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List of Acronyms Used in the Report

ACCORD	:	Action for Community Organisation, Rehabilitation & Development
AFC	:	Agricultural Finance Cooperation
AGRITEX	:	Agricultural Technical Extensions
AU	:	African Union
CBOs	:	Community Based Organisations
CBT	:	Cross Border Trade
CIDC	:	Community Internship Development Centre
CMA	:	Common Monetary Area
COMESA	:	Common Markets for East and Southern Africa
CORDE	:	
CORN	:	Community Organisations Regional Network
DRC	:	Democratic Republic of Congo
ELS	:	Employment and Labour Sector
ESAP	:	Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
GDP	:	Gross Domestic Product
HDR	:	Human Development Report
HIV/AIDS	:	Human Immuno Virus/ Acquired Immuno Defficiency Syndrome
ICBT	:	Informal Cross-Border Trade
ILO	:	International Labour Organisations
IMF/WB	:	International Monetary Fund/World Bank
KZN	:	Kwa-Zulu Natal
MFN	:	Most Favoured Nations
NEPAD	:	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGOs	:	Non-Governmental Organisations
OAU	:	Organisation of African Unity
SACU	:	Southern Africa Customs Union
SADC	:	Southern Africa Development Countries
SEWA	:	
SRCD	:	
TRIPS	:	Trade Related Intellectual Property Rights
UMASIDA	:	
WSSD	:	World Summit on Sustainable Development
WTO	:	World Trade Organisation
ZERO	:	ZERO Regional Environment Organisation







REGIONAL WORKSHOP REPORT "FIGHTING POVERTY THROUGH SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT", UNIVERSITY OF NATAL, DURBAN, SOUTH AFRICA 4-6 JULY 2002

1.0 GENERAL SESSION

1.1 Background and Workshop Objectives

The Community Organisations Regional Network (CORN) is a network of community-based organisations in southern Africa whose core membership consists of CBO representatives from Angola, Botswana, Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe. CORN membership met from the 4-6 July 2002 at the University of Natal, TB Davies Building, Durban, South Africa, to consolidate the network's strategy and programmes and redefine development perspectives. A total of 350 participants drawn from CBOs and their community representatives attended the workshop.

The specific objectives of the workshop were to:

-  Foster dialogue on sustainable development in the region.
-  Promote an understanding of NEPAD and to engage regional leaders.
-  Build among the participants a common position for WSSD.
-  Consolidate the CORN Network and formalise its structure.

At the end of the proceedings, it was expected that the following be achieved:

- ✦ Development of sound knowledge, on sustainable development issues in the region;
- ✦ A heightened awareness and understanding of NEPAD amongst regional leaders and civil society;

- ✦ Some understanding on the common issues on sustainable development and to develop a position for the network for presentation at WSSD summit;
- ✦ A consolidated CORN regional network and formalised structure.

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Professor Keane, the Pro-Vice Chancellor for the University of Natal presented the introductory remarks. He remarked that bringing World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) and NEPAD into the agenda of the network, CORN was linking up communities with the global economy, the missing link in past processes. He emphasised that the network should consolidate the views of marginalised communities and position them for inclusion through the important process of NEPAD and WSSD. He also remarked that the goals of the network were similar to some of the University's departmental goals. A call was made for closer co-operation between relevant University departments such as those that deal with food security and the network.

2.1 OPENING REMARKS

The opening remarks by Bonventura Buene of Mozambique further reinforced the comments by Professor Keane on the link between communities and global processes. It was also noted that the formation of the Africa Union (AU) was also providing the opportunity for the creation of new partnerships in development. At the same time, the WSSD and other process should concentrate on the conservation of natural resources as a way of promoting community livelihoods. The challenge for the networks is to assist in building and changing institutions for improved poverty alleviation as well as improving the connectivity between such institutions at the regional level. Information on opportunities at global, national and local levels needed to be used to support the development of poor people. It was also highlighted that the key issues affecting community livelihoods like food security and nutrition, access to land, HIV/AIDS, prevention etc. must be given appropriate attention by the Africa Union, NEPAD and WSSD. CORN should therefore facilitate and play a leading role in the sharing of information and the coming up with a common position on WSSD and NEPAD processes.

In summary, the key questions asked by Bonventura Buene of Mozambique in his opening remarks were:

- How can we build on what already works, design institutions and change institutional character so that they support the marginalised people's own initiatives to lift themselves out of poverty?

- How can their connectivity with institutions be increased so that they are heard and represented in programmes and policy making at local, national and global levels?
- How can the knowledge, resources and power at local, national and global levels be used to support poor people's own efforts?

Bonventura Buene also noted that decades of development assistance have not achieved very much of a sustainable nature. Initiatives that are meant to benefit communities do not reach their target. There is an urgent need for communities to represent and define a role for themselves. The poverty and backwardness of Africa stand in stark contrast to the prosperity of the developed world. The continued marginalisation of Africa from the globalisation process and the social exclusion of the vast majority of its peoples constitute a serious threat to global stability. Questions of sustainability and ownership must be addressed with the people of the country. A further question asked by Buene was: How do we integrate communities as generators of products and make them key players at a speed that is in sync with global development? How do we leap frog the slow processes of community development?

The answer to all these questions lies in the inclusion of communities right at the definition stage, the formation of the African Union and the launch of the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), so that communities can be understood in this context and effectively factored in, and hence this workshop.

The workshop would discuss among other issues:

- ❖ Introducing the concept of sustainable development and CBOs
- ❖ Social Security and the need for an Enhanced Role played by CBOs
- ❖ Global Development
- ❖ African Perspectives of WSSD and NEPAD.

3.0 LOCAL DEVELOPMENT PERSPECTIVES

3.1 Sustainable Development and CBOs. Social Security in the SADC Region: The Need for an Enhanced Role Played by CBOs.

Patti Joshua and Professor Olivier presented and led the discussion on sustainable development, community livelihoods and the role of CBOs. Patti Joshua started by defining CBOs as a group of people and households drawn from the local community who gather around issues affecting them such as improved access to natural resources by rural and peri-urban communities, HIV/AIDS etc. the prime objectives of such CBOs is the formulation of strategies

to address poverty issues in the community. History was also important in defining CBOs and their roles as the colonial past created the conditions that confront development practitioners to date.

The challenges for CORN were identified to include the following:

- ◆ Facilitating cross-border trade in a way that ensures women and children are not abused at border posts;
- ◆ Developing strategies for managing the problem of HIV/AIDS;
- ◆ Developing strategies on how communities can have improved access to the wealth of their country as represented by the land resource base; and
- ◆ Formulating relevant strategies for improving community influence on global, regional and national processes;

The debate on community livelihoods was further strengthened by Professor Olivier's presentation on social security. The presentation observed that governments in the region were generally unable to render social security to their communities and as such large sections of rural communities were outside the reach of formal social security measures. At the ground level, informal forms of security have increased and so have been community-based networks for providing improved social security. It was noted that there was generally a dearth of information on informal social security systems.

The paper highlighted the importance of CBOs in promoting formal and informal socialising systems. Informal social security system can be either family or kinship based or the social grouping outside these relations where resources are pulled together to reduce the risk for disasters. More importantly, access to land needed to be understood as a critical strategy of promoting social security systems. In this respect CBOs needed to view improved access to land as part of the package under community livelihoods. CBOs also have a special role to play in promoting informal social security systems through:

- Lobbying governments to recognise the role played by informal social security systems;
- Training members involved in schemes in areas that will lead to their improved performance;
- Providing members involved in schemes in areas that will lead to their improved performance;
- Providing financial assistance and setting up of appropriate projects;
- Marketing of products;
- Linking with service providers (e.g. financial institutions, health, etc).

Informal social security measures, CBOs can help in making people aware of their rights, democratising the management of such schemes, encouraging voluntary participation in social schemes, strategies as well as ensuring that the delivery of the service reaches the audience it is supposed to serve.

Land and Sustainable Livelihoods

Professor Sam Moyo whose intervention came as a response to the presentations made led the discussion on land and sustainable livelihoods.

Group discussions further distilled what communities perceived were the key issues on land they wanted resolved. Groups also provided suggestions on the possible solutions to the identified issues. This section summarised the discussion on land and sustainable livelihoods. The key areas discussed were:

Inequitable Land Distribution

Inequitable distribution of land exists in different forms in the region. The legacy of colonial land policies is largely responsible for the skewed land distribution patterns in Namibia, South Africa, Malawi and Zimbabwe. The challenge is to find strategies of redistributing land without necessarily resorting to the radical approaches. CBOs must prepare themselves to lead the process so as to prevent international power and even our governments from taking control of the process. The rights of minority groups also needed to be protected.

