles are minimal access to financial resources, limited support, negative prevailing socio-cultural attitudes, gender discrimination or bias and personal difficulties. Women usually suffer from low creditability when dealing with the various stakeholders associated with their entity, such as suppliers, contractors, bankers or customers.

In a study conducted in South Africa, Allie & Human (1997:8) found that although 72 per cent of micro-enterprises were owned by women, both internal and external obstacles impacted on the success of these businesses. These obstacles ranged from basic life skills of women entrepreneurs (self-confidence), assertiveness, self-motivation, achievement orientation, reliability and communication skills, to the virtual absence of mentorship opportunities and marketing and basic holistic management training (Allie & Human 1997:8). The aforesaid tends to be based on preconceived thinking, in that women are human beings; they not only lack strong, statutory policies, but holistic societal support with a well-positioned attitude. Women are naturally strong and multi-skilled, and thus can impart these traits in the workplace environment as managers or as entrepreneurs.

Sappi managers, like Duanne Roothman, have worked with women entrepreneurs in the Forest industry, in a manual harvesting operation and have managed in the midst of their positions as operations managers to give full mentorship support. This kind of support manifested in allowing these women to achieve and even exceed their monthly and annual targets. As a male or female entrepreneur or manager, it is upon you to look for an experienced person to become a mentor

(Cele, 2010). Ntsika Enterprise Promotion Agency held some workshops for women entrepreneurs where problems or barriers facing women were highlighted. Some of these barriers were the following. There is a shortage of networking for women within specific industry. Women entrepreneurs are short of start-up funds. Banks/financial institutions readily criticise women's business plans without providing assistance, directions or guidance. Exposure to the media is very exorbitant. No existence of a database of women entrepreneurs by sector is available. There is repetition and duplication of too many craft centres or groups in an area. Programmes offered by training institutions focus on training the traditional manager and not the entrepreneur (Spadaverchia, 2007; Van Dijk & Herman, 2009; Mahonge, 2009; Seidman, 2005).

2.4. Comparison between male and female entrepreneurs in South Africa

Nieman et al. (2006), affirms that it is of essence to draw a comparison between male and female entrepreneurs to highlight the most important differences between them. Male Entrepreneurs have set the base in the business environment for women entrepreneurs to follow. Latecomers to the entrepreneurial game-there are women who are unaware of the fact that they can conduct business activities on their own. Types of business started. Manufacturing or construction Service related – example includes coffee shops, hair and beauty salons, guest houses and even a business that teaches women to repair their own cars. Relationship Building Shorter –term oriented. Male entrepreneur looks for the best way to get the job or deal done. Women tend to build strong relationships with service providers, especially lenders such as finance institutions. Access to finance can be an obstacle if the male entrepreneur does not have adequate collateral. This is seen as women entrepreneurs' most severe obstacle as well as discrimination when applying for finance. They must take their husband or a male member of the family along to the bank when applying for financial assistance.

When you meet a human being, the first distinction you make is “male or female?” and you are accustomed to make the distinction with unhesitating certainty. – Sigmund Freud. Writers in the popular press have shown an enduring interest in the topic of gender and leadership, reporting stark and meaningful differences between women and men. These differences turned from a view of women as inferior to men (e.g., some posited that women lacked skills and traits necessary for managerial success). Scholars started out by asking, “Can women lead? But that is now a moot question. In addition to the increasing presence of women in corporate and political leadership roles, we can point to highly effective female leader in a variety of domains, including former United Kingdom Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher, former Indian Prime Minister Indira Gandhi, President Veronica Michelle Bachalet of Chile, Pepsi Company’s Chief Executive Officer Indra Nooyi, Avon’s Chief Executive Officer Andrea Jung, United States’ Speaker of the House Nancy Pelosi, Four-Star General Ann E. Dunwoody, founder of Teach for America, Wendy Kopp and many more . The primary research questions now are, “Are there leadership style and effectiveness differences between women and men?” which is often subsumed under a larger question: Why are women underrepresented in elite leadership roles?” This portion explores empirical evidence related to these issues of gender and leadership by first examining style and effectiveness differences between men and women, and then discussing, the gender gap in leadership and prominent explanations for it, and finally, addressing approaches to promoting women in leadership (Hoyt, C.L, 2011).

In support of the aforementioned summation, which puts greater emphasis on the perception that differences exists between women and men in relation to the manner in which they lead; women have always been placed under scrutiny in terms of their skills, traits and overall leadership style. This perception further undermines the factual evidence of women in the world who currently hold senior positions in both public and private domains. More women are occupying positions of leadership, and certain questions have garnered much attention such as whether they lead in a

different manner from men and whether women or men are more effective as leaders. Increasingly, writers in the mainstream press are asserting that there are indeed gender differences in leadership styles, and that women's leadership is more effective in contemporary society (Book, 2000; Helgesen, 1990; Rosener, 1995; Northouse, 2011).

In a meta-analysis, Eagly and Johnson (1990) found that, contrary to stereotypic expectation, women were not found to lead in a more interpersonally oriented and less task-oriented manner than men in organizational studies. These differences were found only in settings where behaviour was more regulated by social roles, such as experimental settings. The only robust gender difference was that women led in a more democratic, or participative, manner than men. It is important to consider these results in conjunction with findings from a large-scale meta-analysis of the literature on evaluation of male and female leaders who were equated on all characteristics and leadership behaviours (Eagly, Makhajani, & Klonsky, 1992). These studies revealed that women were devalued compared with men when they led in a masculine manner (autocratic or directive; e.g., Bartol & Butterfield, 1976), when they occupied a typically masculine leadership role and when the evaluators were men. These findings not only point to the prejudice women experience in leadership positions, but also indicate that women's greater use of a more democratic style appears to be adaptive in that they are using the style that produces the most favourable evaluations. The perception reveals a correlation of gender versus traits, effectiveness and leadership style. Notwithstanding the fact that women whose leadership style is well accepted, women are still somehow devalued. Bartol & Butterfield's study reveals this phenomenon, more especially when a woman naturally displays masculine traits in her leadership style.

However, men then tend to be protective of their macho trait territory and this may lead to undervaluing women. This is also reflected on the pace and progress in accommodating women based on their individual strengths and capabilities, which is overwhelmingly slow. In Forestry,

skills development programmes, and entrepreneurship programmes exist, but the issue of allowing for a balanced integrated gender leadership in Forestry still remains a challenge. In addition to leadership style, the relative effectiveness of male and female leaders has been assessed in a number of studies (Jacobson and Effertz, 1974; Tsui & Gutek, 1984). In a meta-analysis comparing the effectiveness of female and male leaders, men and women were equally effective leaders, overall, but there were gender differences such that women and men were more effective in leadership roles that were congruent with their gender (Eagly, Karau, & Makhajini, 1995).

Thus, women were less effective to the extent that the leader role was masculinized. For example, women were less effective than men in military positions, but they were somewhat more effective than men were in education, government, and social service organizations, and substantially more effective than men were in middle management positions, where communal interpersonal skills are highly valued. In addition, women were less effective than men were when they supervised a higher proportion of male subordinates or when a greater proportion of male rates assessed the leaders' performance (Northouse, 2011:304). In sum, empirical research supports small differences in leadership style and effectiveness between men and women. Women experience slight effectiveness disadvantages in masculine leader roles, whereas roles that are more feminine offer them some advantages. Additionally, women exceed men in the use of democratic or participatory styles, and they are more likely to use transformational leadership behaviours and contingent reward; styles that are associated with contemporary notions of effective leadership. The researcher is of the opinion that these studies have yielded empirical evidence which tends to be prejudiced to women. Individualism should be highly embraced if a woman who qualifies for a position is to be awarded the position.

A woman who wishes to pursue entrepreneurship should be supported fully to achieve this goal. As mentioned earlier, men have a tendency to be over-protective of their masculine realm, and this has

been internalized across culture, religion and creed. A similar behaviour exists in Forestry whereby women in this field of work are directly or indirectly reminded that Forestry is a male domain. The preface on Lenin's emancipation of women is a classical perception that elucidates how women were treated in the work place, at home and in society as a whole. Lenin, in his course of revolutionary activities has had endless struggle in expressing the status quo of women and the working class as inseparable. The preface on Lenin's work should be surfaced even today, as it addresses the paramount cavity of history on women's struggles in the work place in South Africa. This chapter focuses on the emancipation of women within the forest sector and in order to have a better comprehension of why women are not emancipated; it is prudent to look at the impact of history in South Africa and other places. Freedom fighters have contributed a lot in the transformation of the country and the work place, in that today labour laws have been amended and thus a new legislative framework is in place. Nevertheless, this does not pronounce the total emancipation of women, as we still see and experience a tacit struggle in our society today. According to Krupskaya (1985:7), there is the existence of the closest connection between the entire struggle of the working class and improving the position of women. Lenin on more than one occasion, referred to this question in his speeches and articles. In support of the aforementioned, this resonates in the current industrial relations aspect, whereby there still exists continuous work place conflict through a manifestation of collective bargaining levels and collective bargaining that takes place.

Lenin strongly believed that the emancipation of women relied on women's participation in the revolutionary movement. Krupskaya (1985:8) argues that "only the victory of the working class would bring transformation and emancipation to women workers and peasants". Today Forestry still employs manual labour, as it is known for producing quality, rather than mechanical labour which expedites the production process, but does not produce preferred quality. In the case of SiyaQhubeka Forests (SQF), as mentioned earlier, SQF has its employees (which comprise of SQF

Business Unit manager, Health and Safety manager, Accountant, and various administrators, Foresters who monitor the three SQF plantations which are; Port Durnford, Mbonambi and Dukuduku/Nyalazi).

The SQF employees especially, the Foresters, work closely with the contractors. In juxtaposition to the aforesaid, women comprise a larger number of manual workers in Forestry. In the business of silviculture (tree establishment), women are mostly employed to plant, mark and pit, and perform herbicide control. In the business of manual harvesting, women are employed to strip the bark of gum species using very sharp hatchets. The daily task, which is averaged at thirty five (35) trees per person, is not an easy task to complete for the day, more especially when the strip-ability gets difficult in dry and cold seasons. Men work as chain-saw operators, cutting trees manually and log stackers who use tongs to grab and pull logs to form stacks in the plantation which are then hauled by tractors and loaded onto timber trucks and transported either to the rail trucks or direct to the mills to be processed.

2.5. Legislative Framework: Sector Transformation Charter

The Charter Steering Committee chaired by Ms Gugu Moloi, in 2007 produced a draft final Charter to the Forest Sector, this is the manifestation of more than two years of work by the Forest Sector Charter Steering Committee and its Working groups. This work was presented at the official launch of the Charter process by Minister Buyelwa Sonjica, previous Minister of Water Affairs and Forestry, at an Indaba, held in Midrand on 18 April 2005. It was in this event that stakeholder groups made a commitment to Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment in the Forest Sector, as the sector's input to the transformation of South Africa's socio-economic landscape. The preamble to the Sector Transformation Charter is very commanding in that it strongly commits the parties to the Charter to work together to ensure that the opportunities and benefits of the Forest

Sector are extended to Black South Africans historically excluded from meaningful participation in the Sector.

In so doing, the parties recognise that, The Sector is still largely White and male dominated and characterised by large inequalities, access to support, opportunities and benefits for Black people, especially Black women. Enhanced growth and success in the South African economy and the Forest Sector cannot be acknowledged and appreciated without meaningful participation of Black South Africans, including Black women, youth and the rural poor in economic life. The parties to the Charter have the ethical and constitutional responsibility to reverse the legacy of inequality in the sector, as well as an obligation to the shareholders and employees to support sustainable growth through transformation in the sector. The Forest Sector has explicit challenges that need to be addressed in a unified manner to ensure sustainable equity and growth in the sector.

2.6. The parties to the Forest Charter

The objectives of the Broad-based Black Economic empowerment; The standards of sustainable forest management, in particular, the principle of progression to the disadvantaged by unfair discrimination, contained in the National Forests Act No.84 of 1998 (NFA). The principles contained in other legislation aimed at addressing the imbalances brought about by the economic legacy of Apartheid. The standards contained in labour legislation aimed at protecting the rights of the forest workforce, and improving the wages and working conditions of those workers negatively impacted upon by outsourcing and casualization; an integrated strategy for transformation and growth in the Forest Sector based on the framework, targets and undertakings outlined in this Charter. The Charter proposes working through sound partnership initiatives involving industry, government, labour and communities for implementation. The Charter applies to all the following enterprises involved with commercial Forestry and first level processing of wood products. This

covers the following sub-sectors: Growers sub-sector (plantations, nurseries and indigenous forests), Contracting sub-sector (Forestry contractors in silviculture, harvesting, fire-fighting services and other Forestry contracting services that are not covered by their Sector Charters), Fibre sub-sector (pulp, paper, paperboard, timber board product, woodchip and wattle bark manufactures), Sawmilling sub-sector (industrial, structural and mining timber sawmills and match producers), Pole sub-sector (pole treatment plants), Charcoal sub-sector (charcoal producers), Non-timber forest product enterprises such as those involved in honey production, harvesting of mushrooms and medicinal plant, as well as Forestry based tourism initiatives are not directly covered by the Charter, as they are included in other sector charters.

However, because corporate growers license these activities, non-timber forest product enterprise will be impacted on and benefit from the agreements reached within the Forest Sector Charter. The main aim of the Charter is to promote and enhance Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment in and through the Forest Sector by commissioning to the following: Promoting investment programmes that lead to sustainable B-BBEE-driven growth and development of the Forest Sector; and meaningful participation of Black people in the entire Forestry value chain; accomplishing sustainable change in the racial and gender composition of ownership, management and control structures and in the skilled positions of existing and new forest entities. Enhancing the extent to which Black women and men, workers, cooperatives and other collective enterprises own and manage existing and new forest initiatives and increasing their access to economic participation in the Forest Sector. Further, to utilise the forest industry as a catalyst for empowering rural and local Black communities to access economic activities, land, infrastructure, ownership and skills.

Promoting sustainable employment and contracting methods in the Forest Sector; promoting access to finance for Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment in the Forest Sector; promoting equitable representation in industry structures and equitable access to Forestry support systems

and; providing a favourable environment for transparency, fairness and consistency when measuring and adjudicating on matters related to B-BBEE in the Forest Sector. B-BBEE is a programme that the Republic of South African government has put in place in the realization of greater participation of Black people in the economy, and to spread benefits of the economy more widely. This is of great importance to the growth and stability of our country, where the larger number of the population are still excluded from actively participating in the economy and there is widespread poverty and inequality. Government's B-B BEE strategy focuses primarily on transformation of the private sector, with the aim of reversing the arranged exclusion of Black people from full participation in the economy. B-BBEE is not about substituting White people with Black people, but rather about growing the overall size of the economy and ensuring that opportunities previously enjoyed by a minority are extended to the majority.

Whereas the earlier definition of Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) engrossed mainly on ownership and control of businesses by Black people, B-BBEE aims to extend economic opportunities to a much wider range of black people, including women, the youth, people with disabilities and those living in rural areas. It also seeks to promote strong entrepreneurship and build a dynamic skills base to ensure competitiveness. This is done through stimulating changes across all the following transformation indicators. The emphasis on all of these elements is to bring about widespread transformation of the economy and the private sector, in a way that benefits the majority of South Africans who were disadvantaged by centuries of discriminatory State policies and practices. The concept of B-B BEE is entrenched in the South African Constitution. The Bill of Rights makes provision for the B-B BEE. Section 9 (2) To promote the accomplishment of equality, legislative and other measures intended to protect or advance persons, or groups of persons, disadvantaged by unfair discrimination, may be taken. The Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act, no 53 of 2003. The act affords the legal basis for the B-BBEE plan. It includes: Definition of who the Black person is; Initiates the Minister of Trade and Industry to draft Codes of

Good practice on Black Economic Empowerment; Offers for gazetting of industry Charter and Sector Codes Strategy for Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment sketches the government's ten year BEE plan. Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Codes of Good Practice: the codes are also referred to as the Section 9 (1) Codes of Good Practice as they are formulated in terms of section 9 (1) of the B-BBEE Act; The codes explain in detail how B-BBEE is to be implemented and measured. The codes include the scorecard, known as the generic scorecard.

The generic scorecard applies to all entities except those in sectors that have developed their own Sector specific Codes. The Act allows for sectors to formulate their own transformation Charters. The draft Charter is then published in the Government Gazette for public comment. After a period of 60 days, the draft charter is revised and re-published as the final Charter for that Sector. A sector Transformation Charter that has been finalised and published in the Government Gazette is also known as the Sector code. A Sector Code is legally compulsory on all businesses in that sector, and places the generic codes for that particular sector. The objective here is to introduce each of the elements of the scorecard, outline sector targets, and provide information and practical advice about how to implement BEE. The emphasis throughout is on ways to increase enterprise productivity and growth, and promote equity, rather than on compliance with the scorecard. The elements of the forest scorecard are as follows: The Forest Sector has made a commitment to a target of 30% Black ownership by 2019. It is expected that this target will be met by a combination of sale of shares in existing businesses, transfer of state owned plantations and promotion of new Black owned enterprises. SiyaQhubeka Forests (Pty) Ltd (SQF) is one of the prominent examples. In October 2001, SAFCOL privatised its KwaZulu-Natal commercial Forestry assets. The successful bidder, SiyaQhubeka Consortium (comprising Mondi Ltd and Imbokodvo Lemabalabala Holdings), acquired the land assets in an empowerment deal valued at R100 million. Imbokodvo Lemabalabala (which means a grinding stone of many colours), was the first Black Empowerment business entity, other than a community trust, to obtain shares in a significant Forestry enterprise in

South Africa. The Sector scorecard sets a target of 25% Black ownership in existing and new business. Additional points can be scored for exceeding this target, and for including women, and broad-based ownership groups in the ownership transaction. This does not mean that all qualifying business must sell a 25% share in their business. Sellers and buyers should be guided by business principles. Not all businesses are profitable and can generate good returns for shareholders. Certain businesses, such as those that are family owned, may not be well suited to bringing in new owners. Placing emphasis on other elements of the scorecard may be a more effective BEE approach for some businesses, and can still result in a good BEE rating.

2.7. Socio-economic development priorities for the Forest Sector.

This element measures involvement of Black people in the management of the business, and the aim is to encourage business owners to employ Black people in management positions or promote their existing staff into these positions. Management control is measured separately from ownership to encourage both; shareholders who are also in management will score points for both elements, but it is not necessary for all managers to be shareholders or for all shareholders to be involved in management. The important thing is to make an appointment that benefits the business and help it to grow. Appointing Black people into management, just to score points without them playing a meaningful role, is a form of fronting and does not qualify for points. Most small and medium sized businesses have very few management positions, and the turnover in these positions is low.

Such businesses need to have a long term plan in place and begin immediately grooming Black people in middle management for senior management positions. If a post becomes vacant and a suitable Black candidate is not available, it may be a while before the opportunity to appoint a Black person to management comes around again. The training and mentorship provided to

managers will also earn the business additional points under the Skills Development element. The scorecard encourages equal participation of Black women in management. A small business with a single owner-manager may not be able to afford a second management position, especially not at the going rates for Black executives in corporate positions. Owner-manager enterprises may be unwilling to sell shares and/or hand over control of their business. In such cases, rather than “window dressing”, it is better to pay attention to other elements in the scorecard. The alternative is to seek opportunities that would lead to the growth of your business, through bringing in strategic expertise or contacts that are lacking, or through merging with a suitable Black owned business. The element targets to promote the employment of Black people throughout an enterprise or business. It is a requirement that all businesses with 50 or more employees, as stipulated in the Employment Equity Act, prepare employment equity plans and reports. The scorecard for medium and large scale enterprises measures the percentage of Black people at professional and management categories only, whereas QSE (Qualifying Small Enterprises) employment equity targets comprise all Black people by business.

Promoting employment equity is not only a legal requirement, but is also a good way to ensure business competitiveness and to ensure a supply of future senior Black managers and shareholders. Businesses wanting to improve their employment equity profile can do a number of things. When making new appointments, preferences should be given to Black applicants, both men and women. Employment equity can also be promoted by putting a training and promotion policy in place to enable a flow of Black staff up through the ranks of the business. It is a good idea to link employment equity plans with skills development plans, capitalizing in developing skills of Black people to occupy job categories where they are presently under-represented. For medium to large enterprises, take note that employing a huge number of unskilled Black workers is not going to earn any Employment Equity points. Skills Development lies at the core of B-BBEE and is fundamental to achieving targets set for most of the other elements of the score card. It is also very

important for the growth and transformation of the economy as a whole, given the severe skills shortage in South Africa. Investment in training will also improve the competitiveness of a business and have spin offs for increased staff morale and loyalty.

The Forest Sector has made a commitment to develop and implement a skills development strategy and plan for the sector. The Sector Charter sets a target of an additional 3% of payroll to be spent by businesses on training for their Black employees, over and above the existing 1% statutory levy. These additional funds are to be managed directly by businesses, and do not flow through government as does the statutory skills development levy. It is advisable for business to prepare a single training programme that covers both the 1% skills development levy funds and the additional 3%. When planning training using the additional 3%, the rules concerning allowable spend, direct and indirect expenses must be taken into account. Good records of expenditure must be kept for verification purposes, as well as training schedules and attendance registers. For assistance with planning, managing or running of training, businesses can contact their SETA, or local training providers. Training providers are often willing to support employers to develop a skills plan free of charge, as they can then claim back business skills development levy funds from the SETSA for the training courses they provide. A list of accredited training providers can be acquired from the Forestry SETA – FIETA. According to changes recently announced, the FIETA may be amalgamated with other SETAs to become Agriculture, Foodbev and Forestry SETA. In addition, the Forestry sub-sector has launched a combined training programme mainly targeting Forestry contractors, known as the Contractors Capacity Development Program (CCDP). CCDP is being implemented by the South African Forestry Association (SAFCA). The programme assists Forestry contracting businesses with planning, implementation and management of employee training programmes. The following services are available: preparation of training needs assessments and training plans; planning, arranging and monitoring of training courses provided by accredited training providers and; training administration including records to verify expenditure

on training provision for BEE verification. At present, the CCDP is being used mainly by Forestry contractors working for big corporate growers. The programme is, however, open to any grower or Forestry. The preferential procurement element of the scorecard is to encourage businesses to source their suppliers from Black owned businesses and businesses that are BEE compliant, and thereby support these businesses. The scorecard measures the extent to which a business is sourcing goods and services from suppliers with a relevant BEE rating. Businesses that buy from suppliers with a high BEE rating score more for preferential procurement. The scorecard also portrays BEE status which is linked to points scored on the scorecard.

The more a business scores, the more an overall BEE rating will increase. This sets a good trend for business, as customers and clients need to source from suppliers and service providers with a high rating in order to score points under preferential procurement themselves. Preferential procurement points provide an incentive for businesses to source from Black owned companies, or other suppliers that have a high BEE rating. This element also provides better opportunities for new suppliers to compete favourably with established suppliers that are not owned by Black people, or that have a low BEE ranking. Businesses wanting to improve their procurement practices should start by analysing their procurement expenditure. Suppliers with a low BEE procurement spend in relation to total spend, can be easily identified. These suppliers can be targeted, and assisted to improve their BEE status, or placed with new suppliers with higher BEE contributor status. The scorecard encourages businesses to develop emerging enterprises that could become their suppliers in future. Money spent on procuring from these businesses counts for more (the procurement spend is multiplied by 1.25). At the same time funds spent on developing these new suppliers counts towards points under enterprise development on the scorecard.

This scorecard aims to promote new Black-owned enterprises. This is an important means to achieving growth and equality in the forest sector. The key beneficiaries of enterprise development

are small and medium enterprises which are owned and controlled by Black people. The scorecard encourages businesses to make contributions (financial and non-financial, recoverable and non-recoverable) towards the development of beneficiary enterprise, in order to support their “development, sustainability and ultimate financial and operational independence”. There is extra incentive to support businesses owned by Black women and Black people from rural communities. Points are scored in accordance to the target spend of 3% of net profit after tax. If a business has not made a profit the previous year, or on average over the last 5 years, or if the profit margin is less than a quarter of the norm in the industry, then a different target applies. The Forest Sector scorecard gives bonus points to growers and saw-millers who sell logs and saw timber to BEE compliant and Black owned enterprises. This is because the shortage of saw logs and timber in the country threatens small and medium timber processing enterprises, most of which do not have access to timber from their own plantations or long-term timber supply agreements. Where no sales are captured for that year, business entities cannot be measured using the indicators that apply to other forest enterprises.

As with other elements of the scorecard, the best way to go about enterprise development is to think creatively and seek opportunities for win-win partnerships, rather than focus on compliance. Both parties should be on the lookout for such opportunities, and be proactive in engaging with potential partners. To identify opportunities for enterprise growth, a useful guide is to think of business opportunities that arise from the input and output streams of a business. Checking for goods and services required, and looking for new suppliers also counts towards a businesses’ preferential procurement score. Services currently provided in house could be outsourced.

Caution should, however, be exercised in outsourcing; the motivation should be to create a sustainable and independent business and not to cut costs to the company. There may also be opportunities for enterprise development making use of products and by-products of an established

business. There are three broad ways that established businesses can assist emerging Black owned enterprises: provision of capital; operational support through sharing of expertise; and sustaining cash flow through regular procurement. Emerging Black businesses offer an expanded pool of suppliers and/or customers, as well as potential employees, managers and shareholders. They may also offer access to new markets and business opportunities. There are many opportunities and ways to structure deals. Established companies may invest in majority Black owned businesses, providing capital and expertise in exchange for minority shares.

They can also choose to provide non-recoverable contributions that will benefit them in other ways and count for more on their scorecard. Emerging Black-owned businesses can seek financial and/or technical and managerial support from established businesses, in exchange for a supply agreement. The purpose of the scorecard is to encourage such deals, and provide an extra incentive for established businesses to enter into supportive partnerships with emerging enterprises. It is essential to bear in mind the underlying purpose of this element, which is to develop sustainable new enterprises. The quality and effectiveness of the support should be of a high standard, drawing on best practice and lessons learned nationally and internationally. It may be advisable to seek specialist assistance, or, if the site of the contributing business warrants it, set up a specialised unit. Alternatively, businesses can contribute to an enterprise development fund or provide financial or other support to third parties to carry out developmental activities on their behalf. This element of the scorecard measures the contribution towards social investment programmes. This element is precisely intended to support poor and uneducated Black people to access the mainstream economy. It covers corporate social investment type programmes and initiatives. Contributions can be made to, or sought by, appropriate beneficiaries, and these contributions may be in cash or in kind. Unlike enterprise development, they must be grants. Loans do not qualify under socio-economic development. The target set by the Sector scorecard is an expenditure of 1% of NPAT on socio-economic development programmes.

This can amount to a considerable sum of money and the challenge is having the capacity to spend the funds effectively. There are two basic approaches that can be taken: an in-house social programme or making contributions to programmes implemented by other parties such as government, the private sector or NGOs. The Forest Sector, through the Charter, has made a commitment to the provision of services and social facilities to the rural poor, such as housing provision for workers and their families, support for health and HIV/ AIDS programmes, provision of community education facilities, community training in fire prevention and resource management, and support with rural road maintenance that has an economic benefit. Forestry enterprises have a prospect to support socio-economic development by providing local communities with access to forest products such as firewood, building poles, medicinal plants and edible fruits. Guidelines for in-house socio-economic development plans are: It is often most appropriate to work within the community in which the business is located, with a greater emphasis on those who are in closest proximity, as well as those in dire need.

The forest industry is well positioned to target the rural poor, being mainly a rural-based industry. Community development work calls for specialist knowledge and skills seldom found in businesses. It is imperative to either employ a full time socio-economic development professional facilitator, or contract in the services of such individual or group. Acquire information about existing socio-economic development projects in the local area and the implementing agents responsible for implementing these. The municipal officer dealing with the Local Economic Development Programme (LED) in an area is one useful contact. Bonus points can be earned for additional spend, one bonus for every 0, 25% NPAT (or 0,033% revenue) on the following sector specific initiatives: Support to enterprise that will contribute to timber supply and value addition. Support for improved living conditions of the rural poor, including forest workers and their families. The main employment-related statutes in South Africa that influence employee's health and well-being by protecting them include the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, the

Occupational Health and Safety Act, the Labour Relations Act, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, the Compensation for Occupational and Diseases Act, the Unemployment Insurance Act, the Employment Equity Act, and the Skills Development Act.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (South Africa, 1996) (Section 23) can have implications for the health and well-being of South African employees. The Constitution states that: Everyone has the right to fair labour practices; every worker has the right to form and join a trade union, to participate in the activities and programmes of a trade union, and to strike, every employer has the right to form an employers' organization and to participate in the activities thereof and every trade union employers' organisation and employer has the right to engage in collective bargaining (Grogan, 2005:29). Therefore, every citizen of South Africa has the right to be protected from unfair labour practices. South Africa applies to all employers, with the exclusion of miners, owners of certain shipping vessels; those exempted by the Minister and temporary employment services. It establishes a council to advise the Minister on occupational health and safety. This Act imposes a general duty on employers to provide a reasonably safe and healthy working environment, to provide information, training and supervision as is necessary to ensure health and safety and to report to an inspector any incident and accident in which an employee dies or is injured or when an unsafe situation arises. Employees are obligated to comply with health and safety rules and to report unsafe or unhealthy environments or incidents to employers or health and safety representatives, employers are also obligated to provide training to these health and safety representatives. Employers with more than 20 employees must, after consultation with employees or their representatives, appoint one or more full time employees as health and safety representatives, and employers are obliged to provide training and facilities to these representatives. Employers with more than one safety representative must establish health and safety committees, with which they are obliged to consult on health and safety issues. Inspectors

are empowered to enter the premises of employers and examine compliance with the Act (Grogan, 2005). Under this Act special mention is made regarding facilities' regulation.

The researcher acknowledges the existence and the emphasis placed on the Occupational Health and Safety Act in the Forest industry. Corporate growers, like SiyaQhubeka, Mondi Business Paper and Sappi prioritise on the Act profoundly. In terms of the corporate grower awarding a contract, the Health and Safety Act is a requirement, whereby the contractor has to put together a health and safety programme and how this programme is to be implemented and impacted daily to everyone under the contractor's employment and to any person entering the premises or plantation. If the contractor has been operational, a track record has to be submitted displaying the Lost Time Frequency Rate (this will also show any injuries, fatalities, incidents and accidents that have occurred in the operation) (Cele 2011). All employees have to undergo a health and safety induction, and this is in accordance with the Occupational and Safety Act. Employees will then complete and sign a form as proof of undergoing a health and safety induction. Environmental issues are very sensitive, in that all forest personnel and employees are educated in caring for the environment. Example: wetlands, animals, indigenous plants and trees. People working in the forest plantations are taught and regularly reminded through 'tool box talks' not to destroy the environment like killing birds and cutting trees other than the commercial species, like gum, pine and wattle, depending on the type of forest they are working in (Cele: 2011).

There are biodiversity plantations, like SiyaQhubeka Forests, which have scarce vegetation and animals, like elephants, leopards, and rhinoceros. Employees are educated through an 'animal protocol' document which enlightens people on each animal with regards to its behaviour, likes and dislikes. This document also teaches the employees as to what to do or how to react when encountering an animal. There are people who are afraid of snakes, but cannot differentiate between a harmless and harmful snake. This document also teaches people on the importance of

snakes and that they should not be killed. In 2004, SiyaQhubeka Forests had a very serious case whereby a security contractor (then called Maxim Security, now known as Maxim Invula Security) had a fatality resulting from an elephant in the Dukuduku plantation (near St Lucia) which killed a security guard. In an investigation which was conducted, it was discovered that a record showed that a health and safety meeting was held and on the agenda, the animal protocol was discussed and this included elephants, as well. The deceased security guard was also present in the meeting and this is proof that he took no heed to the health and safety meeting and the animal protocol (Cele: 2010). As a forest entrepreneur it is crucial that cost implications are put into consideration in relation to health and safety.