Land use and Production systems

Support to agricultural production by small-scale producers was observed to grossly inadequate. The supply of inputs and the development of infrastructure to support production by small producers are severely hindered by shortage of resources while the lack of investment on irrigation development does not make intensive use of the land possible. The vulnerability of small-scale producers was further exposed by that most of them aim to produce for the external markets. Small-scale producers find it difficult to compete with farmers from the developed world who are heavily subsidised by their governments and they are often forced to sell their products at uncompetitive prices.

Inefficient Utilisation of Land

Under-utilisation of land was observed across all the main land tenure categories include freehold, state and customary land tenure system. The exact form of the problem and its intensity however varied across the land tenure system. Punitive measures were required to deal with under-utilisation of land in large-scale

freeholds while enough capacities and appropriate land management systems needed to be put in place in customary lands.

Insecure Land Tenure Systems

Current land tenure systems in the region are characterised by inequality and insecurity while other forms of tenure are inappropriate. A tenure reform programme that addresses specific problems that are peculiar to each tenure category is what the region needs. For example, both plenary and group discussions called for the strengthening of customary/communal land tenure systems.

Legislative Environment

Most legislation governing land reforms has its origin in the colonial period and was considered obsolete, ill advised and inappropriate. A legislative framework that is democratically formulated with inputs from all stakeholders including CBOs is what the region needs. Communities and their CBO representatives also argued that most land policies in southern Africa would be unacceptable in the developed world as they allow inefficient utilisation of land while most of the legislation is outdated.

Corruption

Land acquisition, distribution and administration is being hampered by corruption, which has penetrated land administration structures at the various levels. Participants felt there needed to be in-built measures that help CBOs and communities they represent to act as watchdogs on curbing corruption. Participants felt that the network should put priority on the development of autonomous local level institutions involved in land acquisition, land redistribution and land administration and management.

3.2 Regional Integration and Cross-Border Trade

For the purposes of enriching the discussion on sustainable development, social security and livelihoods, John Mwaniki, a discussants presented a briefing on Regional Integration and Cross Border Trade (CBT).

He highlighted the key issues as:

- Inadequate institutional and legal framework to support cross-border trade ;
- Lack of capacity amongst communities ;

- Lack of information on market opportunities within and outside the region ;

3.3 Global Sustainable Development

3.3.1 African Perspectives of WSSD: NEPAD and The African Union

Dr. H. Rukato of the Department of Environmental Affairs in South Africa made a summary presentation on WSSD while the Minister of Foreign Affairs, South Africa Honourable Dlamini -Zuma presented on NEPAD. She explained the origins of NEPAD. The mandate for the New African Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) is merge of the millenium partnership for the African Recovery Programme (MAP) and OMESA Plan.

An integration process of the various process of the various initiatives followed on 11 July 2001, was presented to the OAU Summit of Heads of State and government in Lusaka, Zambia. This information included:

- **Providing a vision for Africa**
- **A statement of the problems facing the continent**
- **Programme of Action**
- **Declaration (XXXVII) as Africa's principal agenda for development, providing a holistic, comprehensive integrated strategic framework for Africa's development**

The discussion that pursued was centred on the lack of community participation and flow of information to CBOs for onward multiplication to the communities. It was felt that the CBOs and the communities they represent needed to understand the motivation for the processes and content of NEPAD and WSSD. There was general consensus on the need to engage in dialogue with the NEPAD Secretariat and the programme architects through forums such as seminars and public events. The key issues of concern were the following:

- That the document was not known and was also not available;
- The NEPAD process was still largely at government development level and it needed to get down to the communities; and
- There was no representation of CBOs in the NEPAD process.

4.0 RECOMMENDATIONS ON WSSD AND NEPAD PROCESSES

The participants called for the following:

- Establishment of civil society forums to discuss NEPAD. A call for a similar approach for WSSD in situation where some countries have not done meaningful consultations;
- Simplification of key documents on WSSD and NEPAD and translation into local languages and embarking on information outreach programmes;
- Representation of CBOs in NEPAD process and Africa Union Structures, which should be followed by decentralisation of power and resource allocation;

On the WSSD, CBOs needed to identify their niche in the process where they can concentrate their efforts;

Regional Integration and Cross Border Trade

- ◆ CBOs need to be capacitated through training in the area of Business Management and Accounting;
- ◆ CBOs also needed capacity to run their projects as opposed to having NGOs and Government hiking control of their activities;
- ◆ Development of strategies aimed at formalising cross-border trade by:
 - Giving the traders licences
 - De-criminalising cross border trade
- ◆ CBOs also needed capacity to run their projects as opposed to having NGOs and Government hiking control of their activities;
- ◆ Development of information dissemination strategies through various channels like community centres and pamphlets. Such strategies can also focus on the information on rights of traders;
- ◆ Creating conducive conditions for trade in indigenous products that will include the running of trade exhibitions;
- ◆ Encouraging cross-border trade through CBO networks and not individually;
- ◆ CBOs sourcing resources to build accommodation facilities;
- ◆ Instituting quality control measures for goods being traded;
- ◆ Instituting SADC passports to facilitate easy movement of traders;
- ◆ Government should be encouraged to create a conducive environment for community traders through appropriate policies, laws, and facilities.

Land and Sustainable Livelihoods

- ◆ Government should facilitate development of specific tools (carrot and stick) to reduce under utilisation of land in the various land tenure categories;

- ◆ Building capacities of CBOs and local communities to negotiate in land reform process;
- ◆ Developing democratic and autonomous local level institutions involved in land acquisition, allocation and land management;
- ◆ CORN must promote exchange visits in order to reinforce CBOs intervention where the land reform is still to take place (e.g. in Angola).

COUNTRY COMMISSIONS

Each of the five countries formed into groups to address the following:

- ◆ Review proceedings of the conference and identify key issues for the country programme;
- ◆ Develop country level plan of action (list key actions for 2002/2003;
- ◆ Identify issues for networking between countries (e.g. exchange);
- ◆ Elections: Nominate two representatives from your country for the Steering Committee; and
- ◆ Steering Committee members should meet before plenary to select the Chairperson and Secretary of the Steering Committee.

ELECTIONS

The members of the CORN Steering Committee are:

Keith Mudongo – Botswana
 Margaret Mokgwaela – Botswana
 Dinah Moseki – South Africa
 Arminda Jaime Vombe – Mozambique
 Joao Baptista Adolfo – Mozambique
 Natalia Nachiteculo Isaac – Angola
 Justino Quinta – Angola
 Hendrik Cele – South Africa
 Israel Maboo – Zimbabwe
 Molly Manzonza Simbanegavi – Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe was allocated the post of Chair and Mozambique Secretary of the Steering Committee. It was agreed that these two countries would communicate whom they select to these position out of their two candidates.

PRESENTATIONS AND PAPERS

Bonventura Buene presented 'REGIONAL WORKSHOP "FIGHTING POVERTY THROUGH SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT" Opening Remarks

WELCOME! WELCOME!

We have arrived: English
 Portuguese
 Zulu
 Tswana
 Shona

Yes dear friends we have reached the age of majority we can vote. We can make decisions, we can participate. We are now truly independent.

Our meeting is already an outcome an activity because as representatives of the marginalised our voice will be carried to our heads of state as they formulate the African Union (AU) as they strive towards the New Partnership for African's Development (NEPAD) and as they prepare for the forthcoming World Summit for Sustainable Development (WSSD).

Experience and Africa's deepening poverty has shown that donor led interventions and government led programmes have changed little in Africa.

Our statement during our deliberation is, we as community-based organisations are the missing link in re-addressing the marginalisation of Africa's vast majority.

In this SADC region, we have similar historical/experiences that have impacted on our development.

Promoting economic growth to address poverty in a sustainable manner is difficult, yet crucial: if people are marginalized and national economies are weak, that factor contributes to environmental degradation, alongside misuse of natural resources by industry. If the environment is abused and resources are over consumed, people suffer and economies decline.

The economically disadvantaged are not the problem. Nor is the culture of poverty. The marginalized historically work hard, are remarkably resourceful and show grit and determination in providing for their families. All those committed to poverty reduction must ask themselves three questions: How can

we build on what already works, design institutions and change institutional character so that they support the marginalised people's own initiatives to lift themselves out of poverty? How can their connectivity with institutions be increased so that they are heard and represented in programmes and policy making at local, national and global levels? How can the knowledge, resources and power at local, national and global levels be used to support poor people's own efforts?

Decades of development assistance has not achieved very much of a sustainable nature. Initiatives that are meant to benefit communities do not reach their target. There is an urgent need for communities to represent and define a role for themselves. The poverty and backwardness of Africa stand in stark contrast to the prosperity of the developed world. The continued marginalisation of Africa from the globalisation process and the social exclusion of the vast majority of its peoples constitute a serious threat to global stability.

Questions of sustainability and ownership must be addressed with the people of the country. How do we integrate communities as generators of products and make them key players at a speed that is in sync with global development? How do we leap frog the slow processes of community development?

The answer to these questions lies in the inclusion of communities right at the definition stage, the formation of the African Union and the launch of the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), so that communities can be understood in this context and effectively factored in. Community participation has for far too long remained simply a buzz term without any commensurable action.

Against this background the purpose of the workshop is to ensure that NEPAD, the WSSD and other African initiatives incorporate the specific concerns around issues such as food security and nutrition, primary health care and HIV/AIDS management, access to land for sustainable utilisation and cross-border trade.

Objectives

By bringing together more than 250 CBOs, NGOs, policy makers, government representatives, development agencies and representatives of civil society from five SADC countries, namely Angola, South Africa, Botswana, Mozambique and Zimbabwe, the workshop will facilitate the sharing of experiences around sustainable development and formulate a position on NEPAD and WSSD during the formation of the African Union.

The specific objectives of the workshop are:

- To foster dialogue on sustainable development in the region.
- To promote an understanding of NEPAD and to engage regional leaders.
- To build among the participants a common position for WSSD.
- To consolidate the CORN network and to formalise its structure.

The expected outcomes from the workshop are to:

- Have a sound knowledge on sustainable development issues in the region.
- Have a heightened awareness and understanding of NEPAD amongst regional leaders and civil society.
- Have a sense of the common issues on sustainable development and to develop a position for the network for presentation at WSSD.
- A consolidated CORN regional network and formalised structure.

PATTI JOSHUA spoke about 'Sustainable Development and Community Based Organisations' (CBOs).

Patti Joshua defined Sustainable Development as 'the struggle of communities in everyday life and the definition of a Community Based Organisations as 'people who collectively engage in development activities, who are based in their local communities and are organised formally or informally. Patti advised that the purpose of the CORN Launch was to concretised the networking process.

Why A Network of CBOs?

1. There is nothing new about CBO'S this method of collective working together for a common vision in development
2. What was new at the time was the networking of CBO'S to create an impact on development.
3. Through networking we have demonstrated the power we have as CBO's to articulate our development needs and address them with very little or no support.
4. In order for sustainable development to take place we needed a strong voice in unity to influence policy and direct the development agenda.

The CORN initiative was modelled on the KZN CBO Network, which began networking in 1992. With the support from resource institutions and NGO's who shared the common vision of grass roots being given the capacity to realise and drive their own development. CIDC, ZERO, SRCO & CORDE were the first to be involved in this CORN initiative.

The model of the KZN CBO Network at the launch in 1993 demonstrated the strength of CBO's with the message we can collectively drive our development if given the capacity. This put CBO's on the agenda for development, which is now recognised, in all national regional & international donors' governments as an important sector to drive development at the community base.

Even though there is an abundance of wealth in the country, the network could not access resources;

- To launch the network in 1993 - CBO's became known the rural summit in 1994 - building relationships with government, private sector, NGO's churches and donors.

- The 1996 launch of the Anti- Hunger Campaign linking HIV/ AIDS to development - built partnerships for integrated development and HIV/ AIDS
- The networking of CBO's in SADC - exchanging models. The main issues cross border trade seen the abuse and violation of women and children's rights, Xenophobia, the HIV/ AIDS perceptions of the spread. e.g. Exchange visits interventions are possible an sustainable
- The same applies to the 2002 launch of CORN - which is formalising of the partnership between CBO's in different countries.

CORN Model

As we are coming from different countries with different ways communities organised themselves. For sustainable development to take place CBO's themselves coming from projects should be directly represented and not have the middle manager.

This has been a difficult road that has been travelled to get to this point as we mark history. If we continue to galvanise our energies as CBO's with the support of partners as demonstrated in this networking process. The vision of sustainable development is possible. This launch of CORN is taking place at an important time. The significance is that this week the Africa Meeting of States is meeting discussing NEPAD. Development is about addressing the poverty issues which directly relates to CBOs . We need to be recognised and be part of the process of the discussion. To sustain the development we have to be active in the shaping of the policy and the main implementers of development. This year the WSSD taking place it is critically important to us as CBO's

CRITICAL INTERVENTIONS

1. Reinforcement of grass roots initiatives, building capacity through training to enable CBO's to implement and monitor development locally
2. The harnessing of the human resource, given the many professionals at the community base has skills, which could provide the support for youth that are unemployed and not able to access opportunities.
3. The understanding of the global impact on CBO's and it effects the present situation in the local communities.
4. Creating the environment for CBO's to engage in sustainable development initiatives.

WHAT SPACE HAVE ORGANISATIONED CBO STRUCTURES MANAGED TO CREATE FOR INTERVENTION?

Policy formulation

Recognition of the potential of CBOs as main implementers in the sustainability of development - (e.g. The research conducted by CBOs in an attempt to address the orphan issue.)

In the transformation of poverty "Poor"

What are the opportunities that need to be explored to further harness the wealth in countries and influence the global trends?

- Strengthening the existing partnerships between government, private sector, NGOs and donors. ;
- Developing and recognising the existing informal systems extending the CBO networks;
- Harnessing the opportunity available in the initiatives such as WSSD & NEPAD;

What are the Benefits?

- Support and sharing of resources mutually enriching to all stakeholders;
- Global prospective to issues which are traditionally regarded as local;
- Strengthens the capacity to lobby and advocacy to projects, which had previously been working in isolation;
- It creates an appreciation of the synergies of NGO's with skills, the government, private sector with resources & CBO's indigenous knowledge;
- Allows for the integration of development processes;
- Realisation of hidden potential that leads to transformation.

THE ABOVE FACTORS ARE CRITICAL SUSTAINABILITY

The following are the inhibiting factors to sustainability

- Some practitioners see lip service to development - development as an industry;
- Assumptions of tensions between CBO's and NGO's Lack of support for community initiatives;
- Resource driven initiatives leading to competition between practitioners;
- No access to information;
- Limited ability to influence decision makers.

**AFRICA HAS THE WEALTH INVESTED IN THE PEOPLE, THE
SUSTAINABILITY IS IN THE UNITY, PEACE & AN HIV/AIDS FREE
ENVIRONMENT**

**THE GLOBE CAN ONLY BE SUSTAINED BY THE RESPECT WE HAVE FOR
EACH OTHER.**

Marius Olivier, Director: Centre for International and Comparative Labour and Social Security Law, Faculty of Law, Rand Afrikaans University, South Africa presented a paper ‘Social Security In The SADC Region: The Need For An Enhanced Role Played By Community-Based Organisations:

INTRODUCTION

One of the clear impressions, which a social security researcher in SADC is left with, is the apparent inability of governments in the region to render effective social security to the whole of the population. Another impression is that social security schemes in the region are largely built around those who work in the formal sector and their immediate dependents. And yet the reality of SADC is that of an, ever-shrinking formal sector and a vibrant and growing informal sector, as well as an alarming increase in the number of long-term unemployed people. The implication of the combination of these and other factors is self-evident: namely, large pockets of the people of our sub-continent are for all practical purposes excluded from the reach of existing social security schemes. And they tend, paradoxically, to be the most vulnerable - poor people living mainly in rural areas, often deprived of breadwinners who generate sufficient incomes to enable households to survive. It is no small wonder, then, that informal forms of social security have increasingly and out of necessity tended to fill this vacuum. Also, community-based networks have been mushrooming and have taken on the task to initiate, to render support, and to give guidance to these informal social security mechanisms. This, we believe, is in present circumstances inevitable. It is the purpose of this paper to reflect on what can be done to ensure that CBOs render an effective contribution to make social security provision, whether it be the formal state-provided or the informal community of family-based system, a living reality for those without sufficient means of support and survival.