The corporate grower should also assist in accommodating these health and safety related cost implications. Transportation is also a very serious matter, in that the safety of workers has to be sought after with regards to labour carriers. As a forest entrepreneur, costing of labour carriers is important and there are also additional fittings as per corporate grower's specifications, which should be augmented to the labour transport, like; safety belts, a properly harnessed bench, roll over protection (in case the labour truck rolls over in the event of an accident), a chevron, speed limit sign and all other relevant safety signage as per the requirements. The driver of the labour truck or a driver of any other vehicle operating in the forest plantation should have a valid driver's licence and a PDP (Professional Driving Permit). If a driver is transporting timber, he must be in possession of permission to transport goods as well as a licence for that particular code (size of the truck). Health and Safety is one aspect which indicates the seriousness of managing a forest business in a professional manner and yet pursuing sustainability of the business (Cele: 2010).

Facilities regulation make provisions for the following in the work place: latrine facilities, facilities for safe keeping, changing rooms, signs for prohibition of smoking, eating and drinking in certain workplaces, clean drinking water, conditions of rooms and facilities, and offences and penalties

(Grogan, 2005). This ensures minimum standards regarding issues that might affect the health of employees at work, and thereby employee health and wellness. In Forestry, sanitation facilities in the plantation do not exist. This matter has been discussed, but forest contractors or entrepreneurs have not embraced this issue because it has cost implications, unless the corporate grower provides these facilities. Currently, forest workers follow a protocol on how to relieve one, by walking to a remote area, dig a hole using a truffle and covering the hole, thereafter. Forest plantations are in remote areas, far from taps, or clean drinking water. The climate is usually in the extreme, either too hot or too cold. The north coast Zululand area is not very cold, but it becomes very hot in summer, and it is important that clean water is available and sufficient for all the employees and is available for the whole day. Despite the hot climate, the work that forest workers do is not easy and can cause dehydration and, therefore, clean drinking water has to be available. The inland areas are very cold and employees make fires in the early hours of the morning before they start work. Safety measures have to be in place to protect the plantation from fires which employees make to keep themselves warm. Smoking is another sensitive matter.

Smoking is very dangerous, in that cigarette stubs, if not properly extinguished, may cause major fires in the plantation. Any person smoking in the plantation should go to a smoking designated area, and should extinguish the cigarette and then dig a reasonable hole and put the stub into the hole by rubbing it in the hole. Tourists driving through the plantations should not throw cigarette stubs as they can ignite huge uncontrollable fires. Certain forest plantations have man-made bee hives and the collection of honey from the bee hives poses a threat to the plantations in that smoke is used to chase the bees away. The smoke should be used with proper equipment, to prevent forest fires. Forest fires need to be prevented as they pose a serious health and safety hazard to the workers and neighbouring communities. It is, thus, compulsory for all forest entrepreneurs to have fire insurance. Entrepreneurs should ensure that monthly premiums are paid and lapses should be avoided. Should a fire insurance lapse, the corporate grower may cancel the contract. The Labour

Relations Act aims to encourage a collective bargaining and the settlement of disputes by enhancing powers of forums designed to facilitate these objectives. It contains specific rules and rights on contravening or infringement, which fall under the auspices of either the Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA), accredited bargaining councils or a specialised Labour court refers disputes not settled by conciliation to arbitration. Furthermore, employers have to consult with workplace forums on a regular basis (Grogan, 2005).

Therefore, the Act stipulates that employees' voices can be heard and that employee health and wellness issues can be addressed through workplace forums which employers have to consult. The above Act's existence is limited to the corporate grower, in that it is only the employees that are directly employed by the corporate grower who can affiliate in trade unions. Employees who are under the employment of the forest entrepreneur, who is contracted to the corporate grower, do not affiliate under a union; they may only lodge their cases with the CCMA. Forums designed for collective bargaining processes do not exist. This is one area in Forestry which needs to be seriously developed so as to protect the employees. The Act ensures that employers comply with working hours and do not exceed the stipulated number of working hours per day that employees are granted adequate breaks during the working day, that they are given statutory prescribed annual and sick leave and that they are paid a premium for overtime and work on Sundays and public holidays. It requires employers to maintain records and to provide the means by which rates of pay and working hours are to be calculated.

The Act also regulates the minimum notice that must be given on termination of the contract. Furthermore, it creates an Employment Conditions Commission that advises the Minister and Labour inspectorate to mediate disputes arising under the Act (Grogan, 2005). This Act protects the health and well-being of employees through stringent rules that ensure rest periods for employees, adequate leave and overtime pay. Forest entrepreneurs follow a task based rate. However, this

poses a huge challenge in that, should an employee fail to complete the day's task, she will have to resume the next day by completing the unfinished task before being allocated a new task for the day. In a manual harvesting operation, which is dominated by women, the average task given to debark is thirty five trees per day. The pace of the worker depends on the strip-ability of the bark, the climate and many other disturbing factors, which if not completed falls onto the following day. This pattern impacts negatively on the number of working days versus the total amount of wages which will be far less, and is against the sectorial determination for Forest workers. In order to avoid this situation, it is upon the entrepreneur to instil active supervision to properly monitor the movement and work of each and every employee.

Active supervision will ensure that daily tasks are completed and that any problem arising be identified early and be dealt with timeously before it is too late. Active supervision also enhances the targeted daily productivity to be achieved and this will lead to a fruitful and stress-free month end. Since workers have a contract, the daily duties have to be stipulated in the contract, rate per task, outcome of unreported absenteeism, failing to finish given tasks, losing the protective clothing and equipment issued by the employer, working unsafely, using vulgar language and being disrespectful to other employees including the employer, and working hours. Healthy food is very important and, historically, before the concept of outsourcing was introduced, corporate growers used to provide meals to the workers. This came to an end as it was now upon the entrepreneur to provide for the employees. In the cost calculation, some entrepreneurs included it and others did not. During lunch breaks employees began to consume poor diet and this impacted badly on to their performance and led to high absenteeism and poor health which are also deteriorated by HIV and AIDS. Mondi Business Paper re-introduced the feeding scheme to forest employees and healthy, fresh food which is inspected is given to the employees every day. A summary of the Act should be displayed for referral purposes (Cele, 2010).

The Act ensures that employees or their dependants who have suffered injury, illness or fatality arising from the execution of their work are compensated. This Act excludes employees from the military defence, police officers, domestic workers and contract workers. It specifies that compensation is payable only if the accident that caused the injury, illness or death occurred within the scope of the employee's employment and was not predictable. No payments in respect of temporary disabilities of three days or less, those resulting from lawful misconduct by employees or no-physical damages like pain and suffering (Grogan, 2005) are catered for. This Act influences health and wellness of employees in that it ensures compensation for employees whose health was negatively affected while performing their work.

The Act provides for payment of benefits to employees who have lost their employment through pregnancy or other circumstances beyond their control. The Act only applies if the claimant has been in employment previously and is seeking and willing to accept work, or is unable to find work because of a scheduled illness (Grogan, 2005). This Act can influence the health and wellness of women in that it ensures income while they are on maternity leave, but the maternity leave does not need to be paid leave. In view of the current economic situation the Unemployment Insurance Act reduces stress for women, who otherwise would have had to cope without an income for a stipulated four month period. The Act establishes a National Skills Authority, Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) and Skills Development Planning Units (Grogan, 2005). The Act influences the health, wellness and good work performance. The corporate grower encourages Skills Development, wherein a skills and development matrix is established in order to monitor progress in terms of training needs for the employees.

2.8. Conclusion

The current chapter has discussed that there is a relationship between self-assurance and discrimination of women in forestry. There is still a huge amount of policy work to be done in order for forestry to transform, for discrimination of women in forestry to be highly reduced, and self-assurance for women to be improved. As explained by Duflo (2012), there are two rationales for fostering gender equality: The first is that equity is valuable in and of itself: women are currently worse-off than men, and this inequality between genders is repulsive in its own right. The second, a central argument in the discourse of policymakers, is that women play a fundamental role in development. A clear understanding of the forestry industry had been deliberated in that the transformation process in the forestry sector and the implication this has for women should be improved.

The chapter has highlighted that the forestry charter is a transformation tool which has to be implemented by all forestry stakeholders and that when they signed the charter they committed to be champions of transformation. A sizeable body of literature provides evidence that women are generally underrepresented in forest user groups such as village forest committees and community forest associations (Agarwal, 2010; Coleman and Mwangi, 2012). Since this chapter has provided the understanding of what a forestry business is, it was necessary to understand also, that in order for forestry to be less complex, policies and certain legal aspects should drive the forestry sector in a prosperous direction. The chapter supports the argument of the previous chapter, that there is a relationship between women's self-assurance, and perceived discrimination. This chapter presented the history, location, beneficiaries, neighbouring communities, stakeholders and the overall environment of the corporate growers, i.e. Sappi and SiyaQhubeka Forests in Northern KwaZulu-Natal. A holistic depiction of the Northern Zululand Forestry landscape intertwined with the community producing a rich amalgam, as it is upon both the corporate growers and all the other stake holders to have a sound output. The next chapter presents gender, forestry and the need for women empowerment.

Chapter 3: Gender, Forestry and the Need for Women Empowerment

“An empowered organization is one in which individuals have the knowledge, skill, desire, and opportunity to personally succeed in a way that leads to collective organizational success” (Covey, 2015).

3.1 Introduction

The focus of this chapter is on the view that there should not be gender roles that have to be considered in the forestry industry as women are equally suitable to participate fully. Work is work and forestry is relevant. This chapter addresses the fact that it is evident that women empowerment in forestry has been overlooked, as originally defined by McClelland (1961), acceptance of traditional gender roles denotes the extent to which women conform to culturally presumed roles. Women have been shackled instead of being empowered. This has been neglected by society for a very long time. The previous chapter has argued that there is still discrimination against women in forestry and this raises the issue of forestry being complex in nature. The current chapter argues that the issue of gender roles in forestry should not prevent women from participating fully. Wan et al (2011) demonstrated that the gendered division of agricultural labour and food production, combined with the fact that women often have fewer alternative income-earning opportunities than men, means that women tend to collect forest foods to supplement the nutrition of their households. Women play a particularly important role in collecting and processing edible wild plants from forests, as well as in the preparation of household meals by using forest foods to cook (for example) soups, stews and relishes (Vinceti et al 2008; FAO, 2012).

The chapter seeks to offer that the inclusion of women in forestry will stimulate growth and diversify participation in forestry. Women have a multi-faceted skill of accessing forestry products, which when institutionalised, will yield good results to the forestry sector. This chapter highlights that there is a link between empowerment and the ability to perform. This chapter, therefore, serves as a deliberation of the reasons that make the forestry sector suitable to accommodate and empower woman in different ways. This study argues that when women are empowered, change will be evident in the forestry sector. A study in Amazonia (Shanley and Gaia, 2001) found that, compared with men, women were able to identify a broader range of plant species (i.e. trees, vegetables, vines, bushes and herbs) and usable plant parts (i.e. fruit, bark, leaf, seed and root). Such knowledge is particularly important in times of natural disasters and food crises when the collection and sale of forest products by women often becomes critical for household survival. Therefore the purpose of this study is to reduce discrimination and empower women in forestry; in a research study undertaken with the America Foresters Society (Kuhns et al., 2004) the study reported that 65% of the women felt that gender discrimination existed in their workplace; 71% of the participants indicated that women did not have the same opportunities as men in the Forestry industry. Hirsh, Elizabeth, and Julie A. Kmec (2009) management diversity training focus on the goals of management diversity training; which are to reduce managers' discriminatory behaviour by increasing their sensitivity to diversity and informing managers of legal issues.

Forestry and agroforestry systems are not gender-neutral. Compared with men, women are frequently disadvantaged, for a range of interrelated cultural, socio-economic and institutional reasons, in their access to and control over forest resources and in the availability of economic opportunities. Women often have highly specialized knowledge of trees and forests in terms of their species diversity, management and uses for various purposes, and conservation practices. Compared with men, women's knowledge tends to be linked more directly to household food consumption and health, which is particularly important during food crises. Women tend to play

specific roles in forestry and agroforestry value chains. These are important for their incomes, and in turn for the well-being and food security of their households. However, women's roles in the forestry value chains are generally poorly supported by policy-makers and service providers.

The persistent lack of gender-disaggregated data further compounds this problem. Empowering women in the forest sector can create significant development opportunities for them and generate important spill-over benefits for their households and communities. Efforts to enhance women's participation in forest-related institutions should be strengthened because women can help to maximize synergies between the forest sector and food security for the benefit of all. Forests and trees on farms are a direct source of food, cash income and a range of subsistence benefits for millions of people worldwide, but there are major differences in the benefits that accrue to men and women. Compared with men, women are frequently disadvantaged in their access to forest resources and economic opportunities in the forest sector due to the following interrelated factors: gender-differentiated behavioural norms and social perception of women's roles; discrimination in conventional forest/tree and tree product ownership and tenure regimes; low levels of literacy, education, physical abilities and technical skills; less access to services such as extension and credit; the burden of domestic and child care responsibilities; time and mobility constraints; limited access to markets and market-related information; lower participation by women in rural institutions, for example forest user groups; the implicit association of women with the domestic sphere, which is widespread in many societies, both agrarian and industrialized. The differences between men and women in access to and use of forest products and services result in gender disparities in, for example, access to and use of forest foods, fuelwood, and fodder for livestock; forest management; the marketing of forest and tree products; and participation in forest user groups. Some of these dimensions are expanded on in this paper. The information available to analyze gender differences in the forest sector is largely anecdotal (often from case studies), although several initiatives – including the FAO-Finland Forestry Programme and FAO's National

Forest Monitoring and Assessment Programme – are under way to develop rigorous gender-specific indicators to support forest policies and programmes, FAO (2012).

3.2. Gender dimensions of the forest–food security nexus

The most direct way in which forests and trees contribute to food security is through contributions to diets and nutrition (FAO, 1992). Forest foods – wild leaves, fruits, roots, tubers, seeds, nuts, mushrooms, saps, gums, and forest animals and their products, such as eggs and honey – supplement the foods produced by agriculture and obtained from other sources. Forest foods can assist in coping with seasonal food shortages and shortages due to extreme weather events, natural disasters, human-made conflicts and other shocks (Arnold et al., 2011). Wan et al (2011) demonstrated that the gendered division of agricultural labour and food production, combined with the fact that women often have fewer alternative income-earning opportunities than men, means that women tend to collect forest foods to supplement the nutrition of their households.

Women play a particularly important role in collecting and processing edible wild plants from forests, as well as in the preparation of household meals by using forest foods to cook (for example) soups, stews and relishes (Vinceti et al 2008; FAO, 2012). Women often have substantial knowledge on the identification, collection and preparation of highly nutritious forest foods that can complement and add flavour to the staples of family meals. In addition, income generated from these activities by women adds to the purchasing power of households and therefore their food security. Honey, wild animals, fish and insects are also collected from forests. These collection and hunting activities tend to be more the role of men, and in some places (such as in forest reserves of the Congo Basin and parts of the Peruvian Amazon) they provide the primary sources of animal protein for rural people (FAO, 1992). Men are also more likely than women to be responsible for hanging and smoking wild bee hives and for hunting bush meat such as birds and collecting their

eggs (Shackleton et al., 2011; IFAD, 2008). Agroforestry, farm forests and home gardens contribute to food security both directly and indirectly by providing a range of products and services. In addition, the protection of natural regeneration and the maintenance and planting of trees on farms provide valuable ecosystem services that increase and sustain agricultural production (Scherr & McNeely, 2008). There is evidence that agroforestry activities are often gender-differentiated: while men are usually interested in trees for commercial purposes, women are more inclined to favour multipurpose tree species for subsistence use, such as those that provide food, fuelwood and fodder and help improve soil fertility.

A review of 104 studies of gender and agroforestry in Africa (Kiptot & Franzel, 2011) confirmed that women's participation is very high in enterprises such as the production and processing of indigenous fruit and vegetable products, apparently because indigenous species require fewer labour inputs. The review also showed that, in Africa, the extent of women's involvement relative to men in activities such as soil fertility management, fodder production and woodlots is fairly high in terms of the participation of female headed households but low when measured by the area such households allocate to these activities and the number of trees they plant. In cases where women have low involvement, this is mostly due to a scarcity of resources like land and labour (partly because women tend to do much more household and care work than men) and possibly to women's greater aversion to risk. Some studies have also noted that, compared with men's fields, women's plots tend to have a greater number of trees as well as species' richness, possibly because women prefer to have more trees near the homestead, as well as a diversity of species to maintain the health of their children and to broaden the household food supply (FAO, 1999). Tree tenure – the ownership and use rights of trees – is often differentiated along gender lines, and men usually have overall authority over high-value tree products.

However, the gendered nature of access to and control of trees, tree products and related resources is often highly complex, depending on social and ecological conditions and factors such as space, time, specific species, products and uses (Rocheleau & Edmunds, 1997). In many settings, women's rights are actually substantial due to the informal (and often negotiable) nature of customary laws and, in certain cases, the complementarity of women's and men's productive roles. Women's rights, however, may easily become marginalized or may not be recognized, especially in the context of efforts to introduce statutory laws and formal administrative procedures (Quisumbing et al., 2001). Although women often make significant labour contributions to agroforestry (e.g. by planting, weeding and watering trees), their opportunities in the sector are usually limited to low-return activities that are of little or no interest to men, while men tend to control the production and marketing of higher value products as well as the use of the income so generated (Rocheleau & Edmunds, 1997).

Tree products such as charcoal, logs, timber, large branches and poles are typically considered male domains. Thus, in the Luo & Luhya communities in western Kenya, women have the right to collect and use fruits but are restricted from harvesting high-value timber trees. On the other hand, species such as *Sesbania sesban*, which is good for fuelwood and soil fertility improvement, is considered a women's tree, and therefore women have the right to plant, manage and use it as they please (Franzel and Kiptot, 2012). Rocheleau and Edmunds (1997) reported that, among the Akamba community of eastern Kenya, tree planting and felling were primarily the domains of men, while women enjoyed use and access rights to fodder, fuel wood, fruits and mulch. Gender-differentiated rights and responsibilities in agroforestry are also an important determinant of the adoption of agroforestry technologies and the use of related services, which (if other things remain the same) may further perpetuate existing gender inequalities.

Nearly three billion people worldwide rely primarily on wood for cooking, home heating and hot water (Rehfuess, 2006). Limited fuel wood access – due to environmental degradation, local forest regulations – can cause many households to change what they eat, often leading to malnutrition. Similarly, boiling water insufficiently to save fuel wood can contribute to the consumption of contaminated water and poorly prepared food, with potentially life-threatening consequences for pregnant women, the malnourished and sick. In many agrarian settings, women and girls have the primary responsibility for collecting household fuel wood and may have to walk for several hours, frequently under insecure conditions, to do so. In refugee and conflict situations, women are particularly vulnerable to gender-based violence while collecting fuel wood (WFP, 2012). Shrinking access to fuel wood near the home, which is becoming a pressing reality in many developing countries and the time taken to collect fuel wood often means that women have less time for other activities (Wan et al, 2011). Gbetnkom (2007) concluded that constraints placed on women's income-earning potential by fuel wood scarcity may have a significant impact on household food security.

The increased time spent gathering fuel wood leaves less time for cash-earning activities and for tasks to support the food security and health of family members, while increasingly expensive purchased fuel wood leaves less money for buying food. Women are not always the main fuel wood collectors (Sunderland et al., 2012). For example, when the distances become too great for fuel wood collection on foot, or where there are naturally low densities of fuel wood (e.g. in the Kalahari), men tend to assume the role of fuel wood collection, making use of transportation such as donkey carts and small trucks. Men are also the main collectors of fuel wood for sale (Shackleton, 2013). In Latin America, men are overwhelmingly responsible for fuel wood collection. With regard to the cooking environment, the combustion of biomass (including fuel wood) releases significant quantities of pollutants that damage the health of those who do the cooking, the vast majority of whom are women. Poor ventilation in kitchens is common in many

parts of the world and increases the health risk associated with cooking. Exposure to indoor smoke has been found to be responsible for 39 percent of deaths due to chronic pulmonary disease in women, compared with 12 percent in men (Wan, Colfer and Powell, 2011; Rehfuess, 2006). Disease and nutrition are cyclically linked: infections associated with wood-smoke exposure significantly increase women's nutrient requirements (e.g. Vitamin A), and those who are micronutrient-deficient are more likely to develop infections after exposure to wood smoke. Many tree species found in forests, woodlands and parklands and on farms are used for animal feed; they may be browsed directly by roaming livestock or collected and fed to livestock in stalls. It has been estimated, for example, that 75 percent of tree species in tropical Africa are used as browse by domestic livestock, such as sheep, goats, cattle, camels and donkeys (FAO, 1991). Women (and children) play crucial roles in providing livestock with fodder, and women generally perform activities such as collecting grass and forage (including fodder tree forage), feeding and grazing animals, cleaning animal sheds, and composting animal waste.

These activities contribute significantly to domestic livestock production, which in turn influences milk and meat supply and contributes to household income. Tree-based fodder is also used to sustain draught animals for ploughing and in the production of manure that increases soil fertility and facilitates cooking (especially when fuelwood is in short supply) and may be used as material in house construction and household compound maintenance. Data from the East African highlands illustrate the role of women in relation to fodder for dairy cows. According to Franzel and Wambugu (2007), throughout the region there has been considerable adoption of the use of fodder shrubs such as *Calliandra calothyrsus* to provide dairy cows with protein. By 2005, over 200 000 farmers in East Africa had planted fodder shrubs, of whom the majority (about 60 percent) were women. In Kenya, Franzel and Wambugu (2007) showed that most dairy-related activities were undertaken by women, and that women did tend to have control of the income derived from those activities. Cash income from dairy cow units was found to contribute significantly to household

budgets, helping to pay school fees and buy food and clothing. The projected adverse effects of climate change (e.g. increased landslides, floods, hurricanes, droughts and other extreme weather events, and the resultant degradation of the environment) are likely to have generally negative impacts on agriculture and food security. Women may be more vulnerable than men to the effects of climate change because they are more likely to be poor and dependent on natural ecosystems threatened by climate change (IPCC, 2007; Lambrou & Nelson, 2010).

However, some studies suggest that the impacts of climate change on forest-dependent groups will also depend on wealth, class, age and other socio-economic characteristics (Djouadi & Brockhaus, 2012; Sun et al, 2010). Women are not only vulnerable to climate change, they are also effective actors and change agents for climate change mitigation and adaptation (Peach-Brown, 2011). Women often have a strong body of knowledge and expertise that can be used in climate change mitigation, disaster reduction and adaptation strategies. Moreover, women's responsibility in households and communities as stewards of forest foods and other forest-related or tree-related resources positions them well to develop livelihood strategies adapted to changing environmental conditions. As natural resource managers, women influence the total amount of genetic diversity conserved and used, often working to counter decreases in biodiversity caused in part by men favouring cash-oriented monocultures.

It follows that forest policies and programmes that aim to be socially responsive should explicitly take into account the gendered dimensions of resource use, needs, access, knowledge and strategies for coping with climate change. Women and men often have highly specialized knowledge of forest flora and fauna in terms of species diversity, location, harvesting and hunting patterns, seasonal availability, uses for various purposes, and conservation practices. Generally, both women and men derive their knowledge from their specialized roles and the gender-specific ways in which they access forests and trees, which products they harvest and how they use them, what markets

they access, and how they rely on forest products for their livelihoods (Shanley and Gaia, 2001; Howard, 2003; Colfer, 2005).

Much of the existing literature, typically based on case studies, paints a stylized picture in which women derive their knowledge from their specialized roles in the collection and processing of forest products for direct household use and some access to local markets, while men tend to specialize in the harvesting of timber products and bush meat for cash income and marketing. However, the extent to which such findings can be generalized is often unclear. Data from 36 long-term studies of forest-proximate communities in 25 countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America, representing more than 8 000 households, confirm that men and women tend to collect different forest products (Sunderland, 2011). However, contrary to conventional wisdom, the data show that both women and men collect non-wood forest products (NWFPs) primarily for subsistence and that men's sale share is generally higher than women's, except in Africa where the share is roughly equal (Sunderland, 2011). This indicates that while gender differences in forest-relevant knowledge exist (particularly on processing and marketing), they may not be as clear-cut as previously thought, and that other factors (e.g. marital status, age, wealth and formal education) co-determine how people use the forest, rather than gender alone. Nevertheless, women's knowledge tends to be linked more directly to household food and nutrition needs, as well as to health and culture, compared with men's knowledge (Daniggelis, 2003).

Shanley & Gaia (2001) found that compared with men, women were able to identify a broader range of plant species (i.e. trees, vegetables, vines, bushes and herbs) and usable plant parts (i.e. fruit, bark, leaf, seed and root). Such knowledge is particularly important in times of natural disasters and food crises when the collection and sale of forest products by women often become critical for household survival. In many places, women's familiarity with tree products such as fruits and nuts, medicinal materials and fuelwood plays a crucial role in coping with food

shortages. Moreover, the nutritive value of wild foods is often substantial and at times of food crises can be used as a substitute for purchased food items. Traditionally, women have been the primary domesticators of forest-based food and medicinal plants that are now found in home gardens around the world (Kumar & Nair, 2004; Eyzaguirre & Linares, 2004). Rural women play a particularly important role in the cultivation of indigenous fruit trees in humid western and southern Africa (Campbell, 1987). While men may be the nominal owners of trees, women are often responsible for the marketing of fruits and, importantly, are often able to decide how the income is used. Poulton & Poole (2001) proposed that the domestication of indigenous fruits may be more advantageous to household food and income security than the introduction of exotic fruit trees, which tend to be the domain of men. Nevertheless, women's participation in tree domestication has been hindered by limited access to and control over land and trees, insufficient information on the requirements and advantages of tree domestication, and substantial periods of production inactivity due to the childbearing and childrearing roles of women and their heavy workloads in the household (Degrande et al., 2007; Degrande, 2009).

The available literature (Degrande, 2012) also suggests that, compared with single women and widows, married women are generally more knowledgeable about tree domestication because they tend to have easier access to land and labour via their husbands. Men's knowledge is often regarded as knowledge that "counts", but the knowledge held by women is not always properly recognized in forest management plans and forest use. If communities recognize the value for future generations of the "hidden" knowledge held by rural women of forest trees and plants for food and medicine, and if that knowledge is sought out in development learning and programming, it is likely to be retained and to contribute directly to conserving forest biodiversity.

Thus, there is a need to support women's knowledge on forestry matters to improve rural livelihoods, foster knowledge transmission between generations and user groups, conserve forest

and agroforestry biodiversity, support local-level climate change adaptation, and strengthen the resilience of vulnerable households. Forestry value chains are crucial for the incomes and livelihoods of many small producers, particularly with respect to the marketing of (NWFPs such as essential oils, medicinal plants, gum arabic, rattan, bamboo, natural honey, edible nuts, mushrooms, various types of fibre, shea, wild nuts and seeds, wild fruits and other types of forest product used for cooking, skin care and other purposes (IFAD, 2008).

Although official production and trade statistics, as well as research, have neglected the sector, it is clear that there is a sizeable and growing global trade in NWFPs. There are more than 150 NWFPs of major significance in international trade. The related value chains involve millions of workers and producers, including many indigenous women and men in remote areas of developing countries (Marshall et al, 2006). As they are for most primary products originating in developing countries, NWFP value chains are highly gender-specific. In many settings, women deal primarily with lower-value products, engage in less lucrative informal activities, and do not have the same access to technology, credit, training and decision making as men. Unsurprisingly, interactions between men and women and the division of labour between them at each stage of a value chain depend heavily on the environment in which they live, their preferences, and the available technologies. In general, women tend to prefer flexible working conditions that do not clash with their day-to-day household responsibilities. Engagement in forestry value chains is often crucial for rural women's livelihoods and the wellbeing of their households. In Ethiopia, for example, sorting and cleaning gum and resins is the primary source of income for 96 percent of the women involved in the activity; in Burkino Faso, women engaged in sorting gum Arabic reported that it was the most important source of their income for 3–4 months per year (Shackleton et al., 2011).

Many researchers have also noted that increases in women's incomes have greater impacts on food, health and education expenditure and therefore on overall household well-being than increases in

men's incomes (Blumberg, 1988; Engle, 1993; Hoddinott and Haddad, 1991; Kabeer, 2003). Moreover, because the harvesting of many forest products in which women specialize – e.g. shea in Benin, *Dacryodes edulis* in Cameroon, *Garcinia kola* in southern Nigeria and *Sclerocarya birrea* in southern Africa – tends to coincide with periods in which people have few income-earning alternatives, women's contributions to the respective value chains help households to cover important expenses (e.g. school fees) during seasonal financial shortfalls and to generate capital to start up new activities (Schreckenberg, 2004; Wynberg et al., 2003). The gender roles in forestry value chains are generally poorly understood and not well supported by policy-makers and service providers, especially those who focus on hi-tech operations or pay less attention to local markets. The minimal formal attention paid to NWFPs by forestry commissions, departments and ministries is also related partly to the paucity of data and analytical work on gender roles in forestry value chains. Yet a gender-sensitive value chain analysis can identify less visible gender-sensitive components at various stages of the value chains. These might include processing at home; informal trading in neighbourhood markets; and the collection, by men, of supposedly “female” products like gums and honey if it requires physically taxing work or is carried out in remote areas.

Thus, analysing value chains from a gender perspective can be useful in identifying practical opportunities for improving the livelihoods of the rural poor. FAO (2011) Shackleton et al. (2011) all proposed various practical interventions to increase the benefits obtained by women and men from the trade of NWFPs, including understanding gender roles along the entire value chain; supporting those activities performed by women (often in the household); assessing the gender impacts of interventions to increase production profits and efficiency; working with existing processing and marketing groups; and, where appropriate, assisting women to organize into groups and federations for effective collective action (Awono et al., 2010).

3.3. Empowering women through forest user groups

The need to empower women economically and socially in order to strengthen gender equality in rural societies is generally recognized as a necessary prerequisite for increasing agricultural productivity, reducing poverty and hunger, and promoting economic growth (FAO, 2012). As explained by Duflo (2012), there are two rationales for fostering gender equality: The first is that equity is valuable in and of itself: women are currently worse-off than men, and this inequality between genders is repulsive in its own right. The second, a central argument in the discourse of policymakers, is that women play a fundamental role in development. The gender gap in education, political participation, and employment opportunities should therefore be reduced not only because it is equitable to do so, but also because it will have beneficial consequences on many other society-wide outcomes. It should be done, in other words, to increase efficiency.” The forest sector provides a broad range of opportunities to empower rural women. Here, we discuss in greater depth two of these options, namely enhancing the participation of women in forest user groups and in forest-oriented rural resource centres. This focus seems justified given the growing consensus among development actors that participatory rural organizations can play strategic roles in overcoming the social and economic obstacles that female small producers face in rural settings (FAO and IFAD, forthcoming). A sizeable body of literature provides evidence that women are generally underrepresented in forest user groups such as village forest committees and community forest associations (Agarwal, 2010; Coleman and Mwangi, 2012).