SOCIAL SECURITY IN THE SADC REGION

The context

General characteristics A recent U-O/SAMAT study indicates the core context in Southern Africa, which informs the state and development of social security/protection systems in the region¹ and concludes in this regard as follows²:

¹Namely economic features comprising limited productivity, persistently high inflation rates, high and increasing informal sector employment, skewed income distributions; demographic characteristics, with reference to uneven population densities, low life expectancies, high birth rates, differing patterns of retirement; and issues of governance, relating to emerging democracies and weak subsystems for public.

"Together these conditions create a great need for social security in Southern Africa. Large segments of the population live and work on the edge of poverty; formal sector employment is limited and declining; inflation erodes incomes and savings; and the AIDS epidemic is reducing national productivity and leaving a generation of children without parental care. At the same time, low productivity means that social security is difficult to finance; and weak and undeveloped systems of governance pose major structural barriers to efficient administration. These constraints pose enormous challenges to those charged with delivering social security to the region's people, particularly to the groups which are most in need."

Social protection in SADC member states: a comparative synopsis of country measures

An analysis of the relevant measures and the accompanying institutional framework in SADC member states clearly reveals the un- and underdeveloped state of social protection in most of the states, and the lack of coordination in the region. One of the common striking features is that most of the social security schemes across Southern Africa mainly focus on protecting people who are employed in the formal sector. Often only certain categories of the formally employed benefit from social security schemes set up to deal with particular contingencies.³

Coverage of targeted populations tends to be narrow, leaving the most vulnerable across the region, in particular those in rural areas, without any form of social protection. The benefits paid by many schemes are inadequate to meet basic needs. In the case of non-contributory schemes, a heavy reliance on general tax revenues strains government financing, keeping benefits at low levels in most countries. Moreover, the social welfare/assistance schemes (or non-contributory schemes) are still in an embryonic stage, and the number of beneficiaries has been low as well as the benefits.⁴

It is also clear that the systems, as is the case with the underlying socio-economic, administrative and political profiles of the countries, are hugely diverse in nature.⁵ This, of course, makes it difficult to develop baseline standards for the region and to adopt measures to co-ordinate the various country social security systems. This is exacerbated by the fact that many of the country systems have not been well researched.

administration: Fultz & Pieris *Social security schemes in Southern Africa: An overview and proposals for future development* (1999).

²At 7.

³For example, in Botswana and Malawi contributory retirement schemes established by legislation benefit public employees only.

⁴Mauritius and, to some extent, South Africa are two notable exceptions. Mauritius has a generous family allowance system, and continues to offer free education, free health services and even subsidised food. In South Africa the popular but means-tested state-provided old age,

disability and child support grants fulfil an extremely important function as poverty relief measures and reach sizable numbers of those who fall within the said categories.

⁵This is evident from, amongst others, the way in which contributory retirement and health provision is structured. While in many of the countries public systems may be in place, in countries such as South Africa this function is fulfilled by strong private sector institutions.

Co-ordination of **social** security is presently almost totally absent **in** the region. The few examples that do exist do not function satisfactorily,⁶ while attempts to enter into more comprehensive arrangements still have to bear fruit.⁷

Administrative inertia and inefficiency in the area of social security delivery are, with some notable exceptions, apparently major obstacles. And yet it would appear that tailor-made solutions, for example, relying on non-governmental and community-based organisations⁸ and traditional authorities,⁹ to assist in this regard, have been relatively

Most of the countries in the region have embarked on restructuring processes.¹⁰ Some of these have already yielded interesting results, such as a clear transition from national provident fund to pension fund systems¹¹ and the introduction of short-term benefits as a first step towards developing the social security system holistically.¹² Also, in many of the SADC countries there has unmistakably been a significant increase in the number of beneficiaries benefiting from the existing protection or from new forms of protection introduced, indicating that service delivery in some environments is increasingly being streamlined.¹³ Also, a **renewed appreciation** of the role of **informal forms of social security** is evident, leaving policy-makers grappling with questions such as how to deal with and strengthen and/or regulate this phenomenon, and how to dovetail it with the formal system.¹⁴

⁶For example, in terms of a bilateral arrangement employment injury benefits in respect of returning Mozambican citizens who worked on South African mines used to be paid out in Mozambique through government channels. This proved to be highly unsuccessful, with little of the benefits reaching the actual beneficiaries. See Fultz & Pieris *The Social Protection of Migrant Workers in South Africa* (1997) 11.

⁷Some of the countries in the region (e.g. Zambia and Lesotho) argue that since South Africa has relied extensively on and benefited so much from migrant mine workers from across the region, it is indebted to extend social protection to mine workers who eventually return to their home countries, and who would otherwise be without cover. See Fultz & Pieris (1997) 11.

⁸As often happens in South Africa.

⁹In Swaziland, the public assistance system is accessible on recommendation of community leaders at grassroots level and the regional social worker who assesses the need.

¹⁰For example, in South Africa this has led to the establishment of a Ministerial Committee of Inquiry into a Comprehensive Social Security System in 2000; the Committee's report has recently been submitted to the South African government.

¹¹The transition has already occurred in Tanzania and Zambia and (in principle) in Namibia, while some other countries are contemplating to do likewise.

¹²This is in particular true of the highly successful system recently introduced in Namibia and implemented by the newly established Social Security Commission.

¹³This appears to be the case in, amongst others, erstwhile war-torn Mozambique: see Garcia, A *Mozambique Country Profile* (prepared for a SADC Conference on Social Security, entitled "Towards the Development of Social Protection in the SADC Region"), held at Helderfontein Conference Centre, Johannesburg, South Africa, 17 - 19 October 2001 (p 12 and further - Appendix).

¹⁴Substantial research in this area, culminating in provisional policy proposals, has been undertaken in, amongst others, **South Africa** (see Olivier, M P, Klinck E and Dekker, A H *Informal (forms of) social security: Social security for those who work informally and informal (community- and family-based) solutions to social protection* (paper prepared for the Ministerial Committee of Inquiry into a Comprehensive Social Security System) (July 2001); Dekker, A H "Social security for those who work informally, and informal (community- and family-based) solution to social protection" in Olivier, M *et al The Extension of Social Security Protection in South Africa: A Legal Enquiry* (Siberffik, 2001) 247-268 and

Several areas of concern remain. One of these relates to the position of non-citizens who are in many of the systems excluded from the sphere of coverage (excluding those systems where permanent residence status and a number of years actual residence are sufficient¹⁵). SADC Member States and SADC institutions appear to be aware increasingly of the importance and urgency of coordinating the social security systems of the region, *inter alia* in view of increased migration and the requirements of enhanced integration in the region.

Social protection at SADC level: a synopsis of regional instruments

General developments The task of developing social policy has largely been entrusted to the SADC Employment and Labour Sector (ELS). The sector has given a central place to the protection of vulnerable groups and the development of common approaches in its activities. It has also established a technical Sub-Committee on Occupational Health and Safety, and Social Security. The Sub-Committee has identified the need to examine social security systems in the region and identify elements as a basis for the development of common approaches in order to enhance social protection in the region. It has established guidelines on ratification of ILO Convention 102 of 1952 on social security and other relevant conventions.¹⁶

A number of important measures have already been undertaken. A draft Protocol on Freedom of Movement of Persons in the SADC was concluded in May 1998.¹⁷ As part of occupational health and safety strategies, a **Code on HIV/AIDS** has also been adopted. Furthermore, a **Draft Regional Code on Social Security in the SADC** has been developed and is in the process of being discussed and reflected upon.

The Charter of Fundamental Social Rights The recently adopted Charter of Fundamental Social Rights in SADC underpins the need for broad-based social

protection, in particular of workers and vulnerable groups and makes comprehensive provision for the establishment of harmonised programmes throughout the region.

The Charter in framework fashion sets broad baseline standards to be implemented across the Region. These standards are a crucial first step towards the protection of migrating SADC member states citizens as well. The Charter contains provisions relating to the social protection of both workers and those who are not employed - and regulates the position of workers (in terms of social protection) more comprehensively than those who do not work. Article IO is the lead article in this regard, and stipulates as follows:

Lund, F and Srinivas, S *Learning from experience: A gendered approach to social protection for workers in the informal economy* (ILO, 2000).

¹⁵ As is the case with Mauritius.

¹⁶ See Chitambo (coordinator of the SADC-ELMS Co-ordinating Unit) *SADC Policy Dimensions of Social Protection* (paper submitted at a SADC Conference on Social Security, entitled "Towards the Development of Social Protection in the SADC Region"), held at Helderfontein Conference Centre, Johannesburg, South Africa, 17 - 19 October 2001 (par 3.3.5)

¹⁷ Known as the Draft Protocol on the Facilitation of Movement of Persons in the Southern African Development Community (SADC), reproduced in <http://www.queens.ca/samp/migdoes/protocol.htm>

"SADC Member States shall create an enabling environment such that every worker in the SADC Region shall have a right to adequate social protection and shall, regardless of status and the type of employment enjoy adequate social security benefits. Persons who have been unable to either enter or re-enter the labour market and have no means of subsistence shall be able to receive sufficient resources and social assistance. "

The Charter requires equal treatment for men and women, and in particular equal opportunities for both men and women in, amongst others, the area of social protection's Member states are also required to develop reasonable measures to enable men and women to reconcile their occupational and family obligations.¹⁹ Protection of children and young people is emphasised,²⁰ while member states undertake to create an enabling environment in accordance with arrangements applying to each country to protect the elderly. This protection relates to both workers in respect of whom retirement provision exists,²¹ and every other person who has reached retirement age, but in respect of whom no entitlement to a pension exists and who does not have other means of subsistence.²²

Persons with disabilities are also given priority in the Charter. Member states are required to ensure that disabled persons, irrespective of the origin and nature of their disablement, are entitled to additional concrete measures aimed at improving their social and professional integration.²³

Minimum requirements and the harmonisation of these requirements are also foreseen, *inter alia* in the area of paid maternity leave and occupational health and safety protection.²⁴

INFORMAL SOCIAL SECURITY

Different forms and functions of informal social security

One of the crucial ways in which poor communities in the SADC region support themselves is through their reliance of informal social security mechanisms. What is meant by informal social security? Informal social security, in broad terms, refers to all forms of social security outside of the formal (governmental) social security framework. Two types of informal social security can be distinguished, namely: (a) informal sector social security; and (b) informal forms of social Security.²⁵ *Informal community- and*

¹⁸Art 6(b).

¹⁹Art 6(c).

²⁰ Art 7.

²¹The standard set is that every retired worker of the SADC region should be enabled "to enjoy resources affording him or her a decent standard of living, including equity in post employment security schemes" - art 8(a).

²²In this case the standard is that such a person "shall be entitled to adequate social assistance to cater specifically for basic needs including medical care" - art 8(b).

²³Art 9

²⁴ART 11(a).

²⁵See also Kaseke *Informal social security in Eastern and Southern Africa* (2001).

family-based forms of social security depend on a specific relationship or kinship, which places a societal or moral obligation on a person to provide social security support in certain circumstances. Membership of these schemes²⁶ if mostly based on kinship relationships, and often imposes a life-long obligation to solidarity.²⁷ Contributions or social security support can consist of money but normally consists of a service that is rendered or support given. This would, for example, occur in cases where families are looking after the elderly and support them as a member of the family through their own means of subsistence. One of the concerns is that traditional systems may tend to lose their effectiveness because of the erosion and disintegration of the traditional family, due to urbanisation and industrialisation.²⁸

Empirical case studies reveal that collective action (in organisations and associations and in the form of informal unions, cooperatives or issue-based temporary relief movements) enhances the development of social security services and achieves great levels of inclusion.²⁹ And yet, good examples that last over time are not easy to find.

Informal sector social security refers to the collective "informal" social security measures by members of a certain sector. This normally refers to monetary contributions by all members of a particular sector or trade, for example street vendors paying a daily fee into a fund, which serves as a form of, amongst others, health insurance when members or their families become ill.

These forms of informal social security often co-exist alongside formal forms of social security. In fact, the impact of formal social security transfers should not be underestimated. In South Africa, for example, it has been reported³⁰ that 80% of the poor elderly, in South Africa, receive old age grants. The impact of this grant income on household income for people in poverty, is dramatic. For black South Africans, each pensioner's income helped five other people in the household.³¹ Often these grants constitute the main income source for poor families. Many families rely on income from -grants along with informal social security measures to provide their livelihoods.

There are several reasons why informal social security plays such an important role in the African, and in particular in the southern African context. It is clear that the **formal system excludes and marginalises** many of the poor who work informally or who have to rely on informal social security mechanisms. The **reasons** for this state of affairs relate to:

²⁶Kasente *Gender and social security reform in Africa* (1996) 6 distinguishes four basic forms of non-formal social security in developing countries: (i) savings associations based on mutuality, e.g. so-called "throw-over"; (ii) self-help organisations with common funds and resources for emergencies, e.g. burial societies; (iii) consumers and savings associations, e.g. so-called stokvel schemes; and (iv) co-operatives.

²⁷These informal networks of social security rely on the principle of reciprocity, constituting a risk of sustainability because members who can no longer contribute are excluded: Kasente 6.

²⁸Kaseke *Rural social security needs: the case of Zimbabwe* (1993).

²⁹Lund & Srinivas 115.

³⁰*White Paper for Social Welfare Government Gazette* 18166 GN 1 108, 8 August 1997.

³¹*White Paper for Social Welfare* (Ch 7) 49.

- (i) the **formal employment basis** and **categorical approach** of the present social security systems - excluding those who are not involved in formal employment and who do not fall within one of the categories eligible for social assistance;
- (ii) the **urban bias** of the present systems - marginalised and impoverished women in southern Africa are predominantly rural-based and therefore effectively excluded from existing formal social insurance measures;
- (iii) the **restricted family concept** underlying much of the formal system - most definitions of social security are based on the **Western concept** of

the family, namely a family headed by a male bread-winner, with one wife and children.¹² This concept of a nucleus family **does not reflect the family context in Africa**, where the numbers of **women-headed households** are increasing, the **extended family** still plays a substantial role and **child-headed households** are also becoming a reality, especially with the increasing number of adults that have FHV/AIDS;³³

- (iv) the **limited concept of work** which, as a rule, does not encapsulate the productive and reproductive work in which women are involved, thereby **marginalising women in poor and traditional communities**. **Lund** and **Srinivas**³⁴ refer to these tasks as **work in the care economy**, and advocate that these activities should be recognized by the mainstream economy as forms of "work" that contribute to the economy. In this latter sense of the word their labour is "**unpaid labour**" which should be recognised for social security purposes, also in view of the fact that women's personal income-earning capacity is constrained by this additional burden;³⁵ and
- (v) it should also be borne in mind that African people, especially in rural communities, have a strong sense of **pride in their own traditions** and functioning of their community and often resist changes which are imposed on them from outside and which do not evolve from communities themselves.³⁶

Examples and the involvement of CBO's

Burial societies, rotating credit societies, and stokvels are amongst the more common forms of informal social protection. (Informal) social protection schemes are based on the existence of some association built on trust and an administration that is capable of

³²FobreN *Women and social security in Latin-America, the Carribean and sub-Saharan African (Equality for Women in Employment): Interdepartmental Project: Working Paper No. 5* (ILO Geneva) 1993.

³³Apart from being officially linked to the formal employment concept, the notion of "**dependant**" is also often restricted to the nucleus family concept. This requires a **redefinition and realignment** of the concept to accommodate particular realities of many African households, such as extended families, e.g. where grandparents look after grandchildren, and polygamy, e.g. where civil and customary wives have to contend for survivor's benefits.

³⁴Lund & Srinivas 105.

³⁵Lund F & Srinivas S 3 -4, 24; Van Ginneken W *Promoting productivity and social protection in the urban informal sector* (ILO, Geneva, 1996) 14; Berghrnan "The resurgence of poverty" 16.

³⁶Sikhosana D "Role of advocacy and civil society groups in social security transformation" Paper presented at an International Workshop on Transformation of Social Security Systems in South Africa, organised by the Friedrich Ebert Stiftung, in association with the Centre for International and Comparative Labour and Social Security Law (CICLASS), RAU, Johannesburg (January 2001).

collecting contributions and paying out benefits.³⁷ Apart from the fact that existing structures and specific needs are covered in these schemes, they also contain elements of self-reliance, participation and self-management. Overheads are minimal and monitoring is close. Membership of these associations could be determined along gender-, occupational- or sector-, regional- or religious lines.³⁹

Examples of informal social security schemes and the role that community-based organisations play in this regard, abound.