In many settings, rules allowing only one person per household to participate in such groups tend to exclude women, thus adding to the host of other barriers to women’s engagement (e.g. the gender division of labour and access rights, gender-differentiated behavioural norms, gender segregation in public spaces, social perceptions of women’s roles, women’s lack of bargaining power, and men’s entrenched claims and control over community structures). Often, women are

enlisted for decision making only when forest and tree resources are degraded. As a result, community forest groups sometimes enforce rules and regulations that do not fully reflect women's strategic interests and needs. For example, of the 87 community forest groups in India visited by Agarwal (2001), 60 still had a ban on fuelwood collection, 21 did not open the forest at all, and 24 only opened it for a few days for dry wood collection. On the other hand, gender-balanced groups and female-only groups tend to sanction less and exclude less because of their inherent characteristics and modes of operation. Female-dominated groups also tend to have more property rights to trees and bushes and to collect more fuel wood and less timber than do male-dominated or gender-balanced groups (Sun, 2011). Gender balanced groups, on the other hand, perform consistently better in all forestry functions (e.g. the protection of plantings, forest regeneration, biodiversity and watersheds and the allocation of forest-use permits). Pandolfelli et al. (2009) suggested that gender-balanced groups capitalize on the complementary roles of men and women, mobilize people for collective action, and enable better access to information and services from external agents.

Greater involvement of women in forest governance may thus help ensure that forest policy and planning is more sensitive to the food security needs of communities. An unresolved issue is whether there is a "critical threshold" of women's proportional participation in mixed-gender groups that may be associated with higher levels of cooperation and joint decision-making. Sun et al, (2011) found that the relationship between the gender composition of groups and collective outcomes was not linear. Evidence compiled by Agarwal (2010), Sun et al, (2011) and Coleman and Mwangi (2012) suggests that when women constitute one quarter to one third of the membership of local forest management institutions, the dynamic changes in favour not only of the consideration of women's use of and access to forest resources but also towards more effective community forest management decision-making and management as a whole.

However, the active and effective participation of women in forest institutions is governed by a number of factors in addition to the proportion in which they are represented. Agarwal (2010) and Coleman and Mwangi (2012) found that, in Honduras, India, Nepal and Uganda, the gender composition of forest councils and the age and education levels of the women on those councils significantly affected women's attendance at meetings and the likelihood that they would speak up on critical issues. Agarwal (2010) and Coleman and Mwangi (2012) found that literacy, education and practical skills related to income generation or employment increased women's social status and self-confidence, thereby increasing the effectiveness of their participation in community forest user groups. There is evidence that women's participation in the decision-making of forest institutions reduces the level of gender-based conflict because it leads to new rules of access that take into account women's particular needs and their activities are less likely to be criminalized or viewed as infringements. Agarwal (2001) suggested that the greater inclusion of women in rule-making in forest user groups could reduce the tendency to break rules by those not previously engaged in formulating the rules. Similarly, Coleman and Mwangi (2012) concluded that if women were able to become members of existing formal forest user groups, their participation was likely to reduce disruptive conflict over forest access and use. Women's active participation in community forest user groups may strengthen the ability of such groups to contribute to the goals of promoting the ecological health of the forest and supporting socially equitable decision-making within communities. An important function of forest user groups and similar village-level organizations is that they can greatly increase farmers' capacity to adopt innovative techniques and practices.

To accelerate the uptake of new techniques, particularly in contexts where public agricultural extension services are weak, some development agents have used the rural resource centre concept (Degrande et al., 2012). Rural resource centres are an innovative participatory approach, used, for example, in tree domestication, that focuses on building capacity to generate innovations at all

stages of the agroforestry value chain. The emphasis is on access to knowledge, learning and networking. An important feature of rural resource centres is the philosophy of building rural development from the grassroots using technologies that are simple, practical and cheap to implement (Pye-Smith, 2010; Leakey et al., 2005; Leakey, 2011). Services that rural resource centres and their satellite nurseries can provide include skills development in areas such as nursery practice, group dynamics and marketing; information about new technologies and innovations; market information and links with market actors, particularly from the private sector; forums for the exchange of information among farmers and between farmers and other stakeholders; and seeds, seedlings and other inputs. Compared with men, women are frequently disadvantaged, for a range of interrelated cultural, socio-economic and institutional reasons, in their access to and control over forest resources and in the availability of economic opportunities. As a result, there are differences between men and women in their access to and use of forest products and services, resulting in gender disparities observable in many dimensions of the forestry–food security nexus.

3.4. Forestry activities being typically gender-differentiated

While men are usually interested in trees for commercial purposes, women are more inclined to favour tree products for subsistence such as for food, fuelwood, fodder and soil fertility improvement. Women often have highly specialized knowledge of trees and forests in terms of their species diversity, management and uses for various purposes, and good understanding of conservation practices. Compared with men, women's knowledge tends to be linked more directly to household food consumption and health, which can be particularly important during food crises, when the collection and sale of forest products by women may be critical for household survival. However, women's knowledge is rarely recognized in forest management plans, and there is a need to support women's knowledge on forestry matters to improve rural livelihoods and strengthen household resilience. Women tend to play specific roles in forestry and agroforestry value chains,

sometimes complementing and benefiting the roles of men. Women's forest-related activities are important for their incomes, and in turn for the well-being and food security of their households. However, in many settings women deal primarily with lower-value products, engage in less-lucrative activities, and do not have the same access to technology, credit, training and decision-making as men.

In addition, the roles played by women in forestry value chains are generally poorly supported by policy-makers and service providers, especially those that focus on hi-tech operations and/or pay less attention to local markets. Empowering women in the forest sector can create significant development opportunities for women (e.g. in terms of income, livelihood diversification, business skills, independence and self-esteem) and can have important spill-over benefits for their households and communities (e.g. in terms of food security, health and education). Increasing women's participation in community forest management groups and in rural resource centres are feasible avenues for empowering women in the forest sector. But participation itself is not enough. Women need to be sufficiently represented in relevant institutions, accepted as stakeholders with specific views and interests, and empowered (e.g. through formal education, training and support for income generation) to have a say in transformative decisions. Efforts to promote women's inclusion in forest-related institutions should be strengthened because women can help to maximize synergies between the forest sector and food security for the benefit of all.

3.5. Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter attempted to discuss the gender roles in forestry not to deprive women of becoming visible role players as their multi-skilled ability may be productive to the forestry industry. It was established in this chapter that the women have been overlooked in terms of empowerment. Women often face discrimination and persistent gender inequalities, with some women experiencing multiple discrimination and exclusion because of factors such as ethnicity or caste. The economic empowerment of women is a prerequisite for sustainable development, pro-poor growth and the achievement of all the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The focus of this chapter is on the view that there is emphasis in that there are no gender roles that have to be considered in the forestry industry, women are equally suitable to participate fully, “Work is work and forestry is relevant” as discussed in the ability for women to perform their work in forestry. This chapter addresses the fact that it is evident that women empowerment in forestry has been overlooked, as originally defined by McClelland (1961), acceptance of traditional gender roles denotes the extent to which women conform to culturally presumed roles. Women have been shackled instead of being empowered. This has been neglected by society for a very long time.

The previous chapter has argued that there is still women discrimination in forestry and this raises the issue of forestry being complex in nature. The current chapter argues that the issue of gender roles in forestry should not prevent women from participating fully. Wan et al (2011) demonstrated that the gendered division of agricultural labour and food production, combined with the fact that women often have fewer alternative income-earning opportunities than men, means that women tend to collect forest foods to supplement the nutrition of their households. Women play a particularly important role in collecting and processing edible wild plants from forests, as well as in

the preparation of household meals by using forest foods to cook (for example) soups, stews and relishes (Vinceti et al 2008; FAO, 2012). The chapter seeks to offer that the inclusion of women in forestry will stimulate growth and diversify participation in forestry. Women have a multi-faceted skill of accessing forestry products, which when institutionalised, will yield good results to the forestry sector. This chapter highlights that there is a link between empowerment and the ability to perform.

This chapter, therefore, serves as a deliberation of the reasons that make the forestry sector suitable to accommodate and empower woman in different ways. This study argued that when women are empowered, change will be evident in the forestry sector. A study in Amazonia (Shanley and Gaia, 2001) found that, compared with men, women were able to identify a broader range of plant species (i.e. trees, vegetables, vines, bushes and herbs) and usable plant parts (i.e. fruit, bark, leaf, seed and root). Such knowledge is particularly important in times of natural disasters and food crises when the collection and sale of forest products by women often become critical for household survival. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to reduce discrimination and empower women in forestry. The general argument of this chapter was that there is a link between women empowerment and the ability to perform. The chapter indicated the significance of equal gender roles in the forestry industry. The current chapter has dealt with challenges faced by women in forestry in relation to empowerment. It also discussed gender dimensions of the forest food security, gender dimensions of the forest food, empowering women through forest user groups and forestry activities being typically gender differentiated. Thus, the following chapter will allude to the reduction of discrimination by being strategic in supporting female entrepreneurs.

Chapter 4: Strategic Reduction for Female Entrepreneurship

“You cannot have faith in people unless you take action to improve and develop them” (Ghoshal, 2015).

4.1. Introduction

The focus of this chapter is on the view that female entrepreneurs are deprived of opportunity in a world full of opportunities. The data on female-owned businesses are limited (Churchill, 1992), and the need for further research on female entrepreneurs has been identified as long ago as the early 1980s (Kasarda, 1992). This chapter addresses the fact that women in forestry may be empowered to sustain their lives as entrepreneurs, The White Paper made special reference to the development of female entrepreneurs. One specific objective underlying the support framework of the national small-business policy is to facilitate equalisation of income, wealth and economic opportunities, with special emphasis on supporting the advancement of women in all business sectors (White Paper, 1995).

The previous chapter has argued that the issue of gender roles in forestry should not prevent women from participating in forestry activities. This chapter argues that women should be empowered to become good entrepreneurs; the current chapter argues that discrimination of women should not be overlooked as this has a negative impact on the growth of the economy. The chapter seeks to offer that there are strategies that may be implemented to enhance women participation in forestry as entrepreneurs. This chapter highlights that there is a link between women empowerment and discrimination. Since the study advocates that there should be

transformation in the forestry industry, According to Scarborough and Zimmerer (2000), women face discrimination in the workforce. They argue that small businesses have been offering women opportunities for economic expression through employment and entrepreneurship. This chapter, therefore, serves as a deliberation of the reasons that make the forestry sector suitable to accommodate and empower woman in different ways. This study argues that when discrimination is reduced, empowerment becomes evident. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, discrimination should be reduced in order to make advances in entrepreneurial development.

4.2. Techniques for developing entrepreneurship

The report emphasised that women could play a key role in making cities sustainable in integrated plans that linked balanced development of rural and urban areas to the alleviation of poverty (Nevin, 1996). The availability of entrepreneurs may be considered the most important prerequisite for economic development in a country. Without entrepreneurs it becomes the task of the state to organise development without the incentive of potential personal gain. The lack of entrepreneurs often results in a second-best solution (Botha, 1993). The 1995 publication of the White Paper on the Development of Small Business indicated that the government in South Africa realised the importance of developing entrepreneurship and small businesses. It was stated that small, medium and microenterprises (SMMEs) offered an important vehicle to addressing the challenges of job creation, economic growth and equity in South Africa: “The stimulation of SMMEs must be seen as part of an integrated strategy to take this economy onto a higher road – one in which our economy is diversified, productivity is enhanced, investment is stimulated and entrepreneurship flourishes” (White Paper, 1995:5).

The common image of an entrepreneur is someone who owns a small business. There is widespread acceptance of the notion that entrepreneurship is a variable phenomenon and that it has

underlying dimensions. The most frequently cited dimensions are innovativeness, risk taking and proactive behaviour. A contemporary perspective is that entrepreneurs who are small-business owners are not necessarily entrepreneurs (Morris & Hooper, 1996). The expressed intention to stimulate entrepreneurship by developing SMMEs is logical, as small businesses may be considered a natural port of entry into the business world (Vosloo, 1994). The White Paper made special reference to the development of female entrepreneurs. One specific objective underlying the support framework of the national small-business policy is to facilitate equalisation of income, wealth and economic opportunities, with special emphasis on supporting the advancement of women in all business sectors (White Paper, 1995).

South Africa is looking for an industrial policy away from import substitution towards employment creation, more equal income distribution and endogenous growth. Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) are expected to be flexible and therefore able to react quickly to liberalisation of the South African economy while playing a decisive role in local economic development (Kesper, 1999). According to Scarborough & Zimmerer (2000), women face discrimination in the workforce. They argue that small businesses have been offering women opportunities for economic expression through employment and entrepreneurship. This emphasis on the development of female entrepreneurs is understandable if we know that women represent more than 50% of the South African population but own approximately 33% of existing businesses. In fact, male-owned businesses outnumber female-owned businesses by more than two to one. Entrepreneurship and the role of entrepreneurs in small-business development have been popular topics with politicians and policy makers in addressing issues such as finding solutions to unemployment and economic development problems. It remains to be seen, however, whether the words of politicians would manifest themselves in actions. This applies to both the current and the previous governments as South Africa still does not consist of an extensive entrepreneurial culture. This study emphasises female entrepreneurship. Business ownership is much less common among women than men, and

the need for entrepreneurial development is consequently much greater among women. The literature on the development of female entrepreneurship was examined, and a Delphi study was conducted among experts in the field of small-business development. The successes, failures and challenges of entrepreneurship development among South African women were investigated. The findings have been summarised, caveats were pointed out, and recommendations were made for future actions and research.

There should be no difference between initiatives to encourage entrepreneurship among men and women. Recent efforts to emphasise the development of female entrepreneurs could be because men have in the past been favoured when it came to entrepreneurial assistance - at the expense of women. Encouraging female entrepreneurship could in this context be seen as an attempt to tip the scales for a more even distribution of entrepreneurial aid. General initiatives to encourage entrepreneurial development are discussed in this section. Problems facing female entrepreneurs and initiatives to encourage female entrepreneurship are reviewed. There is no consensus on appropriate policy models and the role of the state in encouraging entrepreneurship. The *laissez-faire* approach allows entrepreneurial start-up, survival, growth or decline in a market economy to develop spontaneously without any assistance or interference from the state. Whatever happens in the marketplace is seen as part of the business game (Peterson, 1988). It is doubtful whether underdeveloped and developing economies, with limited resources and serious unemployment, can afford the *laissez-faire* approach to small-business development. In terms of the limited-environment policy approach, government participation is restricted to creating a favourable tax climate and an enabling economic environment (Peterson, 1988). Although this approach is more encouraging than the *laissez-faire* approach, it may not offer enough to small businesses in the underdeveloped and developing economies. This policy could be appropriate in some countries. Establishing a more enabling economic environment without special assistance in, for example, Poland, caused a large number of entrepreneurs, male and female, to start their own businesses

(Zapulska, 1997). The strategic interventionist approach is opposite to the laissez-faire approach. In this case governments actively encourage small-business development through favourable tax concessions (Adibi, 1996; Goodman et al, 1992:78; Steel, 1993:43), deregulation (Buvinic, 1993:295; Goodman et al, 1993:78-81; Osei et al, 1993:70; Pearce & Sawyer, 1996), and educational training for entrepreneurs (Bergqvist, 1995; Erwee, 1987; Maas, 1993; Maheda, 1996; Peterson, 1988). The strategic interventionists assume that the basic economic infrastructure is available or being provided (Maheda, 1996; Simoncelli, 1997; Steel, 1993:44, 48). Further aid encompasses financial aid packages (Goodman et al, 1992; Loxton, 1997; Maheda, 1996; Mann & Thorpe, 1998; Osei et al, 1993; Steel, 1993), counselling programmes, procurement policies and programmes, and effective business advocacy programmes that alert bureaucrats to the economic benefits of small-business development.

There could be additional aids to promote the development of an entrepreneurial culture (Maas, 1993; Pearce & Sawyer, 1996; Simoncelli, 1997; Steel, 1993). In the underdeveloped countries and in a developing country such as South Africa, the strategic interventionist approach would be the most appropriate, provided that assistance and expenditure are closely monitored in the light of relatively limited capital resources. In principle it addresses most establishment needs in the small-business sector and should by implication be suitable for men as well as women of all racial groups. Historically, the collateral requirements of financial institutions in South Africa and perceptions of risk, as well as political factors, promoted the totally uneven distribution of loans to blacks and women. The data on female-owned businesses are limited (Churchill, 1992), and the need for further research on female entrepreneurs has been identified as long ago as the early 1980s (Kasarda, 1992).

Dolinsky et al (1993) are of the opinion that most international studies on female entrepreneurs suffered from limitations that precluded their generalisation. Most used convenience sampling, small sample sizes, have a limited geographical scope and individuals were seldom observed over an extended period. The uneven distribution of business ownership between males and females could to a considerable extent be attributed to entry barriers experienced by females in particular, for example insufficient access to finance and credit facilities (Brown, 1997; Kolvereid et al, 1993, Maysami & Goby, 1999, Schutte et al, 1995, World Bank Group, 1999). Contrary to the general trend, the UK study of Rosa et al (1994) did not support the view that there is discrimination against women when it comes to bank loan applications. Other entry barriers were insufficient recognition by governments of the role women play in the economies of developing countries in particular (Brown, 1997), limited education and vocational training in developing countries in particular (Chandralekha et al, 1995), no collateral and no or a poor credit history, no business track record, lack of legal status (Brown, 1997), family commitments of married women (Hamilton, 1993; Stoner et al, 1990), and female entrepreneurs avoiding the male-dominated business sectors (Erwee, 1987; Adams et al, 1999).

The problems facing female entrepreneurs in general are recognised by the South African government. The White Paper (1995) emphasises the following aspects relating to female entrepreneurs: Problems female entrepreneurs experienced in the past with regard to legal status and access to finance (White Paper, 1995:12); the special needs of female entrepreneurs with regard to the provision of appropriate infrastructure (White Paper, 1995:32); special training needs of female entrepreneurs (White Paper, 1995:33); the need for tax concessions to large enterprises to support female entrepreneurs (White Paper, 1995:38) and; the need to improve the position of female entrepreneurs as an initial high-priority target area in the small-business development effort

(White Paper, 1995:48). In emphasising these problems the government by implication recognised the potential role of female entrepreneur's in the future economic development of South Africa. Based on the problems female entrepreneurs faced, initiatives that aimed to address the imbalance in business ownership had to focus on: easier access to finance and credit for female entrepreneurs, government recognition of the role females play in the economy. (Government assistance was cited as an important contributor to the business success of female entrepreneurs in Singapore (Mayasami & Goby, 1999). Mlambo-Ngcuka (1996) suggested that governments in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) should target females as beneficiaries of government programmes for entrepreneurial development. Dolinsky et al (1993) found that less educated women may face financial and human capital constraints that limited their business pursuits, addressing problems such as lack of collateral and credit history (World Bank Group, 1999). Buttner (1993) found that collateral requirements for female entrepreneurs in Canada were higher than for men. A similar trend was identified in South Africa (White Paper, 1995). Overcoming problems posed by the absence of a business track record, the legal status of women, the family commitments of married women, helping females to enter male-dominated business sectors. Ideally all the above should be addressed to improve the position of female entrepreneurs. In South Africa some initiatives resulted from the White Paper on Small Business (1995).

The Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) was entrusted with coordinating the implementation of the government's strategy to support the SMMEs mapped out in the White Paper. In September 1995 the DTI set up the Centre for Small- Business Promotion to perform this role. Its major focus was to provide a platform for all levels of government national, provincial and local – to align their policies and support measures for SMMEs. The National Small Business Council (NSBC), a statutory body to promote and represent the interests of SMMEs, was created in terms of the

National Small Business Act, 1996 (Act 102 of 1996). This act illustrated how serious the government was to establish a solid policy framework for small-business development (Ndwandwe, 1998). The NSBC's role was to strengthen small-business associations and create a platform for SMMEs to have a say in government policy (Ndwandwe, 1998). Together with the NSBC, two other development bodies, namely Khula Enterprise Finance and Ntsika Enterprise Promotion, formed the three pillars of the government's strategy to promote a strong SMME sector (Ndwandwe, 1998). The NSBC was liquidated by the DTI in 1998 (Ndwandwe, 1998). The other two development bodies are discussed below.

Khula Enterprise Finance Limited. This company was founded in 1996 with the mission to ensure improved availability of loans and equity capital to SMMEs. A subsidiary of Khula, namely Khula Institutional Services, identified specific financing problems among rural women and subsequently launched the Khula Start and Micro Start programmes in 1998 to promote delivery of microcredit to rural women and the poor. These loans range from R300 to R3 500, and 70% of the loans were to go to women (Khula Enterprise Finance Limited, 1999). Khula Capacity Building is also involved in the training of both male and female retail financial intermediaries. The Ntsika Enterprise Promotion Agency was founded in 1996 to focus on services such as entrepreneurial and business training, business linkages, and policy and information research. Local business service centres would provide counselling and basic training services as well as business development services that concentrate on setting up manufacturing technology centres. Ntsika has pledged its special support for women's enterprise initiatives (Ntsika Enterprise Promotion Agency, 1999). Both these institutions were established to promote small-business development, and both suffered growing pains due to "delays in the implementation of otherwise faultless policies". The

reluctance of financial institutions to assist females was mentioned as a stumbling block. This view was in agreement with data collected in the literature.

The following specific problems were listed of female entrepreneurs who tried to obtain finance: Lack of collateral, no credit record, discrimination against women, most assets registered in husband's name, inability to qualify for loans due to stringent criteria applied by banks, lack of business and management experience. Consulting services; a small majority (57%) stated that the consulting services provided to female entrepreneurs have increased since 1995. It was emphasised, however, that this increase applied to all businesses. Serious concern was raised about the lack of coordination between service providers and the fact that capable institutions had not been sufficiently empowered by government. As consulting services are deemed an important element in the strategy interventionist approach South Africa needs, this facet has to be addressed. Training; a small majority of 57% commented that the training of female entrepreneurs had increased. However, the same percentage expressed the opinion that training in the entrepreneurial business sector had increased in general since 1995. The respondents mentioned no fewer than different training providers. This could encourage duplication, some coordination is obviously needed to ensure optimal efficiency in the small business training sector.

4.3. Suggestions on improving the training of female entrepreneurs

Specially developed entrepreneurship development programmes, training the trainers subsidising training, financial institutions including the cost of training in financing, linking training to services such as mentoring and aftercare, training being skills-based, training being sector-focused, training

being similar for males and females but open-minded as adaptations could be needed, training in life skills (planning and budgeting skills) for the less educated are needed. Infrastructure, Most of the respondents (86%) were not aware of any additional infrastructure for female entrepreneurs since 1995. Problems were mentioned with regard to the infrastructure for female entrepreneurs in rural areas, for example water, electricity, roads, communication and business sites, but no specific urban deficiencies were mentioned. It was pointed out that women in the rural areas faced the same problems as men, except that the position of women was worse because of land ownership restrictions. Some of the respondents commented that the ownership problem should be addressed by the Department of Land Affairs. It was suggested that partnerships be formed between infrastructure providers to improve the position in general, and that the GEAR programme be should be “geared up”. Based on the strategic interventionist point of view mentioned in the literature, infrastructure has to be attended to. Half the respondents were not aware of special projects since 1995 to encourage the development of female entrepreneurs. This response could be attributed to insufficient marketing of these projects, as the respondents who had been aware of such projects mentioned no fewer than 11 projects. These projects have to be promoted better.

4.4. Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter attempted to discuss the tools and strategies that may be utilised to improve the participation of women in forestry. It was established in this chapter that there is a relationship between discrimination and empowerment. Addressing problems such as lack of collateral and credit history (World Bank Group, 1999), Buttner (1993) found that collateral requirements for female entrepreneurs in Canada were higher than for men. A similar trend was

identified in South Africa (White Paper, 1995). The purpose of this study is to reduce discrimination and becoming strategic in supporting women entrepreneurship in forestry, and not to impede their growth. It is highlighted in this chapter that opportunities for women entrepreneurs are available, but accessing these opportunities is difficult. The NSBC's role was to strengthen small-business associations and create a platform for SMMEs to have a say in government policy (Ndwandwe, 1998).

The NSBC does not indicate a component, especially for women to have an input in government policy in order to address their needs directly as women. This chapter pointed out that men are still dominating as advanced entrepreneurs, and this is evident in the data on female-owned businesses which are very limited (Churchill, 1992), and the need for further research on female entrepreneurs has been identified as long ago as the early 1980s (Kasarda, 1992). The chapter indicated the need for an increase in the women entrepreneur database. This chapter has focused on transformation in forestry, by navigating through stakeholders which are available for financing. The general argument of this chapter was that there are facilities created to assist women and to reduce the element of discrimination and allow them access to the world of entrepreneurship. The current chapter has dealt with suggestions on improving the training of female entrepreneurs; the White Paper made special reference to the development of female entrepreneurs, (White Paper, 1995). Thus, the following chapter will allude to the empowerment and ability of women in forestry.

Chapter 5: Empowerment and Ability of Women in Forestry

“The task of leadership is not to put passion into people, but to inspire and elicit it... ..for the passion is there already” (Zig-Zigler, 2015).

5.1. Introduction

Economic empowerment is the capacity of women and men to participate in, contribute to and benefit from growth processes in ways which recognise the value of their contributions, respect their dignity and make it possible to negotiate a fairer distribution of the benefits of growth (Eyben et al., 2008). This chapter addresses the fact that, for the forestry sector to be transformed, women need to be empowered and obtain the ability to undertake any type of forestry work. In addition, economic empowerment needs to be accompanied with skills training for transformation to occur. The focus of this chapter is on the view that women empowerment in forestry is still short, and the transformation tool, that is the forestry charter and empowerment strategies need to be effective. The elements of the forest scorecard are as follows: The Forest Sector has made a commitment to a target of 30% Black ownership by 2019. A certain percentage is also allocated to women.

The previous chapter has argued that women discrimination should be reduced in order for empowerment in the forestry sector to bloom. This chapter argues that the forestry industry needs to intervene through various strategies and open room for women in the daily business of forestry. The information available to analyse gender differences in the forest sector is largely anecdotal (often from case studies), although several initiatives – including the FAO-Finland Forestry

Programme and FAO's National Forest Monitoring and Assessment Programme – are under way to develop rigorous gender-specific indicators to support forest policies and programmes. The current chapter argues that women empowerment is not adequately addressed to manifest growth or improvement in forestry; hence programmes need to be activated as alluded to by FAO- Finland Forestry Programme.

The chapter seeks to offer that, forestry stakeholders may have means to empower women, The World Bank Action Plan (2006) Gender Equality as Smart Economics argues that economic empowerment is about making markets work for women and empowering women to compete in markets. This chapter highlights that there is a link between women empowerment and the ability to work, cope in forestry. Since the study advocates that there are many empowerment tools for women which may be utilised. This study argues that when women are empowered, this will also improve economic growth. Allie and Human (1997:8) found that although 72 per cent of micro-enterprises were owned by women, both internal and external obstacles impacted on the success of these businesses. These obstacles ranged from basic life skills of women entrepreneurs (self-confidence), assertiveness, self –motivation, achievement orientation, reliability and communication skills, to the virtual absence of mentorship opportunities and marketing and basic holistic management. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to navigate and examine transformation in forestry and its implication for women.

5.2. The imperative of women's economic empowerment

Women's economic empowerment is a prerequisite for sustainable development and proper growth. Achieving women's economic empowerment requires sound public policies, a holistic approach and long-term commitment and gender-specific perspectives must be integrated at the design stage of policy and programming. Women must have more equitable access to assets and

services; infrastructure programmes should be designed to benefit the poor, both men and women, and employment opportunities must be improved while increasing recognition of women's vast unpaid work. Innovative approaches and partnerships include increased dialogue among development actors, improved co-ordination amongst donors and support for women organising at the national and global level. Women's economic empowerment is a prerequisite for sustainable development, pro-poor growth and the achievement of all the MDGs. At the same time it is about rights and equitable societies.

There is scope for increasing donor investments in women's economic empowerment. Achieving women's economic empowerment is not a "quick fix". It will take sound public policies, a holistic approach and long-term commitment from all development actors. It is advisable to start with women by integrating gender-specific perspectives at the design stage of policy and programming. More equitable access to assets and services – land, water, technology, innovation and credit, banking and financial services – will strengthen women's rights, increase agricultural productivity, reduce hunger and promote economic growth. Infrastructure programmes should be designed to maximise poor women's and men's access to the benefits of roads, transportation services, telecommunications, energy and water. Women experience barriers in almost every aspect of work. Employment opportunities need to be improved. At the same time women perform the bulk of unpaid care work. This is an area for greater attention by development actors through increased recognition and valuing of the ways in which care work supports thriving economies.

Innovative approaches and partnerships are needed to scale up women's economic empowerment. We recognise that gender equality, the empowerment of women, women's full enjoyment of all human rights and the eradication of poverty are essential to economic and social development, including the achievement of all the Millennium Development Goals. Economic empowerment is the capacity of women and men to participate in, contribute to and benefit from growth processes

in ways which recognise the value of their contributions, respect their dignity and make it possible to negotiate a fairer distribution of the benefits of growth (Eyben et al., 2008). Economic empowerment increases women's access to economic resources and opportunities including jobs, financial services, property and other productive assets, skills development and market information. Women's economic participation and empowerment are fundamental to strengthening women's rights and enabling women to have control over their lives and exert influence in society. It is about creating just and equitable societies. Women often face discrimination and persistent gender inequalities, with some women experiencing multiple discrimination and exclusion because of factors such as ethnicity or caste. The economic empowerment of women is a prerequisite for sustainable development, pro-poor growth and the achievement of all the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Gender equality and empowered women are catalysts for multiplying development efforts. Investments in gender equality yield the highest returns of all development investments (OECD, 2010). Women usually invest a higher proportion of their earnings in their families and communities than men. A study in Brazil showed that the likelihood of a child's survival increased by 20% when the mother controlled household income. Increasing the role of women in the economy is part of the solution to the financial and economic crises and critical for economic resilience and growth. However, at the same time, we need to be mindful that women are in some contexts bearing the costs of recovering from higher female earnings. Limited bargaining power translates into greater investment in children's education, health and nutrition, which leads to economic growth in the long term. The share of women in waged and salaried work grew from 42% in 1997 to 46% in 2007.

In India, GDP could rise by 8% if the female/male ratio of workers went up by 10%. Total agricultural outputs in Africa could increase by up to 20% if women's access to agricultural inputs

was equal to men's. Women-owned businesses comprise up to 38% of all registered small businesses worldwide. The number of women-owned businesses in Africa, Asia, Eastern Europe and Latin America is growing rapidly and, with that growth, come direct impacts on job creation and poverty reduction. Achieving women's economic empowerment is not a "quick fix". It will take sound public policies, a holistic approach and long-term commitment from all development actors. Women's economic empowerment is both a right and "smart economics". Development actors need to reach and enhance opportunities for the poorest of the poor and women in remote communities. "Picking winners" is not enough. Some issues relating to women's economic empowerment are particularly challenging or sensitive. These challenges need to be acknowledged and discussed. It will take sound policies, a holistic approach and long-term commitment from all development actors to achieve women's economic empowerment. It will never be a "quick fix". In recent years many donors (both bilateral and multilateral) have approached their gender equality work from the perspective of "the high returns" of investing aid in women and girls, reflecting the "smart economics" of the World Bank's Gender Action Plan.

This so-called instrumentalist" approach is often presented as directly opposed to, or undermining, a "rights"/social justice approach. Good practice in pro-poor growth is about addressing these goals as mutually supportive rather than as mutually exclusive. For example, women's economic rights can be strengthened by improving national administrative and legal frameworks relating to land, inheritance and property rights. Evidence suggests that donors and multilaterals are struggling with aspects of women's economic empowerment and tend towards approaches such as microcredit schemes or supporting women entrepreneurs who would have been successful anyway. The challenge is to reach poor women who are landless labourers, smallholder agricultural producers, cross-border traders and factory and domestic workers and ensure that these women have access to the opportunities and benefits of economic growth and trade. There are specific challenges when working with the poorest women such as: lower levels of literacy, lower levels of access to and

control over resources, lower levels of access to networks and people who can assist and support, and greater vulnerability to sexual exploitation and abuse at the community level, if not the household level (Mayoux, 2009).

Such constraints require donors to take account of the specific needs of the poorest women in the design of programmes, including investments in infrastructure, such as roads and telecommunications. As farmers, processors and traders, women supply local, regional and international markets with a wide range of goods. The enduring perception of farmers as male – in the face of all evidence to the contrary – is an important obstacle to the improvement of agricultural production and productivity. The persistence of gender inequalities directly result in poorer agricultural and human development outcomes. A study conducted in four African countries showed that providing women farmers with the same quantity and quality of inputs that men typically receive, and improving their access to agricultural education, could increase national agricultural output and incomes by an estimated 10 to 20% (World Bank, 2005). Several bilateral and multilateral donors and private sector funders have prioritised support for women entrepreneurs. With increasing urbanisation, many rural areas in African countries and elsewhere are becoming more market oriented. Linking rural producers to urban markets is one way donors and governments can expand women's business opportunities. However, when designing programmes donors need to ask: will support for women's enterprises result in enhanced employment and self-employment opportunities for women living in poverty? Or will it only benefit those who would have prospered anyway?

Microfinance – including microcredits – is often considered to be an instrument that promotes empowerment. Whilst it can stabilise livelihoods, broaden choices, provide start-up funds for productive investment, help poor people to smooth consumption flows and send children to school, it can also lead to indebtedness and increased exclusion unless programmes are well designed.

Taking a holistic approach to women's economic empowerment, social and political factors have a significant influence on women's ability to participate in the economy. These include: access to family planning and other healthcare services; social protection coverage; girls' completion of a quality post-primary education; improving literacy rates of adult women; and, increasing women's influence in governance structures and political decision-making. Many of these dimensions are mutually dependent and reinforcing. Cultural barriers, including discriminatory practices and attitudes, also need to be actively identified and tackled. Culture and tradition: in all countries, expectations about attributes and behaviours appropriate to women or men are shaped by culture, tradition and history. The general pattern is that women have less personal autonomy, fewer resources at their disposal, and limited influence over the decision-making processes that shape their societies and their own lives. Donor strategies can strengthen women's ability to formulate and advocate their own visions for their societies – including interpretations and changes to cultural and gender norms. Educating girls is one of the most powerful tools for women's empowerment. Education provides women with the knowledge, skills and self-confidence they need to seek out economic opportunities. Removing school fees and providing financial incentives for girls to attend school have proven to be effective for increasing girls' enrolment and completion rates.

Key measures include building schools close to remote communities, ensuring that schools have quality teachers – both female and male – and adequate sanitary facilities, and that they are safe places for girls. Well-designed vocational training leads to better paid work, and does not concentrate women in low-wage and low-skill work or reinforce occupational segregation between women and men (Tornqvist and Schmitz, 2009). Reproductive and sexual health: improving women's health strengthens their economic empowerment. Access to sexual and reproductive information and services (including information about HIV transmission) and reduced rates of early marriages will increase women's chances of finishing education and breaking out of poverty. Access to health services can be improved by reducing user costs, providing transport and

strengthening the accountability of service providers. Donors can also support maternal and obstetric services and help improve the availability of skilled attendants at births (Irish Aid, 2010).

Unpaid care contributes to economic growth through a labour force that is fit, productive and capable of learning and creativity but it also drains the market of its (female) work force. It has been estimated that if care work were assigned a monetary value it would constitute between 10% and 39% of GDP (OECD, 2010). The care economy and its economic value need to become much more important elements in debates within the international development community. Gender-responsive public policies are necessary ultimately, a country's success in empowering women will depend on a multi-faceted and responsive approach to its public policy management and implementation, including its macro-economic, financial and trade policies. Public financial management: Public financial management (PFM) covers a country's entire budget cycle from strategic planning to audit oversight. To support women's economic empowerment, it is essential to incorporate a gender equality perspective into PFM systems.

Gender-responsive PFM ensures that resources are efficiently allocated based on identified needs, and revenues and expenditures are structured to benefit both women and men. For example, in the Philippines, a minimum of 5% of national and local government budgets is expected to be allocated to activities supporting gender equality. The Department of Environment and Natural Resources has been able to mobilise the funds needed to address organisational concerns and to ensure capacity for research, design and monitoring of gender equality projects in the department (OECD, 2010). Social protection: social protection enhances the capacity of poor and vulnerable people to escape from poverty and to better manage risks and shocks. Social protection measures include social insurance, cash transfers and minimum labour standards (OECD, 2009). Public works schemes such as the Productive Safety Net Programme in Ethiopia can help to reduce gender inequalities in the household, in the labour market and at the community level (Holmes & Jones,

2011). Cash transfers: Cash transfers are an effective means of combating poverty. Conditional Cash Transfers (CCTs) provide mothers of school age children in extreme poverty with a cash subsidy conditional on children's attendance at school and health clinics.

Well-designed CCTs may give women a steady source of income and encourage a more equitable sharing of caring responsibilities within the household. Otherwise, CCTs can risk increasing women's time burden and reinforcing existing gender divisions of labour where fathers are not involved in child-rearing responsibilities (Molyneux, 2009). Trade liberalisation and the changing characteristics of economic activity have created benefits for women but to a lesser degree than for men. Reasons for this are women's limited access to resources and institutional and societal factors, determined to a large extent by informal institutions (OECD, 2009). Gender equality focused donor investments in trade support and in building trade policy capability, are relatively low. One overlooked group is informal cross-border traders – the majority of whom are women. They lack legal frameworks and face challenging and hostile working environments, including poor transportation, complicated customs procedures and a lack of safe and cheap accommodation. Ironically, because women are more persistent in enduring harassment by border officials, they actually seem to cope with the challenges of informal cross-border trade better than men (Matorofa, 2008).

Start with women by integrating gender-specific perspectives at the design stage of policy and programming. More equitable access to assets and services – land, water, technology, innovation and credit, banking and financial services – will strengthen women's rights, increase agricultural productivity, reduce hunger and promote economic growth. Infrastructure programmes should be designed to maximise poor women's and men's access to the benefits of roads, transportation services, telecommunications, energy and water. Women experience barriers in almost every aspect of work. Employment opportunities need to be improved. At the same time women perform the

bulk of unpaid care work. This is an area for greater attention by development actors. Integrating gender-specific perspectives at the design stage of policy and programming – starting with women – is an over-arching good practice for both donors and recipient countries. This means specifying gender equality as a goal in policies, strategies, budgets, programmes and projects, as well as identifying unintended consequences and risks for women.

The forestry is policy guidance note highlights a few sectors and areas that are particularly relevant to women's economic empowerment. It introduces key issues to address, provides examples of innovative approaches, and suggests ways in which donors could strengthen their practice. As with all development programming, it is critically important for donors to understand the context in a given region or country, and to support existing frameworks and plans that governments have in place to address gender equality in central and line ministries and at local and community levels. Interventions need to vary according to countries' different development needs and whether they are stable or fragile/conflict-affected. In low-income countries, women's access to basic agricultural inputs and microfinance will continue to be needed, whilst in transition countries, the focus needs to be on labour market skills, access to commercial credit and women's entrepreneurship (Buvinic et al., 2010). The recent financial, food and fuel crises have led to renewed attention by donors to agriculture, food security and rural development. Women are major players in agriculture, making up the majority of farmers and farm labourers in many countries. Women produce most of the food that is consumed locally and are responsible for household food security in many rural areas. More equitable access to land, fertilisers, water for irrigation, seeds, technology, tools, livestock and extension services would make agriculture a more efficient means of promoting shared economic growth, reducing poverty and improving food security and rural livelihoods (Buvinic et al, 2010).

However, compared to men, women operate smaller farms; keep fewer livestock, typically of smaller breeds, and earn less from the livestock they do own; have a greater overall workload that includes low-productivity activities like fetching water and firewood; have less access to innovation and productive assets and services; are much less likely to purchase inputs such as fertilisers, improved seeds and mechanical equipment; have weaker property rights and tenure security and reduced incentives to invest in their land; are poorly represented in the leadership of rural organisations, particularly at the regional and national level; if employed, are more likely to be in part-time, seasonal and low-paying jobs; and receive lower wages for the same work, even when they have the same experience and qualifications. According to the Food and Agriculture Organisation, closing the gender gap in agriculture would generate significant gains for the agricultural sector and for society. If women had the same access to productive resources as men, they could increase yields on their farms by 20-30%. This could raise total agricultural output in developing countries by 2.5-4%, which could in turn reduce the number of hungry people in the world by 12-17%. Research commissioned by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation also shows that by increasing women's participation in smallholder sourcing and support programmes, international food companies can improve crop productivity and quality, grow the smallholder supply base, and improve access to high-value markets (Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, 2010).

Access to tools, innovations and agricultural extension services technology can enhance women's productivity, economic decision-making power and their entrepreneurial opportunities. Technologies such as fuel-efficient stoves or motorised scooters and other time-saving products are particularly important. Improving women's access to innovations and extension services would increase agricultural productivity. Yet, across countries and contexts, women have less access than men to agricultural assets, inputs and services (FAO, 2011). Gender gaps exist for a wide range of agricultural technologies, including machines and tools, improved plant varieties and animal breeds, fertilisers, pest control measures and management techniques. Often technologies and tools

have been adapted to men's tasks or to equipment used by men, whilst women struggle with cultivation and harvesting using handheld tools (World Bank, 2009).

5.3. Making markets work better for women

Many women entrepreneurs in developing countries face disproportionate obstacles in accessing and competing in markets. These include women's relative lack of mobility, capacity and technical skills in relation to men (World Bank, 2009). The World Bank Action Plan (2006) Gender Equality as Smart Economics argues that economic empowerment is about making markets work for women and empowering women to compete in markets. Because markets come in many forms, the Action Plan targets four key markets: land, labour, financial and product (increasing access to business services and facilitating the creation of female-owned businesses) markets. Where globalisation has widened the gap between rich and poor, there is evidence that it is women and children who are most affected. The global economic recession has had a massive impact on poor producers. Donors can help ensure that globalisation and trade liberalisation benefit all – both women and men. Current barriers include some trade policies and regulations, lack of economic infrastructure and limited access to export markets. In 2007- 08 only 12% of total aid for trade policy and regulations targeted gender equality and women's empowerment (OECD, 2011).

Donors' interventions need to be responsive to international trade and investment regimes and could, for example, support fair trade initiatives. The gender dimensions of infrastructure and road building programmes are often participation in community life and decision making. Improving

rural roads, transportation facilities and services increases rural women's mobility and can increase their productivity and income by easing access to markets, thus reducing post-harvest loss of perishable goods. Improvements to rural water and irrigation systems and transportation infrastructure reduce the amount of time women spend on arduous tasks such as fetching water and tending family crops. These investments will bring returns in the form of increased women's engagement in market-based activities and greater productivity. Infrastructure programmes should be designed to maximise poor women's and men's access to the benefits of roads, telecommunications, energy and water. Infrastructure initiatives that help women to carry out everyday chores more efficiently, such as the supply of piped water, free up time for educational opportunities, productive work, and women perform the bulk of unpaid care work across all economies and cultures. In many societies, existing norms dictate that girls and women have the main responsibility for the care of children, the elderly and the sick, as well as running the household, including the provision of water and energy supplies. This undermines their chances of going to school or being able to translate returns on their own productive work into increased and more secure incomes, and better working conditions. Some unpaid care work, such as looking after family members, is valued by those undertaking it but much else is drudgery, such as water and fuel collection. Improved delivery of, and access to public services, such as health clinics and public transport can also reduce the time burden that women face (Fälth and Blackden, 2009). Women's unpaid work, particularly in the care economy, needs to be given greater attention by donors. Reducing and redistributing women's unpaid work by improving access to infrastructure and technology is one aspect but it is not the whole story.

Discriminatory social norms also need to be tackled (DFID, 2010). And there must be increased recognition and valuing of the ways in which care work supports thriving economies. The design of

donor policies and programmes can more adequately address these issues by: highlighting and helping to change attitudes and values that put the main responsibility for the home and care of children, the sick and the elderly on women and girls; designing and financing social transfers (such as conditional cash transfers) which address the inequitable gender relations of care; supporting investments in infrastructure such as water and sanitation, as well as domestic technologies that reduce the time-consuming elements of care work; developing existing services, such as pre-school health and education; and co-ordinating support for time use surveys and household labour force surveys so that there is more accurate information on women's contribution to the formal and informal economies, including the care economy.

5.4. Improving employment for women

Productive employment and decent work in developing countries, including in fragile contexts, are the main routes out of poverty for both women and men. Women's participation in the labour market can be increased by addressing the constraints and barriers women face accessing work, including public employment programmes, and by providing well focussed vocational training. Social protection measures can enhance the productivity and participation of poor women in the labour market by reducing their vulnerability to livelihood risks and economic shocks. Women experience barriers in almost every aspect of work, including: whether they have paid work at all; the type of work they obtain or are excluded from; the availability of support services such as childcare; their pay, benefits and conditions of work; the insecurity of their jobs or enterprises (ILO , 2009) and their access to vocational training (Kabeer, 2008). Effective implementation and scaling-up requires strong and innovative partnerships. Too often "women's projects" do not move

beyond the pilot phase, only ever amounting to “boutique” projects – “saving one woman at a time”. This Policy Guidance Note examines ways of scaling-up women’s economic empowerment initiatives through partnerships. Working with allies and partners in both the public and private sectors is essential for successfully addressing and scaling up women’s economic opportunities. Within donor agencies, staff working on gender equality and women’s empowerment need to work more closely with colleagues responsible for programming in rural development, agriculture, private sector development, trade and social protection.

Expanding partnerships with the private sector and the NGO community can be effective ways of leveraging support for initiatives that contribute to women’s economic empowerment. Several donors support initiatives designed to strengthen women’s opportunities and capacity to organise themselves, form associations and act collectively for their common interests. Women’s associations and civil society groups have the potential to raise the voice and visibility of women and can provide many services and benefits to their members. Through collective action, women’s associations are able to reach out to government and private sector organisations and to seek institutional support for women’s income generating activities. They are well-placed to negotiate collective loans and micro-leasing for their membership. Women in Informal Employment: Globalising and Organising (WIE GO) is a global research-policy network seeking to improve the status of the working poor, especially women, in the informal economy. It receives support from a number of donors, including Sida. Using financial assistance from the Netherlands, WIE GO has initiated a Women’s Economic Empowerment project 18 with six elements: voice for domestic workers; fair trade for women producers; organising home-based workers; market support for street vendors; occupational health and safety for working poor women; and a global assembly of poor working women.

5.5. Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter attempted to discuss the process of transformation in the forestry industry through empowering women. It also highlighted the economic empowerment which needs to be paired with skills development and training to sustain growth and inclusion of women in forestry. It also pointed out that the forestry sector is lagging behind pertaining to the empowering of women, thus the empowerment tools and strategies in the form of the forestry charter and other programmes have to be effective. This chapter has focused on the different ways of empowering women in the forestry industry and deliberated on strategies and programmes used in other countries, for example; the FAO- Finland Forestry Programme.

The general argument of this chapter was that forestry industry should create room for women to participate in forestry, but empowerment tools, programmes and policies should be implemented. The chapter indicated that there are policies and programmes in place and they should be utilised. The current chapter has dealt with empowering women, improving working employment and making markets better for women, (World Bank, 2009).

Chapter 6: Theoretical Framework

“Feminism is an entire world view or gestalt, not just a laundry list of women’s issues” (Bunch, 2015).

6.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework of the study by examining the process of transformation in the forestry sector and the implications it has on women. This study applies feminist theory in an attempt to understand the need and importance of minimising gender inequality in forestry. The core argument of the chapter is that feminist theory in this study is the primary theory; it draws its strength using other secondary theories which are the functionalist, division of labour in production and estranged labour theories, in explaining the gender inequality implication. Marxism and feminism according to Mackinnon (1989) are theories of power and both are theories of social inequality. It becomes clear that the secondary theories have a trace of gender inequality inference. The underlying argument is thus to show how women are treated in the work place due to the gender related status quo as alluded to by Mackinnon (1989). Feminism proceeds from the view that women are undermined based on their gender and that for many women this oppression is primary, whereas for others it is part of a multiplicity of oppression. This study aims to examine the progress of the transformation process in the forestry sector and the implication it has on women. Feminist theory is the primary theory in the study, and adjacent to it are secondary theories namely, the functionalist theory, division of labour in production, and estranged labour which tease out some aspect of the feminist theory.

6.2. The concept of Feminist theory

Feminism is a movement to end sexism, sexist exploitation, and oppression; it is a complex notion that has vast differences in meaning and connotation for people spanning generations, ethnic identities, sexual orientations, social classes, nationality, and myriad identities (Ropers-Huilman, 2003; Hardin et al., 2010; Tong, 2009). Feminism is not a static notion; rather it evolves with us throughout our lives and is shaped by the various lenses we use to view the world at large and, most importantly, ourselves. Feminist theory is founded on three main principles (Ropers-Huilman, 2002). Women have something valuable to contribute to every aspect of the world. As an oppressed group, women have been unable to achieve their potential, receive rewards, or gain full participation in society. Feminist research should do more than critique, but should work toward social transformation. At an Individual level attitudes and actions that reflect prejudice against a social group. Institutional policies, laws, rules, norms, and customs enacted by organizations and social institutions that disadvantage some social groups and advantage other social groups (Ropers-Huilman, 2003; Hardin et al., 2010; Tong, 2009). These institutions include religion, government, education, law, the media, and health care system. Societal/Cultural namely; social norms, roles, rituals, language, music, and art that reflect and reinforce the belief that one social group is superior to another.

Hardiman et al (2010) asserted that liberal feminism is a traditional perspective that was established as a part of the first wave of feminism. It is often the root of comparison when deconstructing contemporary conceptualizations of feminism. It argues that “society has a false belief that women are by nature less intellectually and physically capable than men” (Tong, 2009). This perspective seeks to level the playing field that would allow women to seek the same opportunities as men,

especially the opportunity to excel in various fields (Ropers-Huilman, 2003; Hardin et al., 2010; Tong, 2009). Modern liberal feminists argue that patriarchal society fuses sex and gender together, making only those jobs that are associated with the traditionally feminine appropriate for women to pursue. Radical feminism is the second most notable form of feminism. Radical feminists think liberal feminist perspectives are not drastic enough to address the centuries of individual, institutional, and systemic oppression that have ensued (Wheeler, 2002; Sellers, 2008). This can be further deconstructed into two types; libertarian radical feminism focuses on personal freedom of expression but also turns to androgyny as an option.

Cultural radical feminism expressly argues that the root cause of the problem is not femininity, but the low value that patriarchy assigns to feminine qualities (Badran, 2009; Hackman, 2010; Hewitt, 2010). If society placed a higher value on feminine qualities, then there would be less gender oppression. In this way, the volume should be ‘turned up’ on all forms of gender expression – androgyny, femininity, masculinity, and multiple forms of gender expression that is – or is not – congruent with biological sex. This lens on feminism incorporates perspectives of social justice as well as socioeconomic differences (Badran, 2009; Hackman, 2010; Hewitt, 2010). For many centuries women were considered the property of men and a key cog in the capitalist machine from a commodities perspective. Marxist feminists argue that the path to gender equality is led by the destruction of our capitalist society. This perspective speaks out to issues such as unequal pay, obstacles to achieving tenure or excelling in certain fields, and the frequent lack of family-friendly policies at many of the institutions and national organizations of higher education (Pasque, 2011; Pasque & Errington, 2011; Rampton, 2008; Roth, 2004). Socialist feminists purport that women can only achieve true freedom when working to end both economic and cultural oppression. Wheeler (2002) defined a Black feminist as a person, historically an African American woman

academic, who believes that female descendants of American slavery share a unique set of life experiences distinct from those of black men and white women. Further that the lives of African American women are oppressed by combinations of racism, sexism, classism, and heterosexism (Pasque, 2011; Pasque & Errington, 2011; Rampton, 2008; Roth, 2004).

The term Womanist is often used to describe the experiences of a woman of colour, including the intersections of race and gender. The Black Womanist feminism (or Black Feminist Thought) movement comes out of the feminist movement of the 1970's and is a direct interface with the civil rights movement, as it recognizes that women of African descent in the U.S. faced a unique set of issues that were not being addressed by the predominantly white feminist movement (Smith, 2007; Whelehan, 2000; Yang, 2003). For Native American women, the struggle for survival has specific challenges since the colonizing culture (western culture) brought misogyny with it and all the religious, social, and judicial restraints a woman-persecuting society engenders. Therefore, not only do Native American women have to face the battles any colonized people must meet, but they must fight the beliefs that render them subordinate because they are women (Smith, 2007; Whelehan, 2000; Yang, 2003). This dynamic runs entirely counter to the historic and cultural beliefs of indigenous people, so the blow to women because of their gender is particularly severe (Sellers, 2008). Native American feminism addresses sexism and promotes indigenous sovereignty simultaneously.

This perspective places a focus on the preservation of cultural identity and the role women play within the tribe as the keepers of that identity, thus insuring the culture is subsequently passed on to future generations (Smith, 2007; Whelehan, 2000; Yang, 2003). de Beauvoir (1952) developed

another conceptualization of feminism – existentialist feminism. This type of feminism puts forth the knowingly controversial idea that prostitution empowers women both financially and within the general hierarchy of society. When compared to Marxist and socialist feminism, the contrast with this type of entrepreneurial spirit is distinct (Smith, 2007; Whelehan, 2000; Yang, 2003). Central to this perspective is the concept that one is not born a woman but becomes a woman. de Beauvoir (1952) emphasizes that women must transcend their natural position and choose economic, personal, and social freedom. Multicultural feminists suggest that in a nation like the United States every woman has different intersecting identities and therefore, is not alike with any other woman (Flood et al, 1997). This lens on feminism takes into account a number of different interconnected identities and influences; it is sometimes utilized as an umbrella through which many various perspectives can be considered (Govender, 1999). Notably, some argue that this is not a useful umbrella for myriad feminist perspectives that are historically and culturally distinct, as it collapses groups and divorces itself from a focus on a specific race, geographic region, and/or unifying language (Govender, 1999).

All societies are structured around relatively stable patterns that establish how social interaction will be carried out. One of the most important social structures that organize social interaction is status—a category or position a person occupies that is a significant determinant of how she or he will be defined and treated. We acquire statuses by achievement, through our own efforts, or by ascription, being born into them or attaining them involuntarily at some other point in the life cycle (Hicks et al, 1997). We occupy a number of statuses simultaneously, referred to as a status set, such as mother, daughter, attorney, patient, employee, and passenger. In comparison to achieving statuses occurring later in life, ascribed statuses are those immediately impacting virtually every aspect of our lives (Vilakazi-Tselane, 1998). The most important ascribed statuses are gender, race,

and social class. Since a status is simply a position within a social system, it should not be confused with rank or prestige. There are high-prestige statuses as well as low-prestige statuses (Vilakazi-Tselane, 1998). In the United States, for example, a physician occupies a status ranked higher in prestige than a secretary.

All societies categorize members by status and then rank these statuses in some fashion, thereby creating a system of social stratification. People whose status sets are comprised of low-ranked ascribed statuses more than high-ranked achieved statuses are near the bottom of the social stratification system and vulnerable to social stigma, prejudice, and discrimination. To date, there is no known society in which the status of female is consistently ranked higher than that of male (Lolwana, 1993). A role is the expected behaviour associated with a status. Roles are performed according to social norms, shared rules that guide people's behaviour in specific situations (Lolwana, 1993). Social norms determine the privileges and responsibilities a status possesses. Females and males, mothers and fathers, and daughters and sons are all statuses with different normative role requirements attached to them. The status of mother calls for expected roles involving love, nurturing, self-sacrifice, home-making, and availability (SADC, 1997). The status of father calls for expected roles of breadwinner, disciplinarian, home technology expert, and ultimate decision maker in the household. Society allows for a degree of flexibility in acting out roles, but in times of rapid social change, acceptable role limits are often in a state of flux, producing uncertainty about what appropriate role behaviour should be (Taylor, 1997).

People may experience anomie—normlessness—because traditional norms have changed but new ones have yet to be developed. For example, the most important twentieth-century trend impacting

gender roles in the United States is the massive increase of women in the labour force (Wee & Heyzer, 1995). Although women from all demographic categories contributed to these numbers, mothers with preschool children led the trek from unpaid home-based roles to full-time paid employment roles (Wee & Heyzer, 1995). In acting out the roles of mother and employee, women are expected to be available at given times to satisfy the needs of family and workplace. Because workplaces and other social institutions have not been modified in meaningful ways to account for the new statuses women occupy, their range of acceptable role behaviour is severely restricted (World Bank, 1995). As a result, family and workplace roles inevitably collide and compete with one another for the mother—employee's time and attention (Bunch & Maynon, 1974).

6.3. Major Concepts of gender

As key components of social structure, statuses and roles allow us to organize our lives in consistent, predictable ways. In combination with established norms, they prescribe our behaviour and ease interaction with people who occupy different social statuses, whether we know these people or not (Dzama, 2001). There is an insidious side to this kind of predictable world. When normative role behaviour becomes too rigidly defined, our freedom of action is often compromised. These rigid definitions are associated with the development of stereotypes—oversimplified conceptions that people who occupy the same status group share certain traits in common (Dzama, 2001). Although stereotypes can include positive traits, they most often consist of negative ones that are then used to justify discrimination against members of a given group. The statuses of male and female are often stereotyped according to the traits they are assumed to possess by virtue of their biological makeup. Women are stereotyped as flighty and unreliable because they possess uncontrollable raging hormones that fuel unpredictable emotional outbursts (Fiedler, 2001). The assignment of negative stereotypes can result in sexism, the belief that the status of female is inferior to the status of male. Males are not immune to the negative consequences of sexism, but

females are more likely to experience it because the status sets they occupy are more stigmatized than those occupied by males. Compared to males, for example, females are more likely to occupy statuses inside and outside their homes that are associated with less power, less prestige, and less pay or no pay (Fiedler, 2001; Dzama, 2001). Beliefs about inferiority due to biology are reinforced and then used to justify discrimination directed toward females.

Sexism is perpetuated by systems of patriarchy, male-dominated social structures leading to the oppression of women. Patriarchy, by definition, exhibits androcentric male-centered norms operating throughout all social institutions that become the standard to which all persons adhere (Fiedler, 2001; Dzama, 2001). Sexism is reinforced when patriarchy and androcentric norms combine to perpetuate beliefs that gender roles are biologically determined and therefore unalterable. For example, throughout the developing world beliefs about a woman's biological unsuitability for roles other than domestic ones have restricted opportunities for education and achieving literacy (Fiedler, 2001; Dzama, 2001). These restrictions have made men the guardians of what has been written, disseminated, and interpreted regarding gender and the placement of men and women in society. Until recently, history has been recorded from an androcentric perspective that ignored the other half of humanity (Flexner, 1975; Kanjo, 2001). This perspective has perpetuated the belief that patriarchy is an inevitable, inescapable fact of history, so struggles for gender equality are doomed to failure. Women's gain in education is associated with the power to engage in the research and scholarship offering alternatives to prevailing androcentric views. We will see that such scholarship suggests that patriarchal systems may be universal, but they are not inevitable, and that gender egalitarianism was a historical fact of life in some cultures and is a contemporary fact of life in others (Flexner, 1975; Kanjo, 2001).

6.4. Waves of Feminism

As an organised social movement, feminism really only took off in late nineteenth century in Europe, Australasia and North America, though women had long been active in political campaigns, especially for the abolition of slavery (Klein, 1987; Lennon & Witford, 1994). The women suffrage movement campaigned for votes for women in methods that transcended party lines and social class divisions, involving large demonstrations and periodic civil disobedience (Klein, 1987; Lennon & Witford, 1994). The suffragettes also called for equal civil rights for women, equalization of property rights and legal standing, and the eradication of restrictions on educational opportunities for women, especially in universities (Klein, 1987; Lennon & Witford, 1994). They also argued that women should be able to enter the professions and have careers in their own right. The mobilization of women into factories in many of the participating countries in World War I strengthened the credibility of women's rights in the workplace. However, after the end of the world war women were generally moved back out of workplaces. Opportunities in universities and the professions remained highly restricted (Klein, 1987; Lennon & Witford, 1994).

A huge number of women brains and strength is underutilised based on the current status quo of women. Second wave feminism stressed not just formal parity between the sexes, but also that women should have equality in careers, life chances, pay and political representation. Mothers should not have to sacrifice their professions to nurture children, nor should women have to give up work to care for sick or elderly parents. Housework and parenting should be shared equally (Macridis, 1992; Mill, 1989). Women should no longer be judged by their appearance nor treated as sexual objects, in pornography or elsewhere. Forestry, as a career, has been deliberately concealed for a very long time in South Africa and the other parts of the world. Women were placed at mere clerical functions and withheld from the authentic and lucrative fragment of Forestry as a business (Macridis, 1992; Mill, 1989). The business unit of Forestry has been

camouflaged as a male based business. In Universities and Forestry colleges, career guidance on Forestry was propelled towards males only. Post 1994, South Africa initiated transformation which also included tertiary institutions. This has been a thought-provoking journey for most South Africans in that, the ruling party had to enforce implementation and transformation by putting transformation agents in critical, senior positions to guarantee expedited change. Change in policy in response to this agenda comprised of legislation for equal pay and career opportunity, subsidized or government-provided child care, reforms in family law, and more equal pension rights. Substantial pay gaps between men and women with the same qualifications remain. Above all, the reforms that improved the lot of women in developed liberal democracies have not spread to the rest of the world, and in many societies women remain subject to extreme forms of oppression.

Tucker (1978) elaborates on the analysis by Marx and Engels in 'The Origin of Family, Private Property and the State.', Marx observes, the position of the goddesses in mythology represents an earlier period, when women still occupied a freer and more respected place, in the Heroic Age we already find women degraded owing to the predominance of the man and the competition of female slaves (Ropers-Huilman, 2003; Hardin et al., 2010; Tong, 2009). One may read in the Odyssey how Telemachus cuts his mother short and enjoins silence upon her. In Homer the young female captives become the objects of the sensual lust of the victors; the military chiefs, one after the other, according to the rank, choose the most beautiful ones for themselves (Ropers-Huilman, 2003; Hardin et al., 2010; Tong, 2009). The researcher is of the opinion that this is a portrayal of the possibility of women occupying valued positions in the earlier epoch, and also validates that women may still be valued and trusted in their work place or entrepreneurship roles (Ropers-Huilman, 2003; Hardin et al., 2010; Tong, 2009).