One of the regional examples is the Mwanayamala Scheme in Tanzania.⁴⁰ Almost 1000 market vendors in Dar-es-Salaam belong to this cooperative. They pay a daily rate for rent, which contributions are used to fund funeral costs and also to pay out a fee when a member is hospitalised. Another scheme, the UMASIDA health scheme, also in Tanzania,⁴¹ covers five informal sector groups in Dar -es-Salaam. It involves private health care providers who provide health care services for contributors and their families. All members contribute about one US dollar per month, which is put into a bank account managed by the groups themselves. The scheme is administered by the members, who have, amongst other things, designed a photo identity card, a sick-sheet and a list of the group leaders to facilitate administration. The doctors have also agreed to prescribe medicines approved by the World Health Organisation.

There are also examples from further abroad. The SEWA Integrated Social Security Scheme (India)⁴² is such an example. SEWA is a registered trade union covering a broad spectrum of workers such as home-based workers, traders and labourers. The SEWA integrated social security scheme is financed by contributions from members, a subsidy by the Minister of Labour (through the Life Insurance Corporation of India) and through interest on a grant from the German Technical Development Agency. Administration and management of the scheme is primarily the responsibility of the members. SEWA is administering the largest comprehensive contributory social security scheme in India today and is presently insuring over 32 000 women. Benefits include health insurance, a small maternity benefit, life insurance and asset insurance. Two thirds of the premium are financed through government and private institutions and a third by members personally. Payment structures exist to also

accommodate the very poor. For example payment of a once-off life membership which accrues interest to pay annual premiums, is provided for.

³⁷Van Ginneken (I 999) 20.

³⁸Yain in Van Ginneken (I 999) 58.

³⁹Van Ginneken (1999) 3 *let seq.* It has been illustrated that the organisational base of such "informal" social security structures or the utilisation of such organisations for social security purposes may affect the success of the social protection provided by such an arrangement or programme. A prerequisite often is that the economic basis of the association should be sound.

⁴⁰Van Ginneken *Social security for the Informal Sector* 6.

⁴¹Kiwara A & Heijnis F "Health insurance for informal sector workers - feasibility study on Arusha and Mbeya, Tanzania" in *Social security for the Informal Sector:- Investigating the feasibility of pilot projects in Benin, India, El Salvador and Tanzania* Discussion Paper 5 ILO (Geneva) 71.

⁴²Lund: *A framework for the comparative analysis of social protection for workers in the informal economy* 17.

Another example from the Indian subcontinent is ACCORD (Action for Community Organisation, Rehabilitation and Development).⁴³ This organisation was established as a tribal development programme to campaign for land rights. The Organisation also touched on issues of development of employment, education, health and credit. This led to the establishment of a credit fund to meet emergency consumption needs. Various programmes stemmed from this, for example a credit scheme where money is deposited into a fund, or where rice is contributed to a pool and distributed. Other programmes were also developed in terms whereof veterinary assistance and training, as well as vocational and health training, are provided. The fund was established by means of self-help groups which proved to be a very successful instrument. Women were trained to identify health-related problems as well as to monitor immunisation and antenatal programmes. Links were formed with a private insurance company in terms whereof a social insurance package was developed for members.

To return to the SADC region, mention should also be made of common mutual aid arrangements, including burial societies and savings and credit schemes. In a recent contribution Professor Edwell Kaseke remarks as follows:⁴⁴

"Burial societies in Zimbabwe developed in response to the problems of unemployment and the absence of kinship support networks 'n the urban areas. However, they have now spread to rural areas as well owing to the weakening of the extended family system and the escalating burial costs. The benefits provided by burial societies include the provision of a coffin, transport and food... In addition, burial societies provide emotional support to their members to help

them cope with their grief Savings and credit schemes operate in both rural and urban areas although they have become widespread in Zimbabwe's rural areas. The savings schemes allow members to accumulate savings in their accounts and the accumulated savings can be used to finance the education of their children or to meet the costs of medical treatment to purchase agricultural inputs. Similarly, credit schemes provide loans to members, which they can use to meet a variety of needs. The loans are also used as start up capital for income generating projects."

Or in Zambia, Kaseke tells us, "...the problem of low wages in urban areas has necessitated the development of a rotating credit scheme called 'chilimba'. Members of a 'chilimba' scheme contribute regularly to an agreed fund and the proceeds are shared among the members on a rotational basis ... Each member decides how he/she wishes to use the money. In general, this scheme enables the members to meet needs they would not have been able to meet on their meagre salaries.⁴⁵

A South African example of informal social security exists in the form of the Iso Lentuthuko project by the KwaZulu Natal Community-based Organisation Network

⁴³Van Ginneken *Social security for the Excluded Majority* 56.

⁴⁴ Kaseke *Informal social security in Eastern and Southern Africa* (2001) 6.

⁴⁵ Kaseke *Informal social security in Eastern and Southern Africa* (2001) 7.

(operative in the Eshowe area).⁴⁶ The Network lists a number of categories of marginalised and excluded groups, as well as the informal coping mechanisms devised by these groups and communities. The urban and rural poor are said to survive on temporary jobs. These jobs are however also excluded from social security protection and often from the basic labour law protection. They also refer to the old aged who often are still economically active in the informal economy as a means of coping and that stovelts, burial societies, the rotation of parts of salaries, and other similar measures have assisted these *and others* in the informal sector in providing social protection. The agricultural-based and other self-employed persons are reported to have little or no institutional support, let alone support through social security schemes. Thus they have tried to establish niche markets. Projects forums have been established so as to facilitate the flow of information, resources and skills exchange amongst project members – which informally contributes to their social protection. However, this group is in need of flexible and affordable social security schemes. The illiterate are an especially vulnerable group who, even if they do qualify for social assistance, cannot or do not know how to access benefits. Information is obtained through informal networks when, for example, using public transport. People in the community

who are illiterate are often asked to assist with explaining basic government procedures, filling in forms, etc. neither the illiterate, nor those assisting them, are receiving sufficient support or recognition.

One of the advantages of informal **social** security systems is that they address both immediate and future needs. Also, they provide timeous payments which makes it possible for beneficiaries to meet their needs timeously. In **this** way an effective contribution to poverty reduction is made.

However, it has to be appreciated that informal social security schemes are subject to limitation. One of the concerns is that traditional systems may tend to lose their effectiveness because of the erosion and disintegration of the traditional family, due to urbanisation and industrialisation.⁴⁷ Benefits are low, since contributions are often meagre. Corruption, poor financial management and poor record keeping are also characteristic of some of the schemes. In addition, HIV/AIDS has seriously eroded the, support and financial base of many informal schemes.

AN ENHANCED ROLE FOR COMMUNITY-BASED ORGANISATIONS

CBO's have an important role to play in ensuring that social security provision within their communities is effectively delivered. Their role, it is suggested, covers both informal and formal social security.

Informal Social Security

⁴⁶ Contribution to Committee of Inquiry into a Comprehensive System of Social Security for South Africa: Recommendations 2000.

⁴⁷Kaseke *Rural social security needs: the case of Zimbabwe* (1993).

The role of community-based organisations with regard to informal social security must be understood against the framework of the need to strengthen non-formal social security schemes:⁴⁸

"The starting point in efforts to strengthen non-formal social security systems and schemes is recognition by governments that non-formal social security schemes are providing social protection to the majority of the people. Governments also need to accept that formal social security schemes as currently conceptualised and designed do not capture the poor who constitute the majority of the population. The following suggestions are pertinent:

Providing training to members of mutual support schemes in order to improve the management of these schemes.

Provision of financial assistance by governments and non-governmental organisations in order to improve their financial base and thereby enhance their capacity to provide better social protection.

Widening the scope of non-formal social security systems in order to enhance social protection.

Introducing linkages with formal social security systems so as to improve social protection. This would make it possible for non-formal social security schemes to incorporate the social insurance principle of risk-sharing.”

In the absence of direct government involvement at these levels, it is suggested that CBO's involve NGO's operative in these areas, and higher education institutions with specialised skills and know-how, as useful partners in this regard. CBO's should actively go out and seek to acquire and impart management skills, in order to ensure that informal schemes are run efficiently. Training in principles of social insurance and in proper accounting would have to be solicited. Assistance in developing manageable self-help and self-supporting schemes and in establishing appropriate projects may be required and need to be transferred to community members. Markets for products have to be developed and effectively penetrated. As is evident from the examples from the Indian subcontinent, much could also be achieved by forging links with financial institutions and with service providers, such as medical doctors. Of course, given the integration of CBO's in the community fabric, CBO's could actually play an important role as facilitators of social security provision within the community, for example, by finding families for destitute children and providing foster parents with training and counselling.