6.5. Strengths and weaknesses of the feminist theory

Africa's contemporary socio-political scene depicts theoretical and practical confusion of gender with feminism or, for that matter, gender with broad emancipatory movements, such as African womanist, which nonetheless use gender theory as an intellectual tool for critical analysis for the supposedly discriminatory social, religious and political organisational structures (Fiedler, 2001; Rampton, 2008; Smith, 2007; Rasque, 2011). Feminist thinkers loathe these structures because they see in them deliberate mechanisms for oppressing or marginalising women. This oppression of women characterises the present economic in egalitarianism in a male-dominated status quo (Fiedler, 2001; Rampton, 2008; Smith, 2007; Rasque, 2011). Consequently, it is argued that these male-founded and male-dominated structures can only be changed so as to render them balanced or equitable if and only if revolutionary measures are employed. The usual elements of such arguers form a class of people called feminist ideologues. Feminist ideologues are those people, male and female, minority or majority in one country, who share the ideas or beliefs or attitudes of male-dominance over women (Yang, 2003; Hewitt, 2010; Badran, 2009; Wheeler, 2002; Sellers, 2008). They tend to look at society in one way; they are certainly unhappy, dissatisfied and critical of what they see around them as compared to what they would like to see. The rational justification of their discontent and critical attitude is quite another thing. Insofar as feminism comprises people, who share one set of ideas or beliefs or attitudes as a group or community and who are (radically) organised, feminism is an ideology, which is posited to displace the prevailing male-dominated ideology (Yang, 2003; Hewitt, 2010; Badran, 2009; Wheeler, 2002; Sellers, 2008). It is the core of an ideology or the ideological core, which is the most difficult part to change because it is the worldview of the people. The ideological core consists of the core ideas, core beliefs, or core attitudes of a people.

By implication, if the core ideas, beliefs, or attitudes are purged out then the people's practical reality is annihilated. The revolutionary spirit is germane to any feminist ideologue because he or she believes that lasting and effective change must be moral and intellectual (Flood et al. 1997). These detested moral and intellectual values are in-built in society so that their removal or reduction calls for a drastic revolutionary overhaul of the whole social fabric (Hadrin et al, 2010). This drastic revolutionary overhaul of society must be no less than a critique of the prevailing ideology because it purports to be subject to intellectual scrutiny, and eventually refute or reject prevailing ideas, beliefs, or attitudes, which are rationally unjustified or prejudicial to the position of women in society (Hadrin et al, 2010). The feminist ideology purports to create its own better ideas, beliefs, or attitudes. In other words, feminist ideology creates its own counter-consciousness, and eventually its own counterculture. This counterculture comprises a new set of beliefs and a new style of life that is intended or hoped to challenge and eventually expose the inadequacy of the prevailing culture (Smith, 2007). Only when the ideological core of the prevailing culture is removed and replaced by a new ideological core can lasting and effective change occur, any change less than that involving the ideological core, is superficial or transitory (Smith, 2007).

In a nutshell, feminism challenges the prevailing status quo and develops a counter-ideology that questions the prevailing status quo and then attempts to modify it. Feminism advocates change rather than order. It criticises the regime in power and existing social and economic arrangements (Tylor, 1997). It advances schemes for restructuring and reordering society. It generates political movements in the form of women's movements in order to gain enough power and influence to effect the changes it advocates. Feminism is an ideology of action for it motivates people to demand changes in their lifestyles and to modify the existing social, religious, political, and economic relations.

It also mobilises its followers and adherents to preserve what they value (Whelehan, 2000). Ultimately, feminism is political and revolutionary; the revolutionary tinge of feminism has historically at times sanctioned the use of violence, which has not precluded bloodshed (Whelehan, 2000). Gender thinking adopts this feminist stance, with little or no modification or retouching and with few or no disclaimers, so that it is conventional gender thinking to posit men as the perpetrators of female-oppression and discrimination in a society which is viewed as male-dominated, a society in which this sad scenario is ingrained in the fabric of the prevailing political regimes, and where the social, religious, political and economic relations and structures are arranged so as to embrace and promote inequality between men and women (Pasque & Errington, 2011; Hackman, 2010; Hardin et al, 2010). The result is that the gender paradigm centrally addresses the problems of equality and liberty rights, more or less zeroing in on a variant of welfare-state ideology. Gender thinkers see no need to take caution in distinguishing gender-ism from feminism. Feminism is taken for granted as the appropriate seed and vehicle of gender.

In contemporary literary circles, the philosophical presuppositions of gender thinking and practice are not put to a litmus test because testing gender implies testing feminism, which, in any case, has withstood many a crucial test as evidenced by its record of persistence and triumph especially in Europe, Great Britain, America, Canada, and Australia (Pasque & Errington, 2011; Hackman, 2010; Hardin et al, 2010). This being the case, the cogency of popular gender-isms can only be tested, or critiqued, against cross-cultural objectivity. This paper argues that the lack of demarcation between gender and feminism leads to confusion of western feminism with gender (Pasque & Errington, 2011; Hackman, 2010; Hardin et al, 2010). By grounding itself in feminist ideology, gender inherits most of the weaknesses and shortfalls of western feminism. Gender finds its impetus and modes of expression in western feminism. Therefore, Africa needs to rethink a specific gender, which is appropriate to the African situation in this new millennium (Pasque & Errington, 2011; Hackman, 2010; Hardin et al, 2010).

6.6. The concept of functionalist theory

Structural functionalism, or basically functionalism, is a skeleton for building hypotheses that sees society as an issue framework whose parts cooperate to promote solidarity and strength. In the social sciences, institutions are the structures and mechanisms of social order and cooperation governing the behaviour of a set of individuals within a given human society collectively (Yakkaldevi, 2014; Adams & Sydnie, 2001). Institutions include the family, religion, peer group, economic systems, legal systems, penal systems, language, and the media. Functionalists accept that without aggregate imparted qualities and convictions, accomplishing social request is outlandish and social request is critical for the prosperity of society (Yakkaldevi, 2014; Adams & Sydnie, 2001). They accept that esteem agreement structures the fundamental coordinating rule in the public eye. Also if parts of society have imparted qualities they subsequently likewise have comparative personalities, this helps collaboration and evades clash. Esteem accord likewise guarantees that individuals have imparted: - Goals, Roles and Norms. Standards can be portrayed as particular rules of fitting conduct; for instance, lining when purchasing things (Aoki, 2000; Ayukwa, 2000; Ellis, 2003). Institutions like religion and the family can be replaced with alternatives such as ideologies like communism and as argued that they would still be able to perform the same functions in society. Functionalists accept that there are four primary essential needs that an individual requires to exist in the public eye (Frankfort-Nachinians & Leon-Guerrero, 2003). They likewise accept that these four fundamental needs are vital for keeping up social request. They are: sustenance, haven, cash and garments. Training transmits society's standards and qualities. Instruction unites a mass, and transforms them into a united entirety which prompts social solidarity.

Parsons (1961) accepts that instruction prompts universalistic qualities and that training performs a connection in the middle of family and the more extensive society which thusly prompts auxiliary

socialization. Instruction likewise permits individuals to prepare for their future parts in the public eye (Frankfort-Nachinians & Leon-Guerrero, 2003). Schools ingrain the estimation of accomplishment and the estimation of correspondence of chance. Instruction helps match individuals with occupations suited to them. The family gives four indispensable capacities to society: sexual, regenerative, monetary and instructive. The family is the essential purpose of socialization in that it gives youngsters qualities and standards (Irwin, 2001; Konradi & Schmidt, 2001; Loseke, 2003; Mills, 2000). Family likewise settles grown-up identities. A family unit gives enthusiastic security to every individual in the relationship. The media works in the general population's enthusiasm by reflecting the diversions of the crowd.

It depicts general assessment (Irwin, 2001; Konradi & Schmidt, 2001; Loseke, 2003; Mills, 2000). The media comprehends that society has a wide assorted qualities of society and this is demonstrated by the distinctive measures of stories which it covers. There is such a thing as society, and that it is this entity called society that creates crime and deviance (Irwin, 2001; Konradi & Schmidt, 2001; Loseke, 2003; Mills, 2000). Crime and deviance are socially constructed - they are not natural, obvious, or theologically inspired categories. They are concepts that were brought into the world solely by humankind. Definitions of crime and deviance are linked into a wider social structure. Religion helps the social structure and prosperity of society. It does this by showing qualities and agreement (Irwin, 2001; Konradi & Schmidt, 2001; Loseke, 2003; Mills, 2000). Durkheim found that tokenism was the most fundamental type of religion with little gatherings utilizing images, for example, plants or creatures. Durkheim saw social life as difficult to attain without the imparted qualities and standards accomplished through aggregate still, small voice. Religion accompanies values and standards that are imparted between gatherings (Proctor & Dalaker, 2003; Ritzer, 2000; Oaki, 2000). These aides fortify the joining of society. Parsons contended that religious convictions give rules and that these rules create general standards and good convictions which give steadiness and request to society.

Talcott Parsons put stock in quality agreement. Force is utilized to attain aggregate objectives, e.g. material success (Proctor & Dalaker, 2003; Ritzer, 2000; Oaki, 2000). Everyone profits from force (a variable entirety of force). Power is typically acknowledged as authentic by the greater part as it serves to accomplish aggregate objectives (Proctor & Dalaker, 2003; Ritzer, 2000; Oaki, 2000). Functionalism is the point of view in human science as per which society comprises of distinctive however related parts, each of which fills a specific need. As indicated by functionalism, sociologists can clarify social structures and social conduct as far as the segments of a general public and their capacities (Tucker, 1978; Mackinnon, 1989; Abbot et al, 2005). Auguste Comte helped create functionalism in the nineteenth century, and functionalist Emile Durkheim later contrasted society with the human body. Pretty much as the body comprises of diverse, interrelated organs that empower it to survive, society comprises of distinctive parts that empower it to survive and which rely upon one another (Tucker, 1978; Mackinnon, 1989; Abbot et al, 2005). Case in point, legal frameworks help keep up request, and schools instruct kids. Issues in a solitary piece of society can upset the entirety. The functionalist point of view, likewise called functionalism, is one of the major hypothetical viewpoints in social science (Tucker, 1978; Mackinnon, 1989; Abbot et al, 2005). It has its birthplaces in the works of Emile Durkheim, who was particularly intrigued by how social request is conceivable or how society remains generally steady (Dryzeck & Dunleavy, 2009). Functionalism deciphers each one piece of society as far as it helps the steadiness of the entire society. Society is more than the whole of its parts; rather, each one piece of society is useful for the steadiness of the entire society (Dryzeck & Dunleavy, 2009).

The diverse parts are principally the organizations of society, each of which is sorted out to fill distinctive needs and each of which has specific results for the structure and state of society. The parts all rely upon one another. For instance, the administration, or state, gives instruction to the offspring of the family, which thusly pays assessments on which the state depends to keep itself running (Amos & Parmer, 1984). The family is dependent on the school to help youngsters grow

up to have great occupations so they can raise and help their own particular families. Simultaneously, the youngsters get to be honest, taxpaying nationals, who thus help the state (Boudless, 2014). In the event that all goes well, the parts of society produce request, dependability, and gainfulness. In the event that all does not go well, the parts of society then must adjust to recover another request, dependability, and profit (Boudless, 2014). Functionalism underscores the agreement and request that exists in the public eye, concentrating on social solidness and imparted open qualities (Starhawk, 1971). From this point of view, disorder in the framework, for example, freak conduct, prompts change on the grounds that societal segments must conform to accomplish steadiness (Starhawk, 1971).

At the point when one piece of the framework is not living up to expectations or is useless, it influences all different parts and makes social issues, which prompt social change (Allmendinger, 2000; Brodie et al, 2012; Byrne, 2003). The functionalist viewpoint attained its most noteworthy notoriety among American sociologists in the 1940s and 1950s. While European functionalists initially centred on clarifying the internal workings of social request, American functionalists concentrated on finding the capacities of human conduct (Brodie et al, 2012). Among these American functionalist sociologists is Robert K. Merton, who separated human capacities into two sorts: show capacities, which are purposeful and self-evident and dormant capacities, which are unintentional and not self-evident (Allmendinger, 2000; Brodie et al, 2012; Byrne, 2003). The show capacity of going to a congregation or synagogue, case in point, is to love as a component of a religious group, however its idle capacity may be to help parts figure out how to recognize individual from institutional qualities. With an ability to think, show capacities get to be effortlessly clear (Allmendinger, 2000; Brodie et al, 2012; Byrne, 2003).

Yet this is not so much the situation for idle capacities, which regularly request a sociological methodology to be uncovered. Functionalism has gotten feedback for disregarding the negative

capacities of an occasion, for example, separation. Commentators likewise assert that the point of view supports existing conditions and jadedness from society's parts. Functionalism does not sway individuals to take a dynamic part in changing their social surroundings, actually when such change may advantage them (Campbell, 2012). Basically, functionalism is a schema for building hypotheses that sees society as an issue framework whose parts cooperate to advance solidarity and stability. This methodology takes a gander at society through a macro-level introduction, which is a wide concentrate on the social structures that shape society as an issue, and accepts that society has advanced like organisms (Campbell, 2012). This methodology takes gender at both social structure and social capacities. Functionalism addresses society as an issue as far as the capacity of its constituent components; to be specific standards, traditions, conventions, and foundations (Cilliers, 2000; Craib, 2011; Docery, 2010; Holesmes, 2011; Allmendinger, 2002).

A typical similarity, promoted by Herbert Spencer, shows these parts of society as "organs" that move in the direction of the correct working of the body as an issue. In the most fundamental terms, it essentially underlines the push to ascribe, as thoroughly as could be allowed, to each one peculiarity, custom, or practice, its impact on the working of an, as far as anyone knows, steady, binding framework (Cilliers, 2000; Craib, 2011; Docery, 2010; Holesmes, 2011; Allmendinger, 2002). For Talcott Parsons, structural-functionalism came to depict a specific stage in the methodological improvement of social science, as opposed to a particular school of thought. The structural functionalism methodology is a macro sociological investigation, with an expansive concentrate on social structures that shape society as an issue (Cilliers, 2000; Craib, 2011; Docery, 2010; Holesmes, 2011; Allmendinger, 2002).

Gender inequality from the functionalist perspective was most robustly articulated in the 1940s and 1950s, and largely developed by Talcott Parson's Model of the Nuclear Family. According to the functionalist paradigm, gender inequalities exist as an efficient way to create a division of labour,

or as a social system in which particular segments are clearly responsible for certain respective acts of labour (Cilliers, 2000; Craib, 2011; Docery, 2010; Holesmes, 2011; Allmendinger, 2002). A structural functionalist view of gender inequality applies the division of labour to view predefined gender roles as complimentary. That is, men provide for the family while women take care of the home. Thus, gender inequality, like other social institutions, contributes to the equilibrium of society as a whole (Boudless, 2014). Although gender roles and their accompanying inequalities have changed somewhat in industrialized societies, functionalists point out that traditional arrangements still remain in place in most societies. The existence of the traditional division of labour according to the functionalist view, testifies to the usefulness for human societies. According to the principles of functionalism, the functional prerequisites are the basic needs, namely, shelter, food, money and clothing that the individual needs in order to survive. According to structural functionalists, gender serves to maintain social order by providing and ensuring the stability of such functional prerequisites (Campbell, 2012).

While gender roles, according to the functionalist perspective, are beneficial in that they contribute to a stable social system, many argue that gender roles are discriminatory and should not be upheld. On the contrary, the feminist perspective takes the position that functionalism neglects the suppression of women within the family structure (Boudless, 2014). The conflict perspective is compatible with the Feminist Theory in its assertions that structured social inequality is maintained by ideologies that are frequently accepted by both the privileged and the oppressed. These ideologies are challenged only when oppressed groups gain the resources necessary to do so (Tucker, 1978; Mackinnon, 1989; Abbot et al, 2005). Unlike Conflict Theory's focus on social class and the economic elements necessary to challenge the prevailing system, feminists focus on women and their ability to gain resources from a variety of sources, like involvement in business in the Forestry industry (Tucker, 1978; Mackinnon, 1989; Abbot et al, 2005). Feminists work through a number of avenues to increase women's empowerment, which is the ability for women to exert

control over their own destinies. One of the most important contributions of the feminist perspective in sociology, and the present study in particular, is its attention to the multiple oppressions faced by people whose status sets are disadvantaged due to distinctive combinations based on their race, gender and social class. For example, when the issue of poverty becomes feminized the issue is defined primarily by gender. Women are more at a risk of being poor than men (Tucker, 1978; Mackinnon, 1989; Abbot et al, 2005).

On the contrary, Conflict theories deny the historical inevitability and necessity of the traditional division of labour between women and men. The division of labour between women and men may have been functional in non-industrialized societies, where physical strength was required by many tasks (Protcor & Dalaker, 2003; Ellis, 2003; Adams & Sydie, 2001; Loseke, 2003). However, in industrialized societies, the situation has changed. The continuance of the traditional division of labour between men and women and the social inequality that it produces merely contribute to unnecessary social conflict and are therefore, not functional for society. In most cultures, men have historically held most of the world's resources. Until recently, women in Western cultures could not vote or hold property, making them entirely dependent on men (Protcor & Dalaker, 2003; Ellis, 2003; Adams & Sydie, 2001; Loseke, 2003). Men, like any other group with power or wealth advantage, fought to maintain their control over resources, namely, political and economic power. Consequently, conflict between the two groups contributed to the establishment of the Women's Suffrage Movement and was responsible for social change (Yakkadevi, 2014; Mills, 2000; Brodie et al 2012).

On the other hand, Symbolic Interaction also called the interactionism perspective of gender inequality focuses on how inequality is perpetuated by the transmission of traditional cultural definitions of masculinity and femininity from generation to generation (Yakkadevi, 2014; Mills, 2000; Brodie et al, 2012). For example, learning these definitions influences people's expectations

about the types of statuses that women and men are capable of occupying and the types of roles they are capable of performing. Compared with functionalists and conflict theories, inter-actionists are optimistic as to the prospects of reducing if not eliminating such gender inequalities (Yakkadevi, 2014; Mills, 2000; Brodie et al 2012). Since gender roles and the division of labour that they support are the products of what each generation teaches the next generation, we can change them by teaching different gender roles and different ideas about the division of labour (Yakkadevi, 2014; Mills, 2000; Brodie et al 2012).

In this study, the analysis of data indicated how gender roles and stereotypes affect the Forest identity in South Africa. Gender equality in South Africa can be achieved without having to wait for the restructuring of society implied by functionalist theories though this process might take several years to achieve. Neither is it necessary to resort to revolutionary strategy to achieve gender equality as proposed by such conflict theorists as Marx and Engels (Mackinnon, 1989; Bouldes, 2014; Ritzer, 2000). Finally, the Forest industry plays an important role in the everyday life of millions of people all over the world.

Research has revealed that over the last few years, very important changes have taken place in the views and demands of forests by society (Mackinnon, 1989; Bouldes, 2014; Ritzer, 2000). Changes in South Africa caused by urbanization, globalization, increasing time budgets for recreation, tourism and sports, and environmental awareness and access to multiple sources of information all have had severe impacts on people's perceptions and attitudes towards the Forestry industry. If women do not participate fully in forest entrepreneurial activities, we are likely to lose the potential of our society and economic development will be jeopardized (Mackinnon, 1989; Bouldes, 2014; Ritzer, 2000).

6.7. Strengths and weaknesses of the functionalist theory

Functionalism tends to over-emphasise the harmonious nature of society and fails to see that some groups are disadvantaged by society. Marxists, for example, criticise functionalism for its inability to explain conflict e.g. between the working and ruling class and change. It could be argued that they look at the world through rose-tinted glasses (Dryzeck & Dunleavy, 2009). Teleology is the idea that things exist because of their effect or function. For example, the functionalist claim that the family exists because children need to be socialised is teleological, it explains the existence of the family in terms of its effect (Dryzeck & Dunleavy, 2009). However, critics argue that a real explanation of something is one that identifies a cause and logically, a cause must come before its effect. Functionalism provides an inadequate explanation of social change. It simply states that if change does occur it will be due to evolutionary factors rather than anything else (Ayukwa, 2000; Loseke, 2003). Some scholars criticise functionalism's deterministic view of the individual. Individuals have no freewill or choice they are mere puppets whose strings are pulled by the social system. The action approach takes the opposite view that individuals create society by their interactions (Dryzeck & Dunleavy, 2009).

Finally, postmodernists argue that functionalism assumes that society is stable and orderly. As such, it cannot account for the diversity and instability that exist in today's post-modern society (Dryzeck & Dunleavy, 2009). Although functionalists provide a useful insight into the workings of society the theory is ideologically driven. Therefore, the theory is reductionist as it fails to take into account competing theoretical ideas. Postmodernists are critical of the functional meta-narrative as they claim to have a totalising theory of society. Postmodernists maintain that rival narratives should be considered for a full account of social life (Konradi & Schmidt, 2001; Ellis, 2003; Yakkadevi, 2014). There is a general consensus about the values and norms of society by the majority e.g. wealth is good, murder is bad. They wish to keep the statuesque. Individuals and

groups have to accept their roles in society. Society is made up of integrated parts that are tied together, thus if something is wrong with one it will affect the others (Konradi & Schmidt, 2001; Ellis, 2003; Yakkadevi, 2014). It functions like the organs of our body; these parts in society are the institutions of our society e.g. family, school, and economy, justice system, etc.

Society tends to seek stability and avoid conflict. Conflict is seen as dysfunctional (Konradi & Schmidt, 2001; Ellis, 2003; Yakkadevi, 2014). They do not see anything wrong with inequality in a society based on class, gender or race. It is not open to social change. It does not look at the causes (root) of social problems. Societies are always in conflict over who holds the power to control the norms, values and resources within a society. This control of power is characterized by a group called the power elite. Conflict and power differentials are always present in the society as groups pursue their interests (Konradi & Schmidt, 2001; Ellis, 2003; Yakkadevi, 2014). It looks to investigate social inequality as it relates to class, gender, race or ethnicity; as conflict is a major contribution to change.

6.8. The applicability of feminist and functionalist theory to the study

This macro theory argues that society is beneficial for the individual and society, claiming that as social changes occur, society responds and improves all the time. This theory also argues that society shapes the individual who is passive, into the norms and values of society which is a positive process (Smith, 2007; Flood et al, 1997). This is a set of political ideas rather than a traditional social theory believing that society is beneficial for individuals. This group of thinkers argue that society needs to return to more conservative values or else risk a breakdown of society. This theory, which was developed relatively recently, argues that traditional theories are no longer relevant for understanding society today. They claim that we now live in a global society which is characterised by choice, fluidity, change and diversity (Pasque & Errington, 2011; Kanjo, 2001;

Roth, 2004; Hackman, 2010). This macro, structural theory claims that society is shaped by social economic inequalities which are based on capitalism. This theory argues that social forces shape the individual.

This micro scale theory argues that society should be understood through meanings given to particular issues. They claim that the individual has agency and that interactions shape society (Pasque & Errington, 2011; Kanjo, 2001; Roth, 2004; Hackman, 2010). Liberal feminists make sure that women's perspectives and views are taken into account in sociology. Liberal feminists have been criticised for being overly optimistic, regarding laws as having the potential to 'fix' prejudices and change attitudes and have made huge improvements in laws and attitudes in society. Marxist and radical feminists argue that broader changes need to be made if women are to gain true equality (Pasque & Errington, 2011; Kanjo, 2001; Roth, 2004; Hackman, 2010). They have played an important role in highlighting the inequalities between men and women, in employment, the family, and the media and so on. Feminism ignores masculinity and that the masculine role is also socially constructed. Masculinity is complex and yet feminism largely ignores this, or the way women may also uphold patriarchy (Hewitt, 2010; Yang, 2003; Irwin, 2001; Mills, 2000; Allmendinger, 2002; Byrne, 2003).

Their work has emphasised the socially constructed nature of gender differences. Feminist theory, they suggest, attempts to develop a comprehensive account of the subordination of women, including its supposed essence and origin; which is a prerequisite for developing effective strategies to liberate women and attempts to identify the underlying causes of women's subordination. According to Flax, feminist theory has several purposes: to understand the power differential between men and women to understand women's oppression—how it evolved, how it changes over time, how it is related to other forms of oppression and how to overcome oppression (Hewitt, 2010; Yang, 2003; Irwin, 2001; Mills, 2000; Allmendinger, 2002; Byrne, 2003).

This study aims in examining the progress of the transformation process in the forestry sector and the implication it has on women. One particular feminist theory is the primary theory in the study, and adjacent to it are secondary theories namely, the functionalist theory, division of labour in production, and estranged labour tease out some aspects of the feminist theory. Marxism and feminism according to Mackinnon (1989) are theories of power. Both are theories of social inequality. The specificity of Marxism and feminism is not incidental. To be deprived of control over work relations in Marxism, over sexual relations in feminism, defines each theory's conception of the lack of power for each. They exist to argue respectively, that the relations in which many work and few gains, in which some dominate and others are subordinated (Hewitt, 2010; Yang, 2003; Irwin, 2001; Mills, 2000; Allmendinger, 2002; Byrne, 2003). The inclusion of the secondary theories in this study is to deliberate on the nature of the forestry environment the women work under as mentioned in the Karl Marx estranged labour theory. According to Abbot et al, (2005) feminism proceeds from the view that women are oppressed and that for many women this oppression is primary, whereas for others it is part of a multiplicity of oppression.

Women's freedom of action and expression is limited by the relative power of men because men, in the main, tend to possess more economic, cultural and social resources than women (Hewitt, 2010; Yang, 2003; Irwin, 2001; Mills, 2000; Allmendinger, 2002; Byrne, 2003). This is not to ignore the fact that there are differences between women and between men, and indeed that these differences themselves involve insubordination and exploitation. Forestry is a male dominated industry and women still suffer profoundly from male dominance and different types of oppression. The feminist theory addresses the social factors in the study of women discrimination, women empowerment, and women's ability to perform and cope (Hewitt, 2010; Yang, 2003; Irwin, 2001; Mills, 2000; Allmendinger, 2002; Byrne, 2003). The functionalist paradigm, indirectly stipulates

that gender inequalities exist as a catalyst for the division of labour. This is according to Talcott Parson's Model of the nuclear family (1940s and 1950s) in which it was evident that gender inequality prevailed.

The functionalist paradigm on gender inequality is a conduit in explaining the impact the division of labour in production as speculated by Tucker (1978) has on feminist theory, whereby in the division of labour, man is also divided. As supported by Abbot et al (2005) feminist theory attempts to explain and account for these differences and inequalities. The specificity of Marxism and feminism is not incidental. To be deprived of control over work relations in Marxism, over sexual relations in feminism, defines each theory's conception of lack of power for each. They exist to argue respectively, that the relations in which many work and few gain, in which some dominate and others are subordinated (Yakkaledevi, 2014). The inclusion of the secondary theories in this study is to deliberate on the nature of the forestry environment the women work under as mentioned in the Karl Marx estranged labour theory. According to Abbot et al, (2005) feminism proceeds from the view that women are oppressed and that for many women this oppression is primary, whereas for others it is part of a multiplicity of oppression. Women's freedom of action and expression is limited by the relative power of men because men, in the main, tend to possess more economic, cultural and social resources than women (Yakkaledevi, 2014; Abbot et al, 2005).

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The strength of the feminist theory is on emphasising the issue of gender inequality, yet according to Dryzeck & Dunleavy (2009), though female monarchs such as Elizabeth I of England or Catherine the Great of Russia might occasionally come to power, their sex made little or no difference to the way they had to work, and the male dominated governmental apparatus they had to work with. The affairs of the State were a public domain for men only, while women were confined to the private realm of the household. Amos & Parmar (1984) trace the historical relationship between western feminism and imperial ideologies, institutions and practices. They argue that like gender, the category of feminism emerged from the historical context of modern Europe Colonialism and anti-colonial struggles; histories of feminism must therefore engage with its imperial origins. The literature review of the study reveals the history of the corporate growers, being internationally based and is somehow inclined to imperialistic behaviour which is demonic and difficult to detach.

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6.9. The feminist theory of the state

Dryzeck & Dunleavy (2009) provide a feminist theory of the state. Since the rise of organised agriculture, most human societies have been dominated by men. Some feminists like Starhawk (1987) look back to pagan times when goddesses were honoured and the sexes were more equal though occupying different places in a division of labour, but such history is contentious, not least

among feminists themselves. Since the times of ancient kingdoms and empires organised governments have been generally run by men, and this is no less true of states in the modern era. Though female monarchs such as Elizabeth I of England or Catherine the Great of Russia might occasionally come to power, their sex made little or no difference to the way they had to work, and the male dominated governmental apparatus they had to work with. The affairs of the State were a public domain for men only, while women were confined to the private realm of the household.

Dryzeck & Dunleavy (2009) have based their theory on the history and the origins of the state, and the status of women herein. Based on this feminist theory, the position of women in society appears to be deeply rooted and thus poses a huge problem on being shifted to reposition them in our modern society. It also appears that men have long clung to the origination and monopoly of the state. This sheds light as to why it has been extremely difficult for men to expedite in the process of relinquishing position power to women. The process of relinquishing power is at a snail pace and thus causing major challenges for women to progress in their different endeavours. In the modern society, the state establishes methods, policies and strategies to engage women and the greatest challenge is in the implementation of the latter (Bhullar, 2013).

Within the household women were subservient to husbands or fathers. Women had fewer rights than men. Married women were treated as the property of their husbands, single women as subordinate to their fathers. Early modern male proto – democratic thinkers saw no need to change this assumption. For example, writing in the eighteenth century, the radical republican Jean-Jacques Rousseau argued that women should be excluded from politics (Klein, 1987; Mill, 1989; Macridis, 1992; Whelehan, 2000; Tong, 2009; Wheeler, 2002; Smith, 2007; Wee & Heyzer, 1995).

He also proposed different education systems for boys and girls, with girls to be trained for domestic and entertaining purpose, rather than for any academic pursuits. Such states of affairs were long accepted and unchallenged by women as well as men. Women might have occasionally crafted separate social realms where male domination was held at bay, but they never challenged male-oriented political power and perhaps never conceptualised the possibility of such a challenge (Klein, 1987; Mill, 1989; Macridis, 1992; Whelehan, 2000; Tong, 2009; Wheeler, 2002; Smith, 2007; Wee & Heyzer, 1995). The researcher views Jean-Jacques Rousseau's ideology as having a trace of Hendrik Verwoerd's apartheid concept. The only difference is that Hendrik Verwoerd blanketed his apartheid concept to the Black people within the South African boundaries. The White South African women did not experience apartheid, but did not experience total freedom as women (Klein, 1987; Mill, 1989; Macridis, 1992; Whelehan, 2000; Tong, 2009; Wheeler, 2002; Smith, 2007; Wee & Heyzer, 1995).

Inequality has manifested in the forest industry, in that even White women have battled to operate in this industry. The publication in England of Mary Wollstonecraft's "A Vindication of the Rights of Women" in 1797 indicated that matters were beginning to change. Wollstonecraft made an essentially liberal argument for the equality of men and women: "I do not wish women to have power over men; but over themselves" (Klein, 1987; Mill, 1989; Macridis, 1992; Whelehan, 2000; Tong, 2009; Wheeler, 2002; Smith, 2007; Wee & Heyzer, 1995). Yet male liberal thinkers continued to resist. In the social thinking during the nineteenth century, Karl Marx himself said little about women. However, in his 1884 book *The Origins of Family, Private Property, and the State*, his co-author Friedrich Engels argued that gender inequality in families and households was used by the ruling class to help bind working class men to the capitalist social order. Men who were subservient in the factories where they worked could nonetheless exercise power within their

households. Thus were the seeds of Marxist feminism sown, a strand which re-appeared toward the end of the twentieth century. In the early twentieth century socialist and communist political thought stressed the equality of men and women, especially in terms of access to paid work and labour rights (Klein, 1987; Mill, 1989; Macridis, 1992; Whelehan, 2000; Tong, 2009; Wheeler, 2002; Smith, 2007; Wee & Heyzer, 1995).

6.10. Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter attempted to discuss the importance and the need of a feminist theory as a framework technique to address the process of transformation in the forestry industry. This chapter also established that the feminist theory is the primary theory and was supported by secondary theories. It was also evident that social inequality is prevalent as it is reflected in both the functionalist and Marxist theories. On the contrary, the feminist perspective takes the position that functionalism neglects the suppression of women within the family structure (Boudless, 2014). The current study only utilized the feminist theory which is referred to in this study as the primary theory and the secondary theories which are the functionalist, division of labour in production and the estranged labour as a theoretical framework. The current chapter has dealt with the theoretical framework of the study on feminism which explained the gender inequality. The following chapter will thus deal with research methodology.

Chapter 7: Research Methodology

7.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to highlight the specific methodologies that the researcher utilised in eliciting data for the study. The aim of the study is to establish that women have necessary capabilities to productively function in the forestry sector, if they are empowered and given an opportunity to showcase their skills. This study has advocated that there isn't type of work or sector that is designated for certain gender, thus supported the inclusion of women as well in every sector the forestry sector. The study thus sought to assess the perceptions of the participants on the coping and self-assurance ability of women in the forestry sector. Further to that, the perceptions of discrimination against women in the forestry were assessed. To achieve these objectives, this chapter outlines the overall methodology adopted in the study. Further discussed in this chapter, is the procedure used to collect and analyse quantitative data for the study. The chapter also gives a brief overview of quantitative research design. This chapter deals with the research techniques used by the researcher in soliciting the necessary information from the respondents. The research method adopted in the study is a quantitative research approach and particularly a research method utilising a questionnaire as a research instrument.

7.2. Quantitative research design

The aim of this study was to investigate the role played by the forestry sector including the forestry charter in transforming and empowering women in forestry. Welman et al, (2005) allude to a quantitative research approach and also instils emphasises on the survey research method. He describes this quantitative research approach as, although it is unsatisfactory to describe one type of

research as being opposite to another, there does not appear to be a satisfactory umbrella term for non-experimental hypothesis-testing research at present. The most satisfactory candidate for this purpose appears to be survey research, although the term appears to be associated mainly with opinion surveys. In this type of research we examine the relationships that occur between two or more variables without any planned intervention. Variables such as age, gender, socio-economic status and so on are of great importance, especially to non-experimental research in the business and administrative sciences and it is impossible to assign participants who are already members of the various levels of such variables.

7.3. Justification for the choice of a quantitative research methodology

The study sought to examine the role played by the forestry sector including the forestry charter in transforming and empowering women in all spheres of forestry. In order to achieve this primary aim, the researcher has formulated the research hypothesis. Since this thesis is an investigation, it needed to test and explain the relationship that exists between the independent and dependent variables. The most appropriate methodology for such a test is the quantitative paradigm. The researcher has adopted the quantitative study to produce results that are aligned to statistics so as to showcase precision in terms of numbers. Secondly, most literature available on forestry is based on descriptive information of which statistics are utilised; there is balance between literature and quantifying. According to Neuman (2000) quantitative research, on the other hand, includes a substantial amount of literature at the beginning of a study to provide direction for the research questions and hypotheses. In planning a quantitative study, the literature is often used at the beginning of a study to introduce a problem or describe in detail the existing literature. In addition, the literature is included in the end of a study in which the researcher compares the results of the study with the existing finds in the literature. In this model, the quantitative researcher uses the literature deductively as a framework for the research questions or hypotheses (Crotty, 1998).

Therefore the researcher has decided to use quantitative research as this methodology is suitable for establishing causal relationships and correlation between mastery of life, discrimination against women, coping ability, and self-assurance.

7.4. The Quantitative Research methods and their merits and demerits for the study.

The quantitative research paradigm relies on the collection of quantitative data e.g. numerical data. The quantitative research paradigm mainly follows the positive scientific method because its attention is on hypothesis testing and theory testing (Barks, 1995). The quantitative method was used in this study because the researcher wanted to test the hypothesis and to measure relationships among variables. The rationale for choosing this method is based on the premise of forestry as commerce, and with huge administrative functions in its value chain system that emanate from the tree establishment, harvesting and transportation. It is also pertinent to reach out to participants in order to get as much information as possible and which relates to a research problem and in order to yield appropriate results. Welman et al (2005:52) state that “research design is a plan according to which we obtain research participants and collect information from them. In it we described what we are going to do with the participants, with a view to reaching conclusions about the research problem”. As aforementioned, the researcher communicated with the forestry officials to seek permission for accessing participants and to collect data from them. A description, purpose of the study and all necessary information was tabled.

7.5. Positivistic Approach

The concept of ‘positivism’ has been central in the philosophy-of-science debate since the beginning of the nineteenth century, when Comte (1844) introduced the term, and through the twentieth century when logical positivism (later called logical empiricism) was topical. The sense of the positivism concept has often varied depending on who was doing the describing.

The term 'positivism' has often been used in a derogatory sense, serving as a general invective. There is, though, a conceptual core. More concise and inclusive is perhaps description of the approach as the doctrine that 'halts at phenomena: "there are only facts"'. To which Nietzsche promptly retorts: 'No, facts is precisely what there is not, only interpretations'. A little more elaborately describes positivism as 'any interpretation of science (and of theoretical knowledge in general), which applies an assumption equivalent to the statement by the well-known positivist Hempel, 'Science is ultimately intended to systematize data of our experience. Etymologically, the word positivism comes from the Latin positum, the supine form of pono, put, set, place or lay. Thus, something is put, set, placed or laid; this something is given facts or data, and the one they lie in front of is the researcher. Data are consequently something that exists, is (already) there, and the task of the researcher thus becomes to gather and systematize them. The underlying harvest metaphor is palpable.

The researcher, as it were, collects the crops of the earth which are already there, and then prepares them into a tasty dish. Various positivist approaches have put different emphasis on these two processes, the gathering and the systematizing, and have also described them in different ways. For positivist historians in the nineteenth century, data collection was more important than systematization, a systematization that was never allowed to lead as far as to theory, since this would mean the abandonment of facts in favour of speculation. In contrast, for Comte and also for the logical positivists in the twentieth century, theory, the systematization of data, was central. Current social science positivists focusing on statistical analysis are found somewhere in between these positions: theory, seen as a summing of data, is accepted, but the theoretical propositions are both less encompassing and less systematized than the logical positivists' prescriptions of universally valid, formalized axiomatic systems prescriptions that the positivists' later inheritors in the philosophy of science have sharply criticized. Data or facts should, according to positivism, be observable, and here is the link to empiricism.

For modern positivism, what is observable also includes what is measurable or possible to register through some kind of instrument. One approach within positivism, to operationalize, even went as far as to reduce facts to measurable phenomena. A critical point against identifying observability with measurability is of course that this is all right when we talk about telescopes or microscopes; but even for these, a lot of interpretation beyond normal seeing is required. For other instruments, for instance a survey, the element of observation appears more distant or problematic (Parrini, 2003; Wolfgang, 1991; Sahotra, 1996; Oswald, 1981; Murzi, 2007). The logical positivists made a sharp distinction between theoretical language and observational language reflecting the dichotomy between theory and empirical facts. The former was supposed to be translatable to the latter through so-called correspondence rules. As we shall see, this distinction was put in doubt by critics of positivism, who pointed out that all facts are theory-laden.

If we talk about results of measurements, this already presupposes both theories about the instruments that measure and theoretical preconceptions of what we measure (otherwise we would not know what to measure). For surveys, for instance, statistical theory lies at their basis, and the variables that are part of the measurements presuppose various social-scientific theories. The correspondence rules were also criticized for being a ‘heterogeneous confusion of meaning relationships, experimental design, measurement, and causal relationships, some of which are not properly part of theories’, while on the other hand more vague or diluted interpretations were criticized for being logically inconsistent (Passmore, 2005; Ramon, 1994; Friedman, 1999; Giere, 1997).

7.6. Population for the study

Sappi Forests, Mondi Business Paper and SiyaQhubeka Forests were chosen for this study because they specialise in commercial forestry. The commercial forest is located 15 km from Empangeni,

18 km from Esikhawini and KwaDlangezwa and 25 km South of Richards Bay. Sappi Forests, Mondi Business Paper and SiyaQhubeka Forests were suitable for this study because the entire workforce constitutes of women, whom amongst others have basic education and others who do not have matric or higher education qualifications. According to Mr Grewer van Huysteen, area manager, the total population of the employees is forty (40) specialising in different sections of work. These women are responsible for the daily activities in the forest, including harvesting and sylviculture. These women employees depend on these forests as their place for employment. This shows the role played by forestry in this area in job creation especially for women. They tend to be discriminated by their gender in different spheres of life and in the workplace. It is on that basis that this study attempted to contribute in transforming the forestry sector, to empower women for competitiveness and knowledge development. Forestry in the north of Zululand consists of Sappi, SiyaQhubeka Forest and Mondi Business Paper Pty Ltd. There are also businesses which are contracted to the different corporate growers.

7.7. The Census Study

The following researchers documented approaches using a census study which led to certain findings; (Albaum & Smith, 2012; Cochran, 2008; Fink, 2003; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Smith & Albaum, 2012). Once you have the population defined, you must decide whether to survey everyone in your population or to develop a sample. A census is a complete survey of an entire population, while a sample gets information from just a small, but hopefully representative, fraction of the population. A census has many advantages if the population is small and within a workable location. However, most research objectives are better achieved with a small but accurate sample. Sampling error occurs when a sample does not accurately represent the population. The more homogeneous the population (meaning people who are similar), the smaller the sampling error; and as sample size increases, sampling error decreases. If a census were conducted (i.e., all

elements of the population were included) there would be no sampling error (Terreblanche et al, 2011; Henry, 1990).

7.8. Data collection instrument

The instrument used to procure data for this study was the questionnaire. However, even though the questionnaire was administered, data was gathered in an interview format where the researcher asked questions from respondents and entered responses into appropriate boxes in the questionnaire. This was necessary given the low literacy level of the respondents. The questionnaire was divided into four sections. Section A elicited demographic information, Section B required respondents to rate 14 items on their coping and self-assurance ability in the forestry sector, on a Likert scale of 1 to 5, (where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Section C required respondents to; rate 13 items on their perceptions on discrimination against women in the forestry sector in South Africa, and Section D contained 13 items related to perceptions of empowerment and ability of women in the forestry sector. All questions were closed ended. The researcher used questionnaires to solicit the necessary information from the respondents.

In developing the questionnaire, only closed questions were used. The rationale for using closed ended questions included the following: Answers obtained make comparisons between respondents easier. Answers are easy to code. The meaning of closed-ended questions is clear, which minimises the chance of respondents not answering questions. Respondents have minimal writing to do which makes it easier to fill in questionnaire (Bailey, 2000:118).

7.9. Data analysis tool and technique

Welman et al. (2007), infers that, in quantitative data analysis, the decision on which statistical analysis methods to use after the data have been collected may not be postponed, we may discover

to our dissatisfaction, that there is either no appropriate statistical method available for analysing the data, or that another method would have been more appropriate if the data had been collected in terms of another design. This study has adhered to the aforementioned proposition, hence statistical hypothesis have been formulated, thus highlighting a need to conduct a statistical analysis and which have led to a statistical validity. Data was presented using frequencies and percentages. Questionnaire items relating to attitudes towards women empowerment were compressed using Principal Components Analysis (PCA). Furthermore, the hypotheses of the study were tested using bivariate correlations. All analyses will be done using SPSS 21. Apart from social-demographic factors, other variables in this study were determined using more than one questionnaire item. PCA was therefore conducted to determine the contribution of multiple questions to variables under consideration and to electronically compute subscales. PCA (factor analysis) is useful in identifying the internal structure of a set of items (Field, 2005).

7.10. A bivariate correlation

Chamorro-Premuzic et al, (2008), Wright & London, (2009), Miles & Banyard, (2007), a correlation between two variables (as described at the beginning of this chapter) whereas a partial correlation looks at the relationship between two variables while ‘controlling’ the effect of one or more additional variables. Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficient (described earlier) and Spearman’s rho are examples of bivariate correlation coefficients. Correlation is a widely used term in statistics. In fact, it entered the English language in 1561, 200 years before most of the modern statistic tests were discovered. It is derived from the (same) Latin word correlation, which means relation. Correlation generally describes the effect that two or more phenomena occur together and therefore they are linked. Many academic questions and theories investigate these relationships. For example: is the time and intensity of exposure to sunlight related to the likelihood of getting skin cancer? Or, are people more likely to repeat a visit to a museum the more

satisfied they are? Do older people earn more money? Are wages linked to inflation? Do higher oil prices increase the cost of shipping? It is very important, however, to stress that correlation does not imply causation.

A correlation expresses the strength of linkage or co-occurrence between two variables in a single value between -1 and $+1$. This value that measures the strength of linkage is called the correlation coefficient, which is represented typically as the letter r . The correlation coefficient between two continuous – level variables is also called Pearson's r or Pearson product – moment correlation coefficient. A positive r value expresses a positive relationship between the two variables (the larger A, the larger B) while a negative r value indicates a negative relationship (the larger A, the smaller B). A correlation coefficient of zero indicates no relationship between the variables at all. However correlations are limited to linear relationships between variables. Even if the correlation coefficient is zero, a non – linear relationship might exist.

Bivariate correlation (r) was used to determine if there were positive or negative relationships between variables. Bivariate correlation uncovers associations between two variables and tests the significance of observed covariance (Kachigan, 1991: 125). The correlation coefficient ranges from -1 to $+1$. While $r = +1$ indicates a perfect positive correlation, $r = -1$ connotes a perfect negative correlation. $r = 0$ indicates that the variables are not associated. The critical value of (r) is said to be significant at 0.05 (1-tailed) and 0.01 (2-tailed) depending on the stated direction of hypotheses (Price, 2000). In the present study, separate bivariate correlations were computed to determine the relationships between demographic factors and each of the independent variables SELASSU, PERDIWOM and PERABIL. Correlation coefficients were also determined for relationships between independent variables (Brotherton, 2008).

7.11. Delimitation of the study

The study was conducted in the north of KwaZulu-Natal, Zululand area. This is one of the areas that are densely afforested and specifically with commercial forests. The world renowned corporate growers are also found in this vicinity. These include SiyaQhubeka Forest (a business amalgamation of Mondi Business Paper and Imbokodvo Lemabalabala) which spreads across Port Durnford, KwaMbonambi, Dukuduku and Nyalazi, Mondi Business Paper Pty Ltd, and Sappi in the KwaMbonabi area, and further north in Mtubatuba. All of these plantations cover two District Municipalities i.e. King Cetshwayo and Umkhanyakude. The total estimation in hectares covered is plus forty thousand (40,000 ha) of commercial forests.

7.12. Limitations of the study

For ethical reasons, it is necessary to point out some of the limitations and problems encountered, which included the following: Lack of sufficient literature and studies on “Women and Forestry”. The questionnaire had to be translated into isiZulu for some respondents. Some respondents refused to answer certain questions.

7.13. Problems encountered

The forestry landscape is vast; stretching over thousands of hectares of land which constitute an estimated total of fifteen thousand hectares. The different forestry operational activities occur remotely from one another; and it became challenging to reach a huge number of respondents at once. Secondly, manual operations have a very limited time to access, since they commence as early as four o'clock in the morning. Once the day's task is allocated by the supervisor to the worker, there is resistance of participation based on the focus to complete the day's task allocated.

Thirdly, the workers were very reluctant to participate as respondents as they were unsure of their security, albeit assurance was given to them.

7.14. Significance of the study

Subjects on women empowerment and the emancipation of women have been on the agenda of different platforms worldwide; for a long time, and yet satisfying results are still pending. Training, skilling and implementation for women have equally been on the agenda. This study has surfaced the importance of allowing for the impact and recognition of women in the forestry sector. Furthermore, as always alluded to in the variety of World Economic Forums, it is of essence that as the world transforms, training and skills development should not be subjective to men only, but spread equally across gender.

7.15. Ethical Issues of the study

Collection of data in this research has been facilitated by permission to undertake the investigation which was obtained from the Faculty Board of the University of Zululand. Such permission constitutes an important element among the ethical issues in sociological research, i.e. the issue of informed consent of the subjects to be investigated.

Vito et al. (1988:42) view informed consent as important to the research process in the following aspects: Informed consent increases the ability of subjects to make a decision to participate. It screens out those subjects whom you believe might be harmed. Trust and respect is increased by showing the subjects that they are valued. It reduces the legal liability of the investigator (Vito et al, 1988). In this research, consent from the subjects was obtained after the purpose of the study had been fully explained, and this included what would happen to the results, and also how the

subjects would benefit from the study. Anonymity of respondents was maintained and subjects were not forced to participate.

7.16. Field Experience

The major thrust of the study was to gain insight into practical and realistic regular women activities, and the status quo of the Forestry environment. In particular, the researcher sought to understand the on-going challenges, progress as experienced by the women entrepreneurs, women foresters and the women's experience as general workers. Each data collection technique yielded a different slice of data or a different vantage point from which to understand the problem under study. During the first two months prior to data collection, the researcher had conversations with entrepreneurs and management at Sappi and SiyaQhubeka Forests. Time spent with the different stakeholders provided them with the opportunities to express themselves about working conditions at the Sappi and SiyaQhubeka Forests. They were very receptive about a study of this nature going to be conducted on their premises. Since data are from different stakeholders, each will be discussed independently.

7.17. Conclusion

This chapter has provided a general overview of the methodological strategy that was adopted in the study. The results generated from the survey will be shown in the following chapters. The current chapter has given clearly the methodology of the study; therefore, the following chapters will deliver the overall results of the study. This chapter presented the methodology followed by the researcher in soliciting the necessary information to investigate the research problem. The next chapter deals with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data.

Chapter 8: Transforming Forestry Sector and Reducing Discrimination of Women

“History looks different when the contributions of women are included” (National Women’s History Project, 2015).

8.1. Introduction

The current chapter presents the results on empowerment of women as a strategy to reduce their discrimination and cope with complexities of the forestry sector. The chapter will present results on the demographic factors, and their correlation with the independent variables. The chapter will further present results of the correlation of the independent variables being central to this study. From the findings of the study it can be argued that empowerment is the key strategy for the reduction of discriminatory issues among women in the forestry sector.

8.2. Social Demographic Factors

In this section there will be the description on the sample selected for the study. This includes the social and demographic profiles of the respondents of the study. This is important to the study, because it will give an insight into the nature of the community under study. Characteristics discussed include; race, gender, age income and educational levels of the participants.

8.2.1. Race

Table 8.1: Distribution of respondents by race

Race	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Black	39	97.5	97.5
White	1	2.5	100.0
Total	40	100.0	

Table 8.1 above shows the distribution of respondents by race. Respondents were pre categorised into the two different race groups which represent the dominant groups in the forestry industry. These are two of the three most common race groups in South Africa. The result showed that white people constitute 2.5% (n=1), while black people constituted 97.5 % (n =39) of the respondents. The majority of people in the forest sector are black people, and thus necessary training, impartation of forestry and entrepreneurial skills should be transferred to the black people in order for this sector to transform. Entrepreneurial incubation may expedite the transformation of this sector. The lack of entrepreneurs often results in a second-best solution (Botha, 1993).

The 1995 publication of the White Paper on the Development of Small Business indicated that the government in South Africa realised the importance of developing entrepreneurship and small businesses. It was stated that small, medium and microenterprises (SMMEs) offered an important vehicle to addressing the challenges of job creation, economic growth and equity in South Africa: “The stimulation of SMMEs must be seen as part of an integrated strategy to take this economy onto a higher road – one in which our economy is diversified, productivity is enhanced, investment is stimulated and entrepreneurship flourishes” (White Paper, 1995:5). The common image of an entrepreneur is someone who owns a small business. There is widespread acceptance of the notion

that entrepreneurship is a variable phenomenon and that it has underlying dimensions. The most frequently cited dimensions are innovativeness, risk taking and proactive behaviour. A contemporary perspective is that entrepreneurs are small-business owners but not necessarily entrepreneurs (Morris & Hooper, 1996).

The expressed intention to stimulate entrepreneurship by developing SMMEs is logical, as small businesses may be considered a natural port of entry into the business world (Vosloo, 1994). The White Paper made special reference to the development of female entrepreneurs. One specific objective underlying the support framework of the national small-business policy is to facilitate equalisation of income, wealth and economic opportunities, with special emphasis on supporting the advancement of women in all business sectors (White Paper, 1995). South Africa is looking for an industrial policy away from import substitution towards employment creation, more equal income distribution and endogenous growth. Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) are expected to be flexible and therefore able to react quickly to liberalisation of the South African economy while playing a decisive role in local economic development (Kesper, 1999).

According to Scarborough and Zimmerer (2000), women face discrimination in the workforce. They argue that small businesses have been offering women opportunities for economic expression through employment and entrepreneurship. This emphasis on the development of female entrepreneurs is understandable if we know that women represent more than 50% of the South African population but own approximately 33% of existing businesses. In fact, male-owned businesses outnumber female-owned businesses by more than two to one. Entrepreneurship and the role of entrepreneurs in small-business development have been popular topics with politicians and policy makers in addressing issues such as finding solutions to unemployment and economic development problems. It remains to be seen, however, whether the words of politicians would

manifest themselves in actions. This applies to both the current and the previous governments as South Africa still does not consist of an extensive entrepreneurial culture.

8.2.2. Home Language

Table 8.2: Distribution of respondents by Home Language

Language	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
IsiZulu	39	97.5	97.5
English	1	2.5	100.0
Total	40	100.0	

In table 8.2 the home languages of respondents are presented. Respondents were asked to indicate their mother language and the above result was obtained, indicating isiZulu speakers having the highest number of 97.5% (n=39). However, a small proportion of about 2.5 % (n=1) are English speakers. Zululand is an area dominated by Zulu speaking people. Commercial forestry is highly surrounded, populated by Zulu speaking people and who are familiar with forestry albeit not well structured compared to the corporate growers. This symbolises a very strong acumen in forestry by the Zulu speaking people, and further focus may be directed to this group, and yet English speaking people are still dominating the industry.

8.2.3. Marital Status

Table 8.3: Distribution of respondents by marital status

Marital Status	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Single	37	92.5	92.5
Married	2	5.0	97.5
Widowed	1	2.5	100.0
Total	40	100.0	

As depicted in table 8.3 above, the result showed that 2.5% (n=37) of the respondents were single women, 5% (n=2) were married while 2.5% (n = 1) of the respondents was widowed. The majority of women depicted in the table are single, compared to married and widowed. Being single does not lessen their individual responsibilities, but what is important is the opportunity of transforming their lives through forestry. In order for their lives to be transformed, it boils back to skilling them and allowing them to progress to a better level in forestry. The table also displays a concern of single women who enter such strenuous work instead of seeking less strenuous work. This is a sign of mental and physical strength, which has a bearing on the endurance of a woman. With these characteristics, investment in relation to skills development may be transferred to women for the forest sector to be transformed. Establishing and operating a business involves profound and immeasurable risks and effort for entrepreneurs, particularly in view of the high failure rate.

Probably the risk is even bigger for the woman entrepreneur, who not only has to contend with the challenges associated with operating in a traditionally male-dominated area, but due to the lack of education and training in this specific field. Although both men and women face difficulties in establishing an enterprise, women experience specific obstacles. Among these obstacles are minimal access to financial resources, limited support, negative prevailing socio-cultural attitudes, gender discrimination or bias and personal difficulties. Women usually suffer from low creditability when dealing with the various stakeholders associated with their entity, such as suppliers, contractors, bankers or customers. In a study conducted in South Africa, Allie and Human (1997:8) found that although 72 per cent of micro-enterprises were owned by women, both internal and external obstacles impacted on the success of these businesses.

Table 8.4 shows the distribution of respondents according to their number of children. The results showed that a majority, 30% (n = 12) of the respondents had two children. It was further shown that 17.5% (n = 7) of the women had six children or more. Women are created to give birth to

children, and are big role players to socialise them into society (Churchill, 1992). This task consumes a lot of time, and comes with a huge responsibility, the table confirms women have multiple responsibilities which include strenuous work and that they must still fend for their children. Society and corporate growers need to be supportive of women, and more especially in the socio-economic demanding era.

Women's economic empowerment is a prerequisite for sustainable development and pro-poor growth (Maysami & Goby, 1999). Achieving women's economic empowerment requires sound public policies, a holistic approach, long-term commitment and gender-specific perspectives must be integrated at the design stage of policy and programming. Women must have more equitable access to assets and services; infrastructure programmes should be designed to benefit the poor, both men and women, and employment opportunities must be improved while increasing recognition of women's vast unpaid work. Innovative approaches and partnerships include increased dialogue among development actors, improved co-ordination amongst donors and support for women organising at the national and global level. Women's economic empowerment is a prerequisite for sustainable development, pro-poor growth and the achievement of all the MDGs. At the same time it is about rights and equitable societies. There is scope for increasing donor investments in women's economic empowerment. Achieving women's economic empowerment is not a quick fix. It will take sound public policies, a holistic approach and long-term commitment from all development actors, who must start with women by integrating gender-specific perspectives at the design stage of policy and programming.

8.2.4. Level of Education

Table 8.5: Distribution of respondents by level of education

Level of education	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No School Attended	16	40.0	40.0
Grade 12 not completed	22	55.0	95.0
Grade 12 completed	2	5.0	100.0
Total	40	100.0	

The results, as shown in table 8.5, showed that 55% ($n = 40$) of the respondents had not completed matric. However, it was also shown that 5% ($n = 2$) had completed matric and 40% had no formal schooling education. Education prepares and augments value to an individual's life. It further shapes and transforms society, enhancing the socio-economic landscape thereof. The table shows a component of society whose level of education is low, impeding individual growth that translates to lack of collective growth. In the underdeveloped countries and in a developing country such as South Africa, the strategic interventionist approach would be the most appropriate, provided that assistance and expenditure are closely monitored in light of relatively limited capital resources. In principle it addresses most establishment needs in the small-business sector and should by implication be suitable for men as well as women of all racial groups. Historically the collateral requirements of financial institutions in South Africa and perceptions of risk, as well as political factors, promoted the totally uneven distribution of loans to black people and women. The data on female-owned businesses are limited (Churchill, 1992), and the need for further research on female entrepreneurs has been identified as long ago as the early 1980s (Kasarda, 1992).

Dolinsky et al (1993) are of the opinion that most international studies on female entrepreneurs suffered from limitations that precluded their generalisation. Most used convenience sampling, small sample sizes, have a limited geographical scope and individuals were seldom observed over an extended period. The uneven distribution of business ownership between males and females

could to a considerable extent be attributed to entry barriers experienced by females in particular, for example insufficient access to finance and credit facilities (Brown, 1997; Kolvereid et al, 1993, Maysami & Goby, 1999, Schutte et al, 1995, World Bank Group, 1999).

Contrary to the general trend, the UK study of Rosa et al (1994) did not support the view that there is discrimination against women when it comes to bank loan applications. Other entry barriers were: insufficient recognition by governments of the role women play in the economies of developing countries in particular (Brown, 1997), limited education and vocational training in developing countries in particular (Chandralekha et al, 1995), no collateral and no or a poor credit history, no business track record, lack of legal status (Brown, 1997), family commitments of married women (Hamilton, 1993; Stoner et al, 1990), and female entrepreneurs avoiding the male-dominated business sectors (Erwee, 1987; Adams et al, 1999).

8.2.5. Number of Years worked in Forestry

Table 8.6: Distribution of Respondents by number of years in Forestry

Current Job				
of years in forestry	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0-5 Years	13	24.1	32.5	32.5
5-10 Years	18	33.3	45.0	77.5
10-15 Years	9	16.7	22.5	100.0
Total	40	74.1	100.0	

Table 8.6 shows the distribution of respondents according to their number of years working in forestry. The results showed that a majority, 33.3% (n = 18) of the respondents have spent 5-10

years working in this sector. It was further shown that 24.1% (n = 13) of the women have 0-5 years of work experience and 16.7% (n= 9) have 10 – 15 years of work in this sector. Work is a vital component of life. Work is a source that sustains people's livelihood; hence the table manifests this whereby despite the hardship women experience in forestry work, they persevere for the sake of a better livelihood. As with all development programming, it is critically important for donors to understand the context in a given region or country, and to support existing frameworks and plans that governments have in place to address gender equality in central and line ministries and at local and community levels. Interventions need to vary according to countries' different development needs and whether they are stable or conflict-affected. In low-income countries, women's access to basic agricultural inputs and microfinance will continue to be needed, whilst in transition countries, the focus needs to be on labour market skills, access to commercial credit and women's entrepreneurship (Buvinic et al., 2010).

The recent financial, food and fuel crises have led to renewed attention by donors to agriculture, food security and rural development. Women are major players in agriculture, making up the majority of farmers and farm labourers in many countries. Women produce most of the food that is consumed locally and are responsible for household food security in many rural areas. More equitable access to land, fertilisers, water for irrigation, seeds, technology, tools, livestock and extension services would make agriculture a more efficient means of promoting shared economic growth, reducing poverty and improving food security and rural livelihoods (Buvinic et al, 2010). However, compared to men, women operate smaller farms; keep fewer livestock, typically of smaller breeds, and earn less from the livestock they do own; have a greater overall workload that includes low-productivity activities like fetching water and firewood; have less access to innovation and productive assets and services; are much less likely to purchase inputs such as fertilisers, improved seeds and mechanical equipment; have weaker property rights and tenure security and reduced incentives to invest in their land; are poorly represented in the leadership of

rural organisations, particularly at the regional and national level; if employed, they are more likely to be in part-time, seasonal and low-paying jobs; and receive lower wages for the same work, even when they have the same experience and qualifications.

8.6.2. Number of Working Household members

Table 8.7: Distribution of Respondents by Number of Working Household Members

Working household	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
One	12	22.2	30.0	30.0
Two	21	38.9	52.5	82.5
Three	7	13.0	17.5	100.0
Total	40	74.1	100.0	

The result, as shown in table 8.7 showed that 52.2 % (n = 21) have an average of two of their family members working, and only 13.0% (n=7) have three members per household working. It was also evident in the interviewing process that the number of working household members is often a mother and daughter employed. The existence of the traditional division of labour according to the functionalist view, testifies to the usefulness for human societies. According to the principles of functionalism, the functional prerequisites are the basic needs, namely, shelter, food, money and clothing that the individual needs in order to survive.

According to structural functionalists, gender serves to maintain social order by providing and ensuring the stability of such functional prerequisites. While gender roles, according to the functionalist perspective, are beneficial in that they contribute to a stable social system, many argue that gender roles are discriminatory and should not be upheld. On the contrary, the feminist perspective takes the position that functionalism neglects the suppression of women within the

family structure (Boudless, 2014). The conflict perspective is compatible with the Feminist Theory in its assertions that structured social inequality is maintained by ideologies that are frequently accepted by both the privileged and the oppressed. These ideologies are challenged only when oppressed groups gain the resources necessary to do so. Unlike Conflict Theory's focus on social class and the economic elements necessary to challenge the prevailing system, feminists focus on women and their ability to gain resources from a variety of sources, like involvement in business in the Forestry industry.

Feminists work through a number of avenues to increase women's empowerment, which is the ability for women to exert control over their own destinies. One of the most important contributions of the feminist perspective in sociology, and the present study in particular, is its attention to the multiple oppressions faced by people whose status sets are disadvantaged due to distinctive combinations based on their race, gender and social class. For example, when the issue of poverty becomes "feminized" the issue is defined primarily by gender. Women are more at a risk of being poor than men.