Formal Social Security

One of the crucial tasks in the area of formal (state-provided) social security is that of information-sharing. Often those who are meant to benefit from existing social security arrangements are not aware of their entitlements in this regard. Awareness should be

⁴⁸Kaseke *Informal social security in Eastern and Southern Africa* (2001) 8.

raised and support given by providing training to community members, assisting claimants in processing applications, taking up the plight of aggrieved members with the responsible authorities, and reporting malfunctioning delivery systems and fraud.

Democratising social security provision and service delivery is another area where formal social security could be brought closer to communities. The Iso Lentuthuko project⁴⁹ has, for example, recommended that social welfare services be brought closer to the people by involving **pensioner's representatives in pension committees**, the **encouragement of voluntary participation in funds**,

and the **cultivation and nurturing of CBO structures** which should act as auxiliaries to the professional services provided by government departments. All of these detailed recommendations are in line with successful experiences in other developing countries.

CONCLUSION

Social security in the SADC region poses exceptional challenges to community-based organisations. We live in an era where the responsibility to render effective social security is no longer the sole responsibility of governments, but also that of structures within society, notably community and family networks. Exciting opportunities exist for **CBO's** to become actively involved in ensuring that social security reach the people it is meant to serve. This is a task which CBO's should fulfil in respect of both informal and formal systems of social security. I wish you well in your important endeavours in this regard.

⁴⁹Kwazulu Natal CBO Network Submission **2000**.

LAND REFORMS AND SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS IN SOUTHERN AFRICA: Professor Sam Moyo

Sam Moyo

June, 2002

Paper Presented A Regional Multi Stakeholder Workshop on “Fighting Poverty Through Sustainable Rural Livelihoods”, Durban, South Africa 4-6 July 2002.

Sam Moyo, Discussants, Background paper “ *Land Reform and Sustainable Livelihoods in Southern Africa*’.

1.0 Introduction

This paper explores the linkages between land reforms and sustainable livelihoods in a southern African context. It argues that accessing land is the main driver of rural livelihoods in the region. In addition to an elaboration of the significance of land in providing rural livelihoods, the paper also argues that land inequality and the accompanying land tenure problems are the root cause of the declining state of rural livelihoods. Land reforms in the region are therefore viewed as a major strategy of enhancing rural livelihoods. Land reforms in the region are however constrained by a combination of global and local factors. This has resulted in the poor performance of land reforms, thereby compromising the livelihood opportunities of rural communities. The adoption of Structural Adjustment Programmes most countries in the region has in fact entrenched market based approaches to land acquisition. This has affected rural livelihoods in several ways as outlined in this paper. As a result of the poor performance of land reforms in the region, communities have taken upon themselves to acquire and settle on the land as typified by the Zimbabwean experience. The paper provides a basic framework for discussing land reforms and sustainable livelihoods in southern Africa.

2.0 The Role of Land in Food Insecurity and Poverty

The livelihood strategies of rural communities in southern Africa are anchored on the land. Much of what development has done and what rural communities have chosen as options for survival have total or partial dependence on land (Moyo mimeo, undated). The main land based resources in the form of soil, water, forests and wildlife form the basis on which the basic needs of communities in the form of shelter, food, energy, health and cash depend (ibid.).

Moyo 1992 as entailing the following has identified the significance of land for peasant households, in the absence of alternative infrastructure and services provision in Communal Areas:

- Land as a storehouse of nature for reproduction of future generations;
- Land as an agricultural production tool for subsistence food and exchange;
- Incomes to meet broader subsistence needs and for re-investment;
- Land as receptacle of direct household utility needs-water, wood-fuel, organic fertiliser, medicine, shade, fruit, housing, game meat etc.

- Land as potential investment in water development for irrigation, tourist development, woodlands enterprises, for trading specific natural resources as commodities etc.;
- Land as social and political territory of governance and community reproduction; and
- Land as security of collateral in financial transactions.

In this respect, land emerges as the main source of human livelihoods and accessing it becomes a prerequisite for human survival.

In spite of this significance of land, a combination of factors has contributed to the declining state of rural livelihood base. For example, demographic factors have largely resulted in high population densities in most communal areas, a factor that has been held largely responsible for increased environmental degradation in those areas. With the exception of Namibia, Zambia, South Africa and to some extent Botswana, all other countries have high rural population densities that range from 244 persons per square km in Zimbabwe to 728 persons per square km in Tanzania (World Bank, 1997).

Over the past decade the percentage change of cropland increased in most countries in southern Africa whilst forest and woodland resources have declined in countries such as Zimbabwe, Tanzania, Mauritius, Malawi and Angola. Increased droughts have threatened food security in the region while a high debt service ratio for most countries has eroded the ability of governments to import food.

The economies of SADC are largely dependent on exploitation and consumption natural resources. At least 70% of the region's people are directly or indirectly dependent on agriculture (Moyo and Tevera, 2000:3). The agricultural sector contributes between 5 percent and 58 percent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and 60% of the total foreign exchange earnings in SADC region. The sector employs – in some countries – over 80 percent of the labor force. Agricultural production and agro-related enterprises are the main sources of household incomes, export earnings and employment. The sector also provides a substantial share of the region's exports and is a stimulant for rural economic growth, the source of food, farm incomes, and industrial raw material. However, over the last decade, total external commitments to agriculture have been declining. The SADC agricultural growth rate has been very low over the past 20 years, growing only at an average annual rate of 1.5 percent between 1980 and 1995. This poor record has been attributed to a many factors, ranging from

periodic droughts¹ and falling agricultural terms-of-trade, beyond the control of the region, to weak macro-economic growth, poor sectoral investment rates, and declining external commitments.

Food security has largely been compromised in a situation where the majority of the people have inadequate access to land for a variety of reasons (population growth, droughts, increase in the price of food, poverty, lack of agricultural inputs)(Moyo 1995, 1998a). Given the importance of the rural sector in attaining food security and reducing poverty, the land question has not been on the mainstream agenda of SADC. In spite of some countries having large land holdings, this has not ensured food security to the majority as land has been inefficiently used, under-utilised² or held for speculative purposes in the face of massive land dispossession or inadequate access to land. In the last decade, a growing reallocation of land and natural resources to private and foreign users has further contributed to the marginalisation of the majority poor. There is also a growing unequal access to the benefits of natural resources, in a context where the states have no capacity to regulate access due to structural adjustment programmes (Reed 2001; Moyo 2000).

Currently there are a number of major challenges facing the agriculture sector. Low productivity and recurrent droughts and floods have led to food insecurity in the sub-region. Firstly, the relative decline of agricultural production for domestic food and industrial requirements, vis-à-vis the growing needs in relation to demographic changes (population growth and urban relocation of vast segments). This led to increased food insecurity and impoverishment. Secondly, the increasing cost of food for the majority poor and the concentration of consumption among the relatively wealthier and better endowed countries, regions and social groups. Thirdly, the continued relative or proportionate decline in food production vis-à-vis production for exports and even for local agro-industrial activities, as a result of concentrated allocation of resources towards raw materials exports and because of the de-industrialisation. Fourthly, the declining returns or earnings from agricultural exports as a result of declining terms of trade and the protection of western markets have contributed to the poor performance of African agriculture. This has reduced African earnings from agriculture and constrained foreign currency and incomes (ibid).

Given the importance of the rural sector in attaining food security and reducing poverty, there is a recognition by SADC policy makers that a vibrant agriculture and rural sector underpinned by land reform will provide the catalyst for

¹ For example, between the period 1983-1995 Zimbabwe and Zambia have experienced 5 drought years each while Botswana was the worst hit with seven (World Bank 1997).

² According to Moyo 1998a, only about 6% of available land in southern Africa is arable, yet less than 25% of the available 40 million hectares are cropped.

improving living standards in member states. In this context, while strategies adopted by member states to promote growth and reduce poverty have, to a large extent, been pro-rural, implementation of these programs has been hampered by the lack of capacity and financial resources and a critical mass of experts to effectively tackle existing complex problems as well as emerging new ones.