8.2.7. Family Income

Table 8.8: Distribution of Respondents by Family Income

Family income	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
R1000-1500	18	33.3	45.0	45.0
R1500-2 500	12	22.2	30.0	75.0
R2 500-3 500	7	13.0	17.5	92.5
R3 500-4 500	1	1.9	2.5	95.0
R5500 and above	2	3.7	5.0	100.0
Total	40	74.1	100.0	

Levels of income determine the range of remuneration to a large number of female employees. This depicts the dwarfed life of women in the forestry sector. From the result (see table 8.8), it can be deduced that most of employees belong to the lower income brackets. 45.0 % (n=18) reported that their parents earn below R2000 per month. It is only a small proportion of 17.5% (n=7) of the respondents whose parents earn a higher income of about R 3 500 and above. The need to empower women economically and socially in order to strengthen gender equality in rural societies is generally recognized as a necessary prerequisite for increasing agricultural productivity, reducing poverty and hunger, and promoting economic growth (FAO, 2012).

As explained by Duflo (2012), there are two rationales for fostering gender equality: The first is that equity is valuable in and of itself: women are currently worse-off than men, and this inequality between genders is repulsive in its own right. The second, a central argument in the discourse of policymakers, is that women play a fundamental role in development (Agarwal, 2010; Coleman & Mwangi, 2012). The gender gap in education, political participation, and employment opportunities should therefore be reduced not only because it is equitable to do so, but also because it will have beneficial consequences for many other society-wide outcomes. It should be done, in other words, to increase efficiency. The forest sector provides a broad range of opportunities to empower rural women. Here, we discuss in greater depth two of these options, namely enhancing the participation of women in forest user groups and in forest-oriented rural resource centres (Agarwal, 2010; Coleman & Mwangi, 2012).

This focus seems justified given the growing consensus among development actors that participatory rural organizations can play strategic roles in overcoming the social and economic obstacles that female small producers face in rural settings. A sizeable body of literature provides evidence that women are generally underrepresented in forest user groups such as village forest committees and community forest associations (Agarwal, 2010; Coleman & Mwangi, 2012). In

many settings, rules allowing only one person per household to participate in such groups tend to exclude women, thus adding to the host of other barriers to women's engagement (e.g. the gender division of labour and access rights, gender-differentiated behavioural norms, gender segregation in public spaces, social perceptions of women's roles, women's lack of bargaining power, and men's entrenched claims and control over community structures). Often, women are enlisted for decision-making only when forest and tree resources are degraded (Agarwal, 2010; Coleman & Mwangi, 2012).

8.2.8. Position at Work

Table 8.9: Distribution of Respondents by Position at work

Position at work	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
First Aider	9	22.5	22.5
Gumtree Bark Stripper	19	47.5	70.0
Log Stacker	11	27.5	97.5
Fire Fighter	1	2.5	100.0
Total	40	100.0	

The results, as shown in table 8.9, showed that the majority of women employees constitute 47.5 % (n = 19) are gumtree bark strippers, log stackers are 27.5 % (n=11) and 22.5 % (n=9) are first aiders. The table depicts the majority of women strip the bark of the gumtrees, followed by log stackers. The two jobs are the most dangerous, strenuous and low paying. It becomes very difficult to complete a day's task on such work considering the harsh climate conditions and the weight of the logs. Feminists work through a number of avenues to increase women's empowerment, which is the ability for women to exert control over their own destinies. One of the most important contributions of the feminist perspective in sociology, and the present study in particular, is its attention to the multiple oppressions faced by people whose status sets are disadvantaged due to

distinctive combinations based on their race, gender and social class. For example, when the issue of poverty becomes “feminized” the issue is defined primarily by gender. Women are more at a risk of being poor than men.

On the contrary, Conflict theories deny the historical inevitability and necessity of the traditional division of labour between women and men. The division of labour between women and men may have been functional in non-industrialized societies, where physical strength was required by many tasks. However, in industrialized societies, the situation has changed. The continuance of the traditional division of labour between men and women and the social inequality that it produces merely contribute to unnecessary social conflict and are therefore, not functional for society. The Forestry Charter, for example, advocates for the rendering of business opportunities for women in the Forestry industry. The findings of this study are further supported by the Forestry Charter whose aims are: to promote investment programmes that lead to sustainable Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment growth and development of the forest sector and meaningful participation of Black people in the entire Forestry value chain; to achieve sustainable change in the racial and gender composition of ownership, management and control structures; to achieve change in the skilled positions of existing and new forest enterprises; to increase the extent to which Black women and men, workers, cooperatives and other collective enterprises own and manage existing and new forest enterprises and to increase their access to economic activities, infrastructure and skills training; to nurture new Black-owned and/or Black-managed enterprises to undertake new forms of economic and value-adding activities in the Forest Sector; to use the Forest industry as a catalyst for empowering rural and local Black communities to access economic activities, land, infrastructure, ownership and skills; to promote sustainable employment and contracting practices in the Forest Sector; to promote access to finance for Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment in the Forest Sector; to promote equitable representation in industry structures and equitable access

to forestry support systems; and to provide an enabling environment for transparency, fairness and consistency.

8.3. The relationship between SELASSU, PERDIWOM and PERABIL

Ironically, because women are more persistent in enduring harassment by border officials, they actually seem to cope with the challenges of informal cross-border trade better than men (Matorofa, 2008). The procedure should start with women by integrating gender-specific perspectives at the design stage of policy and programming. More equitable access to assets and services – land, water, technology, innovation and credit, banking and financial services – will strengthen women's rights, increase agricultural productivity, reduce hunger and promote economic growth.

Infrastructure programmes should be designed to maximise poor women's and men's access to the benefits of roads, transportation services, telecommunications, energy and water. Women experience barriers in almost every aspect of work. Employment opportunities need to be improved. At the same time women perform the bulk of unpaid care work. This is an area for greater attention by development actors. Integrating gender-specific perspectives at the design stage of policy and programming – starting with women – is an over-arching good practice for both donors and recipient countries. This means specifying gender equality as a goal in policies, strategies, budgets, programmes and projects, as well as identifying unintended consequences and risks for women.

Table 8.10 and BTS for SELAS Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.741
	Approx. Chi-Square	203.010
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	105
	Sig.	.000

The study sought to investigate the extent of the relationship between self-assurance and the coping level of woman in different functions. A variable known as SELASSU was computed electronically through PCA from a list of 15 items derived from the questionnaire for the study. The PCA revealed $KMO = .741$, $BTS, X^2 = 203.010$, ($df = 105$), $p < 0.05$ indicating that the sample was adequate for factor reduction. PCA extracted only one factor named SELASSU, which accounts for 15.043 % of variance (shown in table 8.11). The scree plot (see figure 2.6), depicts that other factors become irrelevant for extraction purposes after the variable SELASSU has been extracted.

Table 8.11: Descriptive statistics for SELASSU

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Extraction
Women in forestry feel a lower level of mastery than women in other jobs	2.10	1.277	.298
Coping level at work	1.98	.800	.027
Considering all the chores you have to carry out every day	1.95	1.358	.709
I feel overwhelmed by work	2.25	1.446	.550
I balance home and work adequately	2.35	.921	.674
The stress in forestry is like any other work	2.00	1.013	.335
Being a mother and working is too stressful	2.25	1.256	.197
The tasks are generally too difficult for women	2.40	1.392	.662
Multi-tasking is too difficult for women	1.90	1.081	.099
The forestry job is too physical for women	2.83	1.483	.410
The forestry job is too difficult for women	2.63	1.314	.291
The plantation terrain is too harsh for women	2.93	1.509	.724
Targets set are too difficult for women to meet	2.75	1.056	.853
Forestry is one of the most dangerous jobs	3.03	1.230	.076

As can be deduced from the Table (8.11) above the most import item in the describing SELASSU is *“Forestry is one of the most dangerous jobs”*, mean=3.03, SD=1.230. The corporate grower ensures that they select contractors or entrepreneurs that would generate good revenue and become a “catalyst for its economic activity” as pointed out by Nieman et al. (2003). Nieman et al. 200: 327) further state that in the South African economy, entrepreneurs are seen as the principal creators and champions of new businesses and, therefore, they are clearly distinguished as economic actors. Due to slow economic growth, high unemployment and an unsatisfactory level of poverty in South Africa, entrepreneurship becomes a critical solution. People have taken a bold move towards either choosing entrepreneurship as their career path or circumstances will force them to create their own employment, even women and youth are exploring this phenomenon.

Forest plantations are commonly found in rural areas and are mostly surrounded by neighbouring communities. Historically, Forestry has been a tradition to most of these communities and it is very common that people are acquainted to working in forest plantations as they used to own few hectares of plantation for their survival. Due to severe economic situations, most people struggled to maintain their forest plantation and opted for either employment or ventured into alternative survival, like being employed either directly by the corporate grower or the entrepreneur who is contracting to the corporate grower. Some people in the community, albeit they are not well educated, are mentally strong, have the entrepreneurship mentality, have persevered ventured as forest entrepreneurs. This process of penetrating the industry as an entrepreneur has been created by the amended laws of South Africa, as stipulated in the B-BBEE Act and corporate growers have been forced to comply by outsourcing work to the people from the neighbouring communities or to people who have been working for the corporate grower (Cele 2010).

On the issue of women as indicated by Nieman, et al, women are not as visible in the entrepreneurial, management level, but are more visible as employees either planting or de-baking gum species using very sharp hatchets (Cele 2010). According to Nieman et al. (2003:34), traditionally, a woman's role has been that of mother and wife, but the economic role of women has emerged in South Africa. Women were always seen to be in the kitchen; nowadays they are represented in large numbers in boardrooms. Women entrepreneurs seem to be the most disadvantaged group because until recently they could not spear-head or champion a business activity without taking their husband or a male counterpart along.

Table 8.12: Total Variance Explained for SELASSU

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared			Rotation Sums of Squared		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.315	15.434	15.434	2.315	15.434	15.434	2.256	15.043	15.043
2	2.144	14.295	29.729	2.144	14.295	29.729	2.148	14.323	29.367
3	1.911	12.743	42.472	1.911	12.743	42.472	1.966	13.105	42.472

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

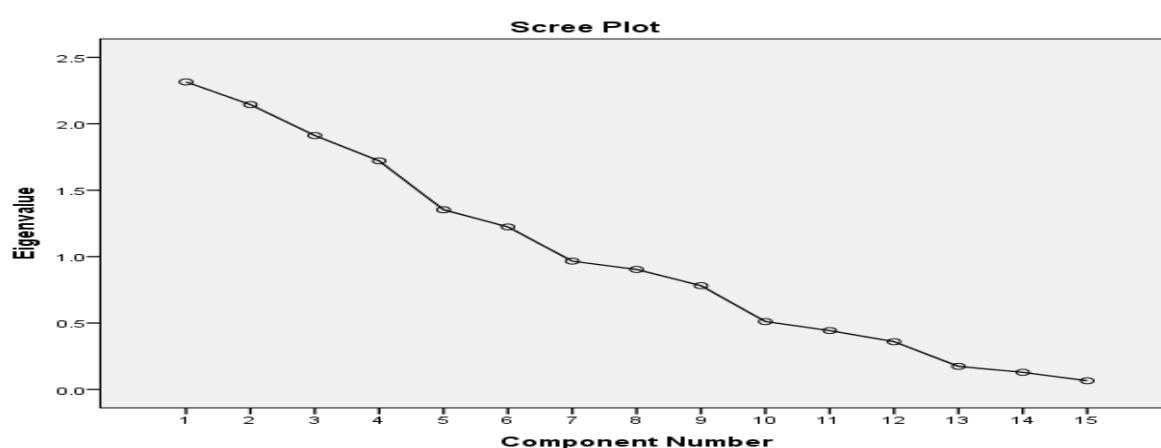


Figure 2.6: Scree plot for SELASSU

Table 8.13: Social Demographic correlates of the SELASSU

		SELASSU
Age	Pearson Correlation	-.045
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.782
Race	Pearson Correlation	-.088
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.591
Home Language	Pearson Correlation	-.088
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.591
Marital Status	Pearson Correlation	-.175
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.281
Number of children	Pearson Correlation	.140
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.388
Level of Education	Pearson Correlation	-.268
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.095
Current Job	Pearson Correlation	.388*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013
Number of working household members	Pearson Correlation	.022
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.892
Estimate monthly income for the whole family	Pearson Correlation	-.041
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.800
Position held at work	Pearson Correlation	-.082
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.614
Work description	Pearson Correlation	.035
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.829

*, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results in Table (8.13) show zero order correlations between social demographic factors and coping and self-assurance of women employees in the forestry sector. Results show that number of children is correlated with SELASSU, $r = .140$, $p < 0.05$ (2 tailed), current job with SELASSU, $r = .388$, $p < 0.05$ (2 tailed). While men may be the nominal owners of trees, women are often responsible for the marketing of fruits and, importantly, are often able to decide how the income is used. Poulton & Poole (2001) proposed that the domestication of indigenous fruits may be more advantageous to household food and income security than the introduction of exotic fruit trees, which tend to be the domain of men. Nevertheless, women's participation in tree domestication has been hindered by limited access to and control over land and trees, insufficient information on the requirements and advantages of tree domestication, and substantial periods of production inactivity due to the childbearing and childrearing roles of women and their heavy workloads in the household (Degrande et al., 2007; Degrande, 2009).

The available literature (Degrande, 2012) also suggests that, compared with single women and widows, married women are generally more knowledgeable about tree domestication because they tend to have easier access to land and labour via their husbands. Men's knowledge is often regarded as knowledge that "counts", but the knowledge held by women is not always properly recognized in forest management plans and forest use. If communities recognize the value for future generations of the "hidden" knowledge held by rural women of forest trees and plants for food and medicine, and if that knowledge is sought out in development learning and programming, it is likely to be retained and to contribute directly to conserving forest biodiversity. Thus, there is a need to support women's knowledge on forestry matters to improve rural livelihoods, foster knowledge transmission between generations and user groups, conserve forest and agroforestry biodiversity, support local-level climate change adaptation, and strengthen the resilience of vulnerable households.

Table 8.14: KMO and BTS for PERDIWOM

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.599
Approx. Chi-Square		115.460
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	78
	Sig.	.004

The study also investigated the respondents' perceptions on discrimination against women in forestry business with the primary purpose of enhancing social inclusion and participation of women. A variable known as PERDIWOM was computed electronically through PCA from a list of 15 items derived from the questionnaire for the study. The PCA revealed KMO = .599, BTS, $X^2 = 115.460$, (df = 78), $p < 0.05$ indicating that the sample was adequate for factor reduction. PCA extracted only one factor named PERDIWOM, which accounts for 18.070 % of variance (shown in

table 8.16). The scree plot (see figure 2.7), depicts that other factors become irrelevant for extraction purposes after the variable PERDIWOM has been extracted.

Table 8.15: Descriptive statistics for PERDIWOM

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Extraction
Women are seen as incapable in forestry	2.65	1.001	.054
Gender domination in forestry is higher than in other sectors	2.15	1.292	.580
Everything is about men in forestry	2.63	1.480	.835
Men feel threatened by women in forestry	2.88	1.223	.300
Supervisors show favouritism to men	2.73	1.414	.661
Clients listen to men more than women	2.80	1.522	.802
Women are not respected at all	2.60	1.105	.196
The man woman ratio still favours the men	3.08	1.289	.313
More women should be allowed to penetrate the forestry industry	2.83	1.152	.060
Sometimes women are denied tasks because of their gender	3.00	1.359	.010
Some stubborn contractors refuse to take instructions from women	2.78	1.349	.357
Sometimes as a female forester you are taken as a secretary	2.70	1.137	.001
It is difficult for outspoken women to renew their contracts	3.15	1.424	.363

As can be deduced from the Table (8.15) above the most import item in the describing PERDIWOM is “*It is difficult for outspoken women to renew their contracts*”, mean=3.15, SD=1.424. Productive employment and decent work in developing countries, including in fragile

contexts, are the main routes out of poverty for both women and men. Women's participation in the labour market can be increased by addressing the constraints and barriers women face accessing work, including public employment programmes, and by providing well focussed vocational training. Social protection measures can enhance the productivity and participation of poor women in the labour market by reducing their vulnerability to livelihood risks and economic shocks.

Women experience barriers in almost every aspect of work, including: whether they have paid work at all; the type of work they obtain or are excluded from; the availability of support services such as childcare; their pay, benefits and conditions of work; the insecurity of their jobs or enterprises (ILO , 2009) and their access to vocational training (Kabeer, 2008). Effective implementation and scaling-up requires strong and innovative partnerships. Too often “women's projects” do not move beyond the pilot phase, only ever amounting to “boutique’ projects – “saving one woman at a time”.

Table 8.16: Total Variance Explained for PERDIWOM

	Component	Initial Eigenvalues ^a			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
		Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Raw	1	3.952	18.070	18.070	3.952	18.070	18.070
	2	3.484	15.931	34.001			
	3	2.949	13.482	47.483			
	4	2.477	11.327	58.810			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

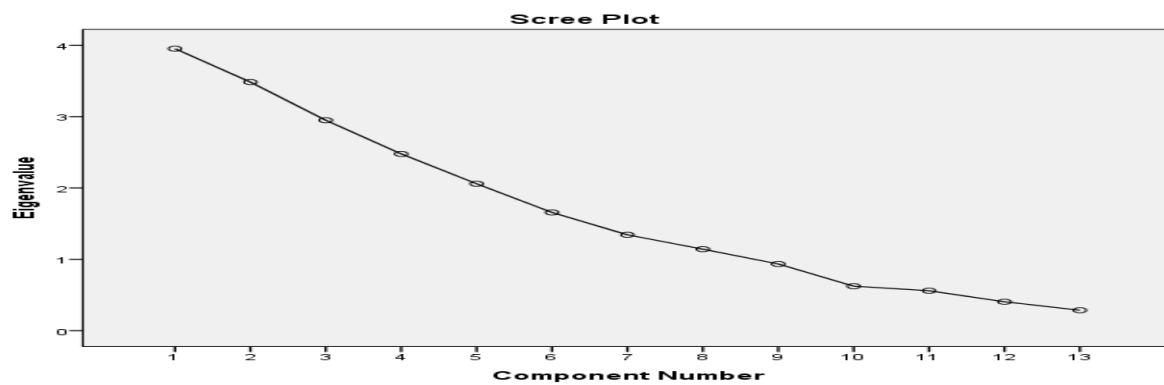


Figure 2.7: Scree plot for PERDIWOM

Table 8.17: Correlations between Social Demographics and PERDIWOM

		PERDIWOM
Age	Pearson Correlation	-.034*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
Race	Pearson Correlation	-.204
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.208
Home Language	Pearson Correlation	-.204
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.208
Marital Status	Pearson Correlation	-.301
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.059
Number of children	Pearson Correlation	.215
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.183
Level of Education	Pearson Correlation	.446*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008
Current Job	Pearson Correlation	.075
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.646
Number of working household members	Pearson Correlation	-.021
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.899
Estimate monthly family income	Pearson Correlation	.516
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.475
Position held at work	Pearson Correlation	.609*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004
Work description	Pearson Correlation	.013
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.937

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results in Table (8.17) show zero order correlations between social demographic factors and the perception of discrimination against women in the forestry industry. Results show that the number of children is correlated with PERDIWOM, $r = .215$, $p < 0.05$ (2 tailed), level of education, $r = .446$, $p < 0.05$ (2 tailed). The results further showed that PERDIWOM is correlated with monthly family income, $r = .516$, $p < 0.05$ (2 tailed) position held at work, $r = -.609$, $p < 0.05$ (1 tailed) and all other social demographic variables fell below the points of statistical significance when correlated with PERDIWOM. Interest in improving the lot of women in developing countries, culminated in the Cairo population Conference of 1994 and Beijing Women's Conference of 1995, which led to the international agencies and feminist organisations, alike, to rally behind the concept of "women empowerment" (Malhotra & DeGraff: 1996). Studies of the impact of microcredit in societies where women have traditionally been excluded from the cash economy have found that women's access to credit led to a number of positive changes in women's own perception of themselves (Kabeer: 2001). In a research study prepared for the Sector Outlook European Forest, the study found that the share of women in Forestry is low in all countries.

The following themes emerged from the study, namely: The status of women in Forestry is a reflection of the explicit and implicit values of societies, which is influenced by the social, cultural and historical factors that have made it difficult for women to enter and progress in the Forestry Sector. The fact that the Forestry industry is highly dominated by men, may be discouraging to many women, who may feel that there is likely to be discrimination and that their opportunities for career development may be held back. Although there does not appear to be any direct research evidence on this issue, it is a factor highlighted as a stumbling block to women considering the male dominated industry. In terms of the prevailing situation in the Forestry industry in South Africa, there is clear evidence of discriminatory practice against women. In the past, this has been

very explicit in certain sectors and evidence suggests that this is still very much the case. In many countries the situation has improved since the introduction of equality legislation. Since the introduction of the equality legislation, discrimination appears to have become more implicit.

Table 8.18: KMO and BTS for PERABIL

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.582
Approx. Chi-Square		126.074
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	78
	Sig.	.000

The study sought to investigate the respondents' perceived level of empowerment and how women in the forestry business are succeeding. A variable known as PERABIL was computed electronically through PCA from a list of 15 items derived from the questionnaire for the study. The PCA revealed KMO = .582, BTS, $X^2 = 126.074$, (df = 78), $p < 0.05$ indicating that the sample was adequate for factor reduction. PCA extracted only one factor named PERABIL, which accounts for 20.129 % of variance (shown in table 8.19). The scree plot (see figure 2.8), depicts that other factors become irrelevant for extraction purposes after the variable PERABIL has been extracted.

Table 8.19: Descriptive statistics for PERABIL

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Extraction
Women must have equal access to job opportunities	1.10	.304	.244
Opportunities for women in forestry are relevant	2.18	.636	.006
Forestry is not too technical for women	2.30	.911	.022
Would encourage other women to go into forestry	2.13	1.488	.116
I foresee progress for disadvantaged contractors	2.65	1.167	.454
Work procedure for men is the same for women	2.75	1.373	.052
No matter your gender it's about production	2.58	1.059	.254
Work is work and forestry is relevant	3.15	1.252	.329
Forestry is a career with many opportunities	2.88	1.572	.000
I do not feel any challenges as a female forester	3.05	1.395	.081
No one can control me. I don't like being told what to do	2.85	1.350	.267
More women should be allowed to penetrate the forestry industry	2.83	1.152	.675
I am confident to work with men even as the only female	2.73	1.281	.116

As can be deduced from the Table (8.19) above the most import item in describing PERABIL is “*Work is work and forestry is relevant*” mean= 3.15, SD=1.252. Promoting employment equity is not only a legal requirement, but is also a good way to ensure business competitiveness and to ensure a supply of future senior Black managers and shareholders. Businesses wanting to improve their employment equity profile can do a number of things. When making new appointments, preferences should be given to Black applicants, both men and women. Employment equity can also be promoted by putting a training and promotion policy in place to enable a flow of Black staff up through the ranks of the business. It is a good idea to link employment equity plans with skills development plans, capitalizing in developing skills of Black people to occupy job categories

where Black people are presently under-represented. For medium to large enterprises, take note that employing a huge number of unskilled Black workers is not going to earn any Employment Equity points.

Skills Development lies at the core of B-BBEE and is fundamental to achieving targets set for most of the other elements of the score card. It is also very important for the growth and transformation of the economy as a whole, given the severe skills shortage in South Africa. Investment in training will also improve the competitiveness of a business and have spin offs for increased staff morale and loyalty. The Forest Sector has made a commitment to develop and implement a skills development strategy and plan for the sector. The Sector Charter sets a target of an additional 3% of payroll to be spent by businesses on training for their Black employees, over and above the existing 1% statutory levy.

These additional funds are to be managed directly by businesses, and do not flow through government as does the statutory skills development levy. It is advisable for business to prepare a single training programme that covers both the 1% skills development levy funds and the additional 3%. When planning training using the additional 3%, the rules concerning allowable spend, direct and indirect expenses must be taken into account. Good records of expenditure must be kept for verification purposes, as well as training schedules and attendance registers. For assistance with planning, managing or running of training, businesses can contact their SETA, or local training providers. Training providers are often willing to support employers to develop a skills plan free of charge, as they can then claim back business skills development levy funds from the SETSA for the training courses they provide.

Table 8.19: Total Variance Explained for PERABIL

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.617	20.129	20.129	2.617	20.129	20.129
2	1.926	14.814	34.942			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



Figure 2.8: Scree plot for PERABIL

Table 8.20: Correlations between Social Demographics and PERABIL

		Perception of empowerment and ability of women
Age	Pearson Correlation	-.084
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.605
Race	Pearson Correlation	.231
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.151
Home Language	Pearson Correlation	.231
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.151
Marital Status	Pearson Correlation	.189
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.242
Number of children	Pearson Correlation	-.162
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.317
Level of education	Pearson Correlation	.542*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
Current Job	Pearson Correlation	.413
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000*
Number of working household members	Pearson Correlation	.033
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.838
Estimate monthly family income	Pearson Correlation	.522*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
Position held at work	Pearson Correlation	-.049
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.763

The results in Table (8.20) show zero order correlations between social demographic factors and the perception of empowerment and ability of women in forestry. Results show that race is

correlated with PERABIL, $r = .231$, $p < 0.05$ (2 tailed), home language, $r = .231$, $p < 0.05$ (2 tailed). The results further showed that PERABIL is correlated with marital status, $r = .242$, $p < 0.05$ (2 tailed) level of education, $r = .542$, $p < 0.05$ (1 tailed), current job, $r = .413$, $p < 0.05$ (1 tailed) and monthly family income, $r = .522$, $p < 0.05$, and all other demographic variables fell below the points of statistical significance when correlated with PERABIL. The most direct way in which forests and trees contribute to food security is through contributions to diets and nutrition (FAO, 1992). Forest foods – wild leaves, fruits, roots, tubers, seeds, nuts, mushrooms, saps, gums, and forest animals and their products, such as eggs and honey – supplement the foods produced by agriculture and obtained from other sources. Forest foods can assist in coping with seasonal food shortages and shortages due to extreme weather events, natural disasters, human-made conflicts and other shocks (Arnold et al., 2011).

Wan et al (2011) demonstrated that the gendered division of agricultural labour and food production, combined with the fact that women often have fewer alternative income-earning opportunities than men, means that women tend to collect forest foods to supplement the nutrition of their households. Women play a particularly important role in collecting and processing edible wild plants from forests, as well as in the preparation of household meals by using forest foods to cook (for example) soups, stews and relishes (Vinceti et al 2008; FAO, 2012). Women often have substantial knowledge on the identification, collection and preparation of highly nutritious forest foods that can complement and add flavour to the staples of family meals. In addition, income generated from these activities by women adds to the purchasing power of households and therefore their food security. Honey, wild animals, fish and insects are also collected from forests.

These collection and hunting activities tend to be more the role of men, and in some places, such as in forest reserves of the Congo Basin and parts of the Peruvian Amazon, they provide the primary sources of animal protein for rural people (FAO, 1992). Men are also more likely than women to be

responsible for hanging and smoking wild bee hives and for hunting bush meat such as birds and collecting their eggs (Shackleton et al., 2011; IFAD, 2008). Agroforestry, farm forests and home gardens contribute to food security both directly and indirectly by providing a range of products and services. In addition, the protection of natural regeneration and the maintenance and planting of trees on farms provide valuable ecosystem services that increase and sustain agricultural production (Scherr & McNeely, 2008).

Table 8.21: Correlations for SELASSU, PERDIWOM and PERABIL

	SELASSU	PERDIWOM	PERABIL
SELASSU	Pearson Correlation	1	.680*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.296
	N	40	40
PERDIWOM	Pearson Correlation	.680*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.296	.064
	N	40	40
PERABIL	Pearson Correlation	.243	.296
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.192	.064
	N	40	40

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

A Pearson product moment was run to determine the relationship between three variables SELASSU, PERDIWOM and PERABIL (see table 8.21). The results showed that there is a correlation between SELASSU and PERDIWOM, $r = .680$, $p < .296$ (1-tailed). Further to that, the results showed that PERDIWOM and PERABIL are correlated insignificantly, $r = .296$, $p < .064$, the results also showed that there is a correlation between PERABIL and SELASSU, $r = .243$, $p < .192$. Many women entrepreneurs in developing countries face disproportionate obstacles in accessing and competing in markets. These include women's relative lack of mobility, capacity and technical skills in relation to men (World Bank, 2009).

The World Bank Action Plan (2006) Gender Equality as Smart Economics argues that economic empowerment is about making markets work for women and empowering women to compete in markets. Because markets come in many forms, the Action Plan targets four key markets: land, labour, financial and product (increasing access to business services and facilitating the creation of female-owned businesses) markets. Where globalisation has widened the gap between rich and poor, there is evidence that it is women and children who are most affected. The global economic recession has had a massive impact on poor producers. Donors can help ensure that globalisation and trade liberalisation benefit all – both women and men. Current barriers include some trade policies and regulations, lack of economic infrastructure and limited access to export markets.

On the basis of political economy itself, in its own words, we have shown that the worker sinks to the level of a commodity and becomes indeed the most wretched of commodities; that the wretchedness of the worker is in inverse proportion to the power and magnitude of his production; that the necessary result of competition is in the accumulation of capital in a few hands, and thus the restoration of monopoly in a more terrible form; that finally the distinction between capitalist and land renter, like between the tiller of the soil and the factory worker, disappears and that the whole of society must fall apart into two classes – the property owners and the property less

workers. Tucker further highlights Karl Marx's view in his emphasis that; "We proceed from an actual economic fact. The worker becomes all the poorer the more the wealth he produces, the more his production increases in power and range. The worker becomes an even cheaper commodity, the more commodities he creates. With the increasing value of the world of things proceeds in direct proportion the devaluation of the world of men. Labour produces not only commodities; it produces itself and the worker as a commodity and does so in the proportion in which it produces commodities generally.

The researcher agrees with Karl Marx in that in Forestry and in line with the topic, the entrepreneur becomes poorer as he or she produces more wealth for the corporate grower (SiyaQhubeka Forests and Sappi). It is very disheartening to witness an entrepreneur failing to prolong and sustain the business in Forestry, due to the fact that the corporate grower ensures economically well-crafted sabotage. This is deliberately embedded in the cost calculated programmes created and adopted by the corporate growers. The entrepreneur has to calculate the rate per ton or the rate per hectare based on the costing programme.

8.4. Discussion of findings

The findings of this study showed that the forestry sector could be transformed to fully accommodate women. This would be possible by empowering women in all aspects of the business. It was evident from the results of this study that it is difficult for outspoken women to renew their contracts. The results showed that women can cope with the forestry sector as the results argued forestry is relevant for them. According to the results, forestry is one of the most dangerous jobs. The results of this study showed that self-assurance is correlated with number of children and the current job. Human societies are characterised by gender principles, by which

inanimate objects, individuals and animals, are sorted and given a value. Throughout history, social phenomena have been given a masculine or feminine connotation. Specific ideas of feminine or masculine qualities are connected to certain roles, expectations, positions and tasks in individuals. The number of children, education, monthly income and position at work were significantly correlated with the discrimination of women. The idea of what is appropriate for men and women lays the foundation for the distribution of work for both sexes.

Thus, Forestry is not an exception to this perception, since it has been generally regarded as an arena mainly for men's work and business (FAO: 2006). The perceived ability was seen to be correlated with home language, marital status, and level of education, current job and monthly income. Responses to women entering male-dominated areas such as Forestry have often been negatively perceived. In Norway, for example, since Forestry has traditionally been regarded as a male rural occupation, women have faced negative attitudes upon joining the Forestry industry (Brandth & Haugen, 1998; Brandth & Haugen, 2000). Interest in improving the lot of women in developing countries, culminated in the Cairo population Conference of 1994 and Beijing Women's Conference of 1995, which led international agencies and feminist organisations, alike, to rally behind the concept of "women empowerment" (Malhotra & DeGraff: 1996).

The discrimination of women according to the results of the study was seen as insignificantly correlated to the perceived ability of women, while self-assurance and perceptions of discrimination was significantly correlated. Studies of the impact of microcredit in societies where women have traditionally been excluded from the cash economy have found that women's access to credit led to a number of positive changes in women's own perception of themselves (Kabeer: 2001). In a research study prepared for the Sector Outlook European Forest, the study found that the share of women in Forestry is low in all countries. The following themes emerged from the study, namely: The status of women in Forestry is a reflection of the explicit and implicit values of

societies, which is influenced by the social, cultural and historical factors that have made it difficult for women to enter and progress in the Forestry Sector. The fact that the Forestry industry is highly dominated by men, may be discouraging to many women, who may feel that there is likely to be discrimination and that their opportunities for career development may be held back.

Although there does not appear to be any direct research evidence on this issue, it is a factor highlighted as a stumbling block to women considering the male dominated industry. In terms of the prevailing situation in the Forestry industry in South Africa, there is clear evidence of discriminatory practice against women. In the past, this has been very explicit in certain sectors and evidence suggests that this is still very much the case. In many countries the situation has improved since the introduction of equality legislation. Since the introduction of the equality legislation, discrimination appears to have become more implicit. Many women in the Forestry industry refer to discrimination, stereotypes and the culture being closed to them, awakening memories of a men's "club" with male focused standards and values.

8.5. Conclusion

This chapter has presented the findings of the study. The chapter presented the results of the correlation between independent and dependent variables. It demonstrated that there are demographic factors that are correlated to the independent variables that are central to the study. The results of the chapter showed that women are confident of themselves and are prepared for any empowerment initiatives. The next chapter (9) is the conclusion chapter; it gives a full summary of the whole study, including the core argument of the study and recommendations.

Chapter 9: Conclusion

“Women will not be simply mainstreamed into the polluted stream. Women are changing the stream, making it clean and green and safe for all.....every gender, race, creed, sexual orientation, age and ability,” (Abzug, 2015).

9.1 Introduction

The main aim of the study was to investigate the perceptions of women in gender discrimination and empowerment. To achieve this aim, hypotheses were developed to stimulate the relationship of variables of the major thesis. The study has argued that there is a need for women empowerment in order to reduce discrimination. The thesis was established within the proposition that women possess the same capabilities as men, and physicality cannot be the reason for discrimination the forestry sector. It was evident that women are positive of themselves, despite the forestry sector being a dangerous workplace. The results have shown that transformation of the forestry sector is possible, but it goes with the proper empowerment of women, so that they can possibly cope with all situations related to the forestry sector. The aim of the study was to examine the progress of the transformation process in the forestry sector and the implications this has for women in Zululand. To achieve this aim, hypotheses were developed to stimulate the relationship of variables of the major thesis, including mastery of life, discrimination against women, coping ability, and self-assurance. The study has argued that the enhancement of mastery of life, discrimination against women, coping ability and self-assurance lies with the forestry sector; in reinventing the Forestry

Charter in allowing genuine opportunities in affording women in forestry a chance to engage in business opportunities in an industry which is historically dominated by men.

The study developed within the ambits that mastery of life and empowerment of women in forestry are contribution aspects in developing and skilling of women. This will also create a conducive space for future business and develop early interest in forestry for young aspiring learners. There are many children in rural area schools that are surrounded by commercial forests, are knowledgeable regarding commercial forestry and yet they are almost equally ignorant regarding forestry as a business and as a career. The forest sector has struggled for a long time in finding young forest entrepreneurs and more especially young women who have an interest in forestry as a business. The partnership needs to be strengthened whereby the Department of Education and the Department of Forestry and Fisheries will work together in enlightening the learners at an early stage, whether in basic education or higher education.

This may also be done in the process of reviewing the schools' curriculum, whereby inclusion of more forest based information will be taught in schools. The forest charter council was established in the period 2005 to 2008. The main aim for this charter council is to monitor, amend, augment and review forest sector transformation processes. The forest charter council is a useful body which has made huge developments within the sector more especially in aligning the BBBEE sector codes. Support and buy in from renowned corporate growers have taken place enormously and yet there is very little support, growth and sustenance on the ground. Women entrepreneurs have vanished and support tends to be harsh rather than to be embracing and supportive. Black Business, women businesses have been established in forestry and yet have succumbed to sabotage. The Forest Charter Council has become somehow limited in its own making, and there needs to be a turn-around strategy to ensure actual monitoring and feedback from business on the ground.

9.2. Summary of findings

This study sought to investigate the perceptions of female employees in the forestry sector in terms of discrimination and empowerment. The three independent variables were used to test the hypotheses underpinning the study. Firstly the variable SELASSU sought to elucidate on the self-assurance women have towards the forestry sector. Secondly PERDIWOM was aimed at detecting the perceptions of the female employees in the forestry sector, concerning the evident discrimination of women in the sector. This may basically foster change in the forestry sector. According to Finnemore and van Rensburg (2004) the second order change, “transforming strategies”, defined as more fundamental in nature. Its principal aim is not to intervene in the operations of an organization, but to change its structure, culture, defining values and overall form. Martel, as cited by Finnemore and van Rensburg, refers to this model of change as structural change, emphasizing the fact that a fundamental transformation of an organization’s total make-up is on the agenda. The third variable, PERABIL, was used to identify the abilities women possess that make them want to be in the forestry sector.

The variable SELASSU was correlated with demographic variables, and it was evident that demographic factors have an influence in the self-assurance of women in the forestry sector. The correlation results in demographic factors and PERDIWOM showed that discrimination of women can be classified by the demographic factors of women. The variable PERABIL was correlated with demographic factors, and it was evident by the results that abilities of women to participate in the forestry sector could be determined by their social demographic factors. Independent variables SELASSU, PERDIWOM and PERABIL were further correlated and the results hypothesised that the ability of women is related to self-assurance, and it is when the discrimination of women will be reduced and transformation in the forestry industry will prevail. This has been manifested in

forestry whereby women in the forestry sector have drowned in debts because of very limited financial resources.

The concept of business incubator has been in existence, and somehow has been neglected or undermined. This is a very powerful tool to shape and establish new businesses and job creation. An example of a forestry business incubator is the Fukamela Forestry and Wood Product Incubator, first established in the north of Zululand in the KwaMbonambi area under the auspices of SiyaQhubeka forest in 2002. This incubator programme was financed by the Industrial Development Corporation with an estimated amount of 19.9 million rands. The main objective was to identify business people in the neighbouring communities and through the Tribal Authority's consultation since the commercial forest is within the jurisdiction of the tribal authority. The identified people with forestry potential were taken in the incubator programme which was also inclusive of the financial and human resources support. The re-kindling of business incubators in forestry as a sector will see growth and sustenance in a holistic manner i.e. more women in the forestry business, escalated productivity, reduced unemployment and financial growth in forestry, and education accompanied with career guidance is of essence in schools today, and as a preparatory tool or measure for a future stable forest sector growth.

9.3. Core argument

This study sought to find out the perceptions of the female employees in the forestry sector about the discrimination of women and how the sector could be transformed; therefore the usage of feminist theory was very crucial in deliberating on how women had been historically and culturally disempowered, and it emphasised that there is a need for women to be empowered and be given an opportunity in the business considering that their roles in society and in the economy had been unutilised. Financial assistance has to be accompanied with a sound financial planning programme

and human resources, in order to give full support to women in the forestry business. Financing houses like developmental banks e.g. Ithala Development Corporation, Mondi Zimele job fund, National Empowerment Fund, Industrial Development Corporation, Commercial Banks and other financing institutions have to review and redesign their criteria to access finance. The forestry business incubator needs to be strongly rearranged in its formation, in support of all the aforementioned factors which will enhance growth and sustain women in business. This study argues that when women especially interested in the forestry business had been empowered, they can be fully productive in the forestry business. In this aforementioned explanation the entire frame is broken down or dismantled, hence it is revolutionary in nature.

Mondi Business Paper may partially qualify as adopting the second order change strategy as it consistently redefines and restructures its organization. Since this study was about women in forestry, the location and environment of the study is very important; and this study also gave the layout on the corporate growers; how they operate and their function. The contribution forestry makes to the community is a reality. The majority of South Africa's rural poverty stricken people make serious use of forest products from woodlands and plantations for everyday consumption and small-scale business. Firewood, building poles, medicinal plants and edible fruits are essential to livelihoods of the impoverished and provide a safety net to the most vulnerable families. Chapter two presented a layout of the role players in forestry.

Feminist theory is central to this study because it proposes that women should be given opportunities of functioning in the different spheres of life. KwaZulu-Natal leads in the forestry and paper sector in the whole of South Africa. The forest-product export sector nationally is made up of paper (45, 2%), solid wood (23.3%) and pulp (28.9%). The sector employs an estimated 462 000 people with some two million dependents. Pulp and paper made up 12% of KwaZulu-Natal's exports in 2009. Mondi and Sappi are both large international companies and both have historic,

and deep seated ties with KwaZulu-Natal. Sappi is a forest company operating in Zululand (northern KwaZulu-Natal coastline), it has an office in Kwambonambi, and has its head office in Pietermaritzburg (Natal Midlands in Cascades). Feminist theory emphasises that the functioning of men and women is equal and should not be differentiated according to gender. The main species grown on the company's plantations in northern KwaZulu-Natal are eucalypts. The Sappi operations vary from nursery, silviculture, manual harvesting and mechanical harvesting. Sappi has outsourced the operations to contractors (through a tender bidding process), and who mostly are from the area. SiyaQhubeka Forests (SQF) plantations are located on the east coast of KwaZulu-Natal. The topography varies from gently undulating slopes of the Zululand coastal plains in the north to slightly steeper slopes in the south. In October 2001, SAFCOL – (South African Forestry Company Limited) privatised its KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) commercial plantations.

The perceptions of women employees in the forestry sector have been key to this study because they are the ones who experience the challenges existing in the forestry sector on a daily basis and are the ones with the ability propose the strategies and techniques that could eliminate discrimination of women in the sector. The successful bidder, SiyaQhubeka Consortium (comprising Mondi Ltd and Imbokodvo Lemabalabala Holdings), obtained the landholdings in an empowerment transaction valued at R100 million. Chapter three of the study embraced the critical area wherein all the literature describing the nature, profile of the forest sector is contained, the BBBEE as a guide to the forest sector. This guide is a tool to assist in transforming the forest sector including skilling and capacitating women. The study was about women in forestry being discriminated against; their lack of coping ability, self-assurance and empowerment in an environment that is male dominated.

According to Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, 2010 Skills Development lies at the core of B-BBEE and is fundamental to achieving targets set for most of the other elements of the score card.

97% of respondents were black. The home language of most of the participants was IsiZulu. It is also very important for the growth and transformation of the economy as a whole, given the severe skills shortage in South Africa. Investment in training will also improve the competitiveness of a business and have spin offs for increased staff morale and loyalty. The forest sector has made a commitment to develop and implement a skills development strategy and plan for the sector.

The Sector Charter sets a target of an additional 3% of payroll to be spent by businesses on training for their Black employees, over and above the existing 1% statutory levy. The respondents by marital status who were single amounted to 92%. 30 of the respondents appeared to have two kids. On the level of education, 55 % of the respondents did not complete their matric. The results revealed that 33% of respondents had been in the forestry sector for more than 10 years. These additional funds are to be managed directly by businesses, and do not flow through government as does the statutory skills development levy. It is advisable for businesses to prepare a single training programme that covers both the 1% skills development levy funds and the additional 3%. When planning training using the additional 3%, the rules concerning allowable spend, direct and indirect expenses must be taken into account. Good records of expenditure must be kept for verification purposes, as well as training schedules and attendance registers. For assistance with planning, managing or running of training, businesses can contact their SETA, or local training providers. 38% of respondents revealed that they have two family members who are employed. 53% of the respondents had a family income that ranges from R1000-R1500. 47% of the respondents appeared to be gum tree bark strippers, as the positions they hold in the forestry business.

Training providers are often willing to support employers to develop a skills plan free of charge, as they can then claim back business skills development levy funds from the SETSA for the training courses they provide. A list of accredited training providers can be acquired from the Forestry SETA – FIETA. According to changes recently announced, the FIETA may be amalgamated with

other SETAs to become Agriculture, FoodBev and Forestry SETA. In addition, the Forestry sub-sector has launched a combined training programme mainly targeting Forestry contractors, known as the Contractors Capacity Development Program (CCDP). CCDP is being implemented by the South African Forestry Association (SAFCA). The programme assists Forestry contracting businesses with planning, implementation and management of employee training programmes. The following services are available: Preparation of training needs assessments and training plans.

The results revealed that forestry is one of the most dangerous jobs. There was a correlation between self-assurance with the number children. Current jobs correlated with self-assurance. Planning, arranging and monitoring of training courses provided by accredited training providers should be integrated well into work and lives of the women who are employed. Training administration including records to verify expenditure on training provision for BEE verification should also be investigated if training has been done. This conclusion was based on the outcome of the argument emanating from the study that women in forestry have to be empowered in order to elevate their coping ability. This study consisted of seven chapters that played a role in the finalisation of the thesis by providing relevant literature, descriptive analysis from the forestry charter established in 2008. The theoretical framework was presented in chapter four; whereby the feminist theory came out strong among the other theories which were presented in the study, namely, the functionalist theory, theory on estranged labour and the division of labour in production. It was evident that it is difficult for outspoken women to renew their contract once expired. The study aimed at examining the progress of the transformation process and the implications it has on women in forestry.

A quantitative approach was utilised, which allowed testing the relationship of the variables of the study. This chapter intends to draw some conclusions and make recommendations based on the findings of this study. The aims of this study were; to establish the extent to which transformation

has played a role in affording women with opportunities to be involved as role players in the Forestry industry. To establish the extent to which the Forestry Charter is succeeding in affording business opportunities for women in the Forestry industry. To establish how gender roles and stereotypes affect the Forest identity. The preceding findings indicated clearly that the Forestry sector is still largely dominated by white males and is also characterised by disparities in access to opportunities and benefits for black people especially black women. Family income, number of children and level of education correlated with discrimination of woman. The results showed that women can cope with the forestry sector as the results argued that work is work, and forestry business is relevant.

Prosperity and growth in the South African economy and Forest sector cannot be realized without the participation and empowerment of Black South Africans especially black women. The Forestry sector has challenges that need to be addressed to ensure sustainable equity and growth in the sector. The findings of this study are also supported by Talcott Parson's model of the nuclear family. This theory suggests that gender inequalities exist as an efficient way to create a division of labour. Marx and Engels on the other hand argued that gender inequality in families and households was used by the ruling class to help bind working class men to the capitalist social order. Demographic factors had a relationship with perceptions of empowerment and ability of women in forestry. Self-assurance is correlated with discrimination of women. Also supporting the findings is the Feminist perspective which advocates for the increase in women's empowerment, which is the ability for women to exert control over their own destinies. The hypotheses that were formulated for statistical testing showed that women in the Forestry sector experience being discriminated against on the basis of gender. Gender domination in forestry is higher than in other sectors. Everything is about men in forestry. The man to woman ratio still favours men. Women must have equal access to job opportunities. Women in the world, in Africa and South Africa in particular somehow displaced with regards to business empowerment. Various sectorial charters,

training programs, financial assistance opportunities and strategic planning have been put in place to embrace and expedite women empowerment, and this has lagged behind profoundly.

The international community, through different stakeholders i.e. the United Nations, African Union, World Bank etc., have called for a speedy implementation of women to become industrialists, recognized business women, and women in leadership positions. And discrimination of women has a relationship with the ability of the women. The ability of women correlated with self-assurance. Currently, South Africa is estimated at 65% behind achieving gender equality in relation to women leadership. This study has shed light on awakening and establishing the following measures for women in forestry to survive in a predominantly male industry. The women forestry ombudsman service is highly recommended, in that it will be the focal centre for implementation and work in progress for forestry related business. This service component will engage all forestry activities and highly focus on the inclusion of women in rural areas. The forestry ombudsman service will be responsible for penalization and blacklisting of non-compliant role players in the sector. Financial access has been a long standing stumbling block in business.

9.4. Summary of contributions

This study was about the emancipation of women in the forestry industry. Therefore, this study has contributed to the dialogue of the discrimination of women in various ways. Using the feminist theory as a framework of the study, it was shown that the discrimination of women is historically and culturally rooted. The study nevertheless, confirms that forestry is one of the most dangerous economic sectors, which bring into attention the need for maximum safety policies that will accommodate and cater for women for them to be productive participants in the industry. It is on that basis that this study is an attempt to contribute to the alleviation of discriminatory aspects in the workplace, including forestry.

The study assimilated SELASSU, PERDIWOM and PERABIL as the means to reduction of discrimination against women; it showed that the abilities that women perceive will boost their self-assurance, thus it is when the issue of discrimination is addressed that the forestry sector will be transformed. The study advocates that parties in jurisdiction should always carry feminist ideology whenever attempting to address the issue of women emancipation.

9.5. Recommendation for implementation

The study advocated that women hold equal capabilities with men. Therefore, there should be no limitation of responsibilities according to gender. The women had been oppressed historically, thus it is important that upon their choice and interest, they are empowered for participation in different spheres of life. Demographic factors had been outlined as one of the factors leading to the discrimination of women. On the issue of marital status, historically and culturally, the role of women had been limited to household chores. But as societies continue to be industrialised, the partaking of women is crucial especially as the paradigm accompanies many complex problems, and that is why the study has adopted feminist theory as a frame. The complex issues that may arise might need the experience of women, in a sense that the exclusion and discrimination of women may leave the problems unsolved, and many problems had remained unresolved for centuries because the women had been excluded. Education is very important when empowerment programmes are constructed. Women are entitled to receive equal education with men; therefore the frequency of women is very important to evaluate the participation of women in every spheres of society.

9.6. Recommendations for future research

This study was conducted using participants that were mostly poor and some were even illiterate. In future it would be wise if the participants to be used be the educated and occupy high position

occupying women. That could be very important in testing the hypotheses to detect if the results are altered according to experience, remuneration or education. The study was conducted using one organisation. If the research were conducted in more than one company more results might be possible. This could be done to test the hypotheses underpinning the study.

9.7. Recommendations

The results of this study show that women in the forestry business will be surer of themselves once they are fully empowered with the skills and resources that will make them competitive. It is when discrimination of women in the forestry sector will be reduced that transformation can prevail. Therefore this study recommends that, the women forestry ombudsman service is utilised, in that it will be the focal centre for implementation and work in progress for forestry related business. This service component will engage all forestry activities and highly focus on the inclusion of women in rural areas. The forestry ombudsman service will be responsible for penalization and blacklisting of non-compliant role players in the sector.

Financial access has been a long standing stumbling block in business. This has been manifested in forestry whereby women in the forestry sector have drowned in debts because of very limited financial resources. Financial assistance has to be accompanied with a sound financial planning programme and human resources, in order to give full support to the women in forestry business. Financing houses like developmental banks e.g. Ithala Development Corporation, Mondi Zimele job fund, National Empowerment Fund, Industrial Development Corporation, Commercial Banks and other financing institutions have to review and redesign their criteria to access finance.

The forestry business incubator needs to be strongly rearranged in its formation, in support of all the aforementioned factors which will enhance growth and sustain women in business. The concept of a business incubator has been in existence, and somehow has been neglected or undermined.

This is a very powerful tool to shape and establish new businesses and job creation. An example of a forestry business incubator is Fukamela Forestry and Wood Product Incubator, first established in the north of Zululand in the KwaMbonambi area under the auspices of SiyaQhubeka forest in 2002. This incubator programme was financed by the Industrial Development Corporation with an estimated amount of 19.9 million rands. The main objective was to identify business people in the neighbouring communities and through the Tribal Authority's consultation since the commercial forest is within the jurisdiction of the tribal authority. The identified people with forestry potential were taken in the incubator programme which was also inclusive of the financial and human resources support. The re-kindling of business incubators in forestry as a sector will see growth and sustenance in a holistic manner i.e. more women in forestry business, escalated productivity, reduced unemployment and financial growth in forestry.

Education accompanied with career guidance is of essence in schools today, and as a preparatory tool or measure for future, stable forest sector growth. This will also create a conducive space for future business and develop early interest in forestry for young aspiring learners. There are many children in rural area schools that are surrounded by commercial forests, are knowledgeable regarding commercial forestry and yet they are almost equally ignorant regarding forestry as a business and as a career. The forest sector has struggled for a long time in finding young forest entrepreneurs and more especially young women who have an interest in forestry as a business. The partnership needs to be strengthened whereby the Department of Education and the Department of Forestry and Fisheries will work together in enlightening the learners at an early stage, whether in basic education or higher education. This may also be done in the process of reviewing the schools' curriculum, whereby inclusion of more forest based information will be taught in schools.

The forest charter council was established in the period 2005 to 2008. The main aim for this charter council is to monitor, amend, augment and review forest sector transformation processes. The forest charter council is a useful body which has made huge developments within the sector more especially in aligning the BBBEE sector codes. Support and buy-in from renowned corporate growers have taken place enormously and yet there is very little support, growth and sustenance on the ground. Women entrepreneurs have vanished and support tends to be harsh rather than to be embracing and supportive. Black Business, women businesses have been established in forestry and yet have succumbed to sabotage. The Forest Charter Council has become somehow limited in its own making, and there needs to be a turn-around strategy to ensure actual monitoring and feedback from business on the ground.

9.8. Summary and reflections in the chapter

The study argues that women have an ability to function in the forestry sector; therefore proper empowerment is needed to address the issue of discrimination by gender that is existing and evident in the forestry business. It has been established by the results of the study that abilities of women in the forestry sector are increased by the self-assurance they have towards themselves. It was noticed in the study that the forestry sector is one of the major job creators in the country as it was evident that many people are employed in the sector. Thus, the study revealed that more education is needed in the sector as it was evident that most people do not have matric, and do not have higher education qualifications. The chapter has presented the major findings of the study. It has been shown in this chapter that the core argument of the study is that; the discrimination of women in the sector will be reduced by strategically empowering them to be fully productive in the industry. It is when transformation will prevail and females will be assured of their participation in the forestry sector.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to collect data as part of the requirement to complete my Doctoral Degree in Industrial Sociology, at the University of Zululand. The questionnaire is meant to collect data on the perceptions of female employees in the forestry sector, note that all answers are correct since this is not an examination or test; I therefore request your cooperation in completing the questionnaire. Under no circumstance will the information you give be used for other purposes other than academic. Your confidentiality and anonymity as a respondent is assured.

Section A: Biographic Information

1. Race

Black		White	
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2. Home Language

IsiZulu	
English	
Other	

3. Marital Status

Single		married		widowed	
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4. Number of Children

No child	
One	
Two	
Three	
Four	
Five	

Six or more	
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5. Level of Education

No school attended	
Grade 12 not completed	
Grade 12 completed	

6. Number of years worked in forestry

0-5 years	
5-10	
10-15	
15 or more	

7. Number of working household members

One	
Two	
Three	
Four or more	

8. Family income

R 1000-1500		R1500-2500		R2500-3500		3500-4500		R 5500 and above	
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9. Position at work

First Aider	
Gumtree bark stripper	
Log stacker	
Fire Fighter	

Section B: Coping and Self-Assurance (SELASSU).

Please Rate the Following:

Response	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Women in forestry feel a lower level of mastery than women in other jobs.					
2. Coping level at work is challenging					
3. Women find it difficult to cope in forestry due to their family chores					
4. Forestry work is overwhelming					
5. It is very difficult to work and take care of children.					
6. Work and home can be balanced adequately.					
7. The level of stress in forestry is like any other work.					
8. Being a mother and working is very stressful.					
9. Forestry tasks are too difficult for women					
10. Women find it hard to multi task					
11. Forestry jobs are too physical for women.					
12. Forestry jobs are too difficult for women.					
13. The plantation terrain is too difficult for women					
14. Forestry is one the most dangerous jobs.					

Section C: The Perception of Discrimination against Women in Forestry (PERDIWOM).

Please Rate the Following:

Response	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Women are seen as incapable in forestry.					
2. Gender domination in forestry is higher than in other sectors.					

3. Everything is about men in forestry.					
4. Men feel threatened by women in forestry.					
5. Supervisors show favouritism to men.					
6. Clients listen to men more than women.					
7. Women are not respected at all.					
8. The man ration still favours the men.					
9. More women should be allowed to penetrate the forestry industry.					
10. Sometimes women are denied tasks because of their gender.					
11. Some stubborn contractors refuse to take instructions from women.					
12. Sometimes as a female forester you are taken as a secretary.					
13. It is difficult for outspoken women to renew their contracts.					

Section D: The Perception of Empowerment and Ability of Women in Forestry (PERABIL).

Please Rate the Following:

Response	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Women must have equal access to job opportunities.					
2. Opportunities for women in forestry are relevant.					
3. Forestry is not too technical for women.					
4. I would encourage other women to go into forestry.					
5. I foresee progress for disadvantaged contractors.					
6. Work procedure for men is the same as women.					
7. No matter your gender it is about production.					
8. Work is work forestry is relevant.					

9. Forestry is a career with many opportunities.					
10. I do not feel any challenges as a woman forester.					
11. No one can control me; I do not want to be told what to do.					
12. More women should be allowed to penetrate the forestry industry.					
13. I am confident to work with men even as an only female.					

Isithasiselo 1: Uhlelombuzo

Isigaba A: Ulwazi ngomlando wempilo yomuntu

10. Ubuzwe

Omnyama		Omhlophe	
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11. Ulimi Lwebele

IsiZulu	
Isingisi	
Olunye	

12. Uganile/uganile

Ongaganile/we		Ongaganile/we		Owashonelwa	
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13. Inani Lezingane

Akanangane	
Iyodwa	
Zimbili	
Zintathu	
Zine	
Zinhlanu	
Ziyisithupha noma ngaphezulu	

14. Izinga Lemfundo

Angiyanga esikoleni	
Ibanga le-12 angiliqedanga	
Ibanga le-12 ngaliqeda	

15. Inani leminyaka oyisebenze ehlathini

0-5 Iminyaka	
Iminyaka emi-5-kuya keyi- 10	
Iminyaka eyi-10- kuya kweyi-15	
Iminyaka eyi-15 noma ngaphezulu	

16. Inani labantu abasebenzayo ohlala nabo ekhaya

Uyedwa	
Babili	
Bathathu	
Bane noma ngaphezulu	

17. Isamba semali yomndeni engena nyanga zonke

R 1000-1500		R1500-2500		R2500-3500		3500-4500		R 5500 nangaphezulu	
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18. Isikhundla sakho ngokomsebenzi

Ungowosizo lokuqala	
Webula amaxolo ezihlahla	
Ulayisha izingodo	
Ungowezicishamlilo	

Isigaba B: Ukumelana nesimo kanye nokuba nesiqinseko ngawe (SELASSU).

Ngicela ulinganise ngalokhu okulandelayo:

Impendulo	Angivumelani kakhulu	Angivumi	Phakathi nendawo	Ngiyavu ma	Ngiyavu melana kakhulu
15. Abesifazane abasebenza emahlathini bazizwa besemazingeni aphansi okuphatha kunabanye abesifazane abakweminye imisebenzi					
16. Izinga lokumelana nezimo emsebenzini yizona eziyinkinga					
17. Abesifazane bakuthola kunzima ukumelana nezimo ehlathini ngenxa yemisebenzi yemindeni yabo.					
18. Umsebenzi wamahlathi mkhulu kakhulu.					
19. Kunzima kakhulu ukusebenza ubuye unakekele nezingane.					
20. Umsebenzi nekhaya kungakwazi ukusetshenzwa ngokulinganayo.					
21. Izinga lengcindezi yomsebenzi wamahlathi liyafana nakweminye imisebenzi					
22. Ukuba umama uphinde usebenze kunengcindezi enkulu.					
23. Umsebenzi wamahlathi unzima kakhulu ukuthi ungasetshenzwa ngabantu besifazane.					
24. Abesifazane bakuthola kunzima ukwenza imisebenzi eminingi ngesikhathi esisodwa.					
25. Imisebenzi yamahlathi eminingi yabantu besifazane idinga ukusetshenzwa ngezandla.					
26. Inzima kakhulu imisebenzi yamahlathi kubantu besifazane.					
27. Izindawo zokulima amahlathi zingezinzima kubantu besifazane.					
28. Umsebenzi wamahlathi umsebenzi oyingozi kakhulu.					

Isigaba C: Umuzwa wokucwaswa kwabantu besifazane emsebenzini wamahlathi (PERDIWOM).

Ngicela ulinganise ngalokhu okulandelayo:

Impendulo	Angivumelani kakhulu	Angivumi	Phakathi nendawo	Ngiyavuma	Ngiyavumelana kakhulu
14. Abesifazane babukeka					

bengakwazi ukusebenza kwazamahlathi.					
15. Ukubusa ngokobulili kusezingeni eliphezulu kwezamahlathi kunakweminye imikhakha.					
16. Noma ngabe yini kwezamahlathi ingabantu besilisa.					
17. Amadoda azizwa enokwesatshiswa ngabantu besifazane kwezamahlathi. 18. Abaphathi abaphezulu baye bakhombise ukwenzelela abantu besilisa.					
19. Abathengayo banokulalela kakhulu abesilisa kunamadoda.					
20. Abesifazane abanakho nhlobo ukuhlonishwa.					
21. Ukwabelwa kwabo namanje kusenzelela abesilisa. 22. Kumele abesifazane abaningi bavunyelwe ukungena manje nabo ezimbonini zamahlathi.					

23. Kwesinye isikhathi abasebenzi abanikwa imisebenzi ngenxa yobulili babo.					
24. Abanye osonkontileka abanamakhanda aqinile bayenqaba ukuthatha imiyalezo abayinikwa ngabesifazane.					
25. Kwesinye uma ungumsebenzi wamahlathi ongowesifazane uthathwa njengomabhalane.					
26. Kunzima kwabesifazane abangangcengiyo ukuvuselela izinkontileka zabo.					

Isigaba **D**: Umqondo wokuhlonyiswa ngolwazi kanye nekhono labesifazane kwezamahlathi (**PERABIL**).

Ngicela ulinganise lokhu okulandelayo:

Impendulo	Angivumelani kakhulu	Angivumi	Phakathi nendawo	Ngiyavu ma	Ngiyavumela na kakhulu
14. Abesifazane kumele babe nokulingana ekutholweni kwamathuba emisebenzi.					
15. Amathuba abesifazane kwezamahlathi kumele kube ngaqondene nabo.					

16. Ezamahlathi azinabuchwepheshe obukhulu kwabesifazane.					
17. Ngingabakhuthaza abanye besifazane ukuyosebenza kwezamahlathi.					
18. Ngibona inqubekela phambili kulabo sonkontileka abebenganikeziwe amathuba.					
19. Inqubo yamadoda yomsebenzi iyafana neyabesifazane,					
20. Umkhqiqizo obalulekile kunobulili bakho.					
21. Umsebenzi ngumsebenzi ezamahlathi zibalulekile.					
22. Ezamahlathi ziwumsebenzi onamathuba amaningi.					
23. Angizizwa nginezinkinga nobunzima					

obuthile ngokuba ngowesifazane osebenza kwezamahlathi.					
24. Akekho ongangilawula, angifuni ukutshelwa ukuthi kumele ngenzeni.					
25. Abesifazane abangingi kumele bavunyelwe ukungena basebenze kwezamahlathi.					
26. Nginokuzethemba okukhulu ngokusebenza nabesilisa yize kuyimi ngedwa umuntu wesifazane.					