Food security in the region is threatened by the increased drive towards export-based production (Moyo, 2000) while the continued decline of regional currencies³ against major trading currencies has increased the cost of food imports. Declining terms of trade for major export commodities against increasing food import cost and increasing import of manufactured goods has been the major cause of current imbalances and reduced internal capacities to invest in production and social welfare.

The continued increase in external debts means that quite a significant proportion of the national budgets has been channelled toward debt repayment. As individual governments continue to borrow, their capacity to finance land reforms from their own resources also declines. The growth of external debts (worsened by depreciation of regional currencies) has also meant less and less money being made available to other efforts aimed improving food security.

Land is critical for the social reproduction of households. The concept of social reproduction is founded on the analysis of community survival and reproduction, based on households as the lowest level of economic disaggregation (Moyo 1995, Kirby and Moyo 2001). Such analysis explores the ways by which households maintain and enhance their sustainability through subsistence, income generation and other forms of direct and indirect consumption activities. Sustainability is viewed in terms of inter-generational and intra-generational household and community reproduction. This perspective on community and household social reproduction undergirds the need for land reform as one element in the process of fulfilling and expanding local endowments and other entitlements. Increased access to land can be viewed in terms of increased productivity of natural resources or through access to new land found in privately held farms and state lands (ibid.).

Peasant households in southern Africa do not have adequate capital and access to technology to help improve the productivity of nature, which meet their sustainability requirements. The preferential allocation of infrastructure and

³ For the period between 1980-1996, all regional currencies have experienced a decline against the US\$ with the Botswana pula experiencing the least decline. The Mozambican and Zambian currencies were trading at 32.4 and 0.8 to one 1US\$ in 1980 respectively but by 1996, they were trading at 11293 and 1203 to the US\$ respectively (World Bank, 1997).

financial resources to privately held land and other forms of statelands (parks, forests) have worsened the plight of peasants who are densely packed in communal areas (Moyo and Tevera, 2000).

The land reform debate has been held more at the macro-level of aggregate land transfers, rather than in terms of the demands, needs and expression at the community or household level. Where demand for and pressure on land can easily be identified at site level, with local fights over land such as in squatting, poaching and fence cutting, the associated attempts to achieve household sustainability are rarely directly extrapolated into a broader discussion on land policy reform (Moyo, 2000b).

3.0 Land Inequality and Tenure Problems

The key land questions facing the SADC member states relate primarily to issues of distribution, utilization, tenure, land administration and adjudication (Table 1-1). The nature and degree of the problem vary in each state depending on history, culture and political considerations. In general, SADC member countries face two distinct but interrelated sets of land issues: (a) imbalances in patterns of land ownership in the former settler colonial countries, notably South Africa, Zimbabwe and Namibia; and (b) issues related to tenure and land utilization in the formerly colonial (but non-settler) countries such as Botswana, Zambia and Malawi (Moyo 2000b). In the former, the key policy challenges pertain to efforts to reform existing inequities in ownership through policies of acquisition and redistribution. In the latter group of countries, the key questions relate to tenurial security, land administration, and the use of land in alternative (non-agricultural) sectors (ibid.).

Table 1-1: Land Policy Problems and Issues in SADC Member States

Issues	Problems
<i>Land Distribution</i>	<i>Inequitable and unjust access to land Limited rights/access for majority Costly and cumbersome transfers of land</i>
<i>Land Utilisation</i>	<i>Discriminatory regulations against customary tenures Speculative under utilisation of freeholds Unsustainable use in overcrowded areas Coercive regulations in some tenures</i>
<i>Land Tenure</i>	<i>Insecurity of some tenures Discriminatory protection system Over-centralised regulations</i>
<i>Land Administration</i>	<i>Coercive and centralised approach Dispersed institutions</i>

	<i>Lack of capacity and weak institutional support</i> <i>Poor representation of majority</i> <i>Weak transparency</i>
<i>Land Adjudication</i>	<i>Biased towards market and state sectors</i> <i>No restitution/victims compensation</i> <i>Merged powers of local courts/authorities</i> <i>Inaccessible courts/mediation</i>

Problems associated with land redistribution are derived largely from inequitable and limited access due to past colonial patterns of unequal ownership and the costly and cumbersome processes associated with the redistribution process itself. Issues of land utilization take on many forms. These include sustainable use of land resources, not only for agriculture but also in other competitive uses such as housing, industrial development and/or natural preserves. In some SADC member states, efficient utilization of land is undermined by excessive regulations, or in some cases, the lack of a clear and transparent legal framework (Moyo, 2000b). In some communities, existing land laws discriminate against customary forms of tenure, thereby limiting access of minority groups. The combined effect of these factors is increasing insecurity in tenure, which in turn hamper productivity and impede the flow of domestic and external investments.

In some of the member states, ineffective land administration is due primarily to the weak capacity of government agencies responsible for the reform processes. Many land departments lack a critical mass of qualified and experienced staff to provide proper technical leadership of land redistribution activities. Also, many land administrative processes are often government-driven, with little participation of national civil society institutions. This information asymmetry between the key stakeholders leads to suspicion and creates the perception of a non-transparent reform process (ibid.).

Efforts at effective adjudication of land disputes are also hampered by the weak capacity of the judiciary. Lengthy court processes often result in delays in effecting compensation and restitution (Shivjy et al., 1998). In the former settler colonial countries of Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe, racially based land ownership patterns have led to discriminatory land use policies and practices, and land tenure laws. Attempts to change these patterns have led to negative political and economic consequences. Notwithstanding, it is clear that there could be improved welfare if inefficient land use, especially among large-scale farmers could be addressed, tenure of security improved and access to land expanded to landless segments of the population.

The main tenure systems found in southern Africa are private land-ownership through statutory freehold or leasehold land tenures, state ownership through freehold and leasehold tenure and customary tenure. These three forms of tenure are characterised by discriminatory land rights, security and land use regulations and false claims of relative superiority (Shivjy et al., 1998). In countries such as South Africa, Zimbabwe, Namibia and Swaziland the problem of inequitable land tenure systems is also expressed through inequitable land ownership patterns.

The over-centralised and state control of communal or traditional land tenure and land-use regulation is a major problem in southern Africa (ibid.). Customary tenure regimes are in most cases not protected by the range of statutorily provided regulations because of the desire by governments to control communal land management systems. The contradiction between official land policy provisions and interpretations of custom vis-à-vis real life practices of customary tenure are a source of an emerging complex and competing range of demands for land tenure reform.

Recent dramatic attempts at land tenure reforms in the region include the land commission and policies evolving in Tanzania, Malawi, Zimbabwe, South Africa, Swaziland, Namibia and Mozambique. These land policy trends provide clear evidence that the development strategies of structural adjustment programmes have encouraged alienation of land for foreign investment and the local elites leading to increased poverty among the people (Moyo, 1995). Land remains a major source of livelihood for most of the people in the region and will continue to be so, until the industrial and service sectors provide alternative opportunities for survival.

Inequitable access to land in southern Africa is a major constraint on poverty eradication because, for rural households, land is a natural resource for the reproduction of future generations (Moyo, 1998a). In addition to its value for agricultural purposes to realise subsistence production and cash income, land also provides basic household needs such as wood-fuel, medicines, housing material and game meat. High population densities in areas that include southern Malawi, the communal lands of Zimbabwe and Swaziland and former bantustans in South Africa and Namibia contribute to growing poverty. Given the unequal landholding patterns, rural poverty is found in all ecological zones in the region. Generally, the Human Poverty Index tends to increase from wetter to drier zones, especially where access to resources such as land and water is limited (Moyo, 1998a).

In most of the region's countries, the land question reflects extreme imbalances of land ownership on the basis of race and class, as well as increased foreign

control. Even in those countries such as Mozambique, Zambia and Botswana where historical legacy of racially based settler control of land had not dominated colonial struggles, increased foreign and black elite control of prime agricultural and tourist sites has emerged (Moyo and Tevera, 2000). The new wave of movement into various southern African countries by white South African and Zimbabwean large farmers and by European settlers during the 1980s and 1990s, as well as the new land alienations by transnational mining and tourist companies in the 1990s, have exacerbated the racial and foreign dimension of land concentration, even among non-settler post colonial states

Land alienation and unequal control over land are therefore the major issues concerning land tenure in southern Africa. Unequal ownership and access to land are increasingly becoming a central threat to stability in southern Africa. The region faces growing rural poverty, enforced high population densities and poor land management. Inequitable access to land underlies the food and the agricultural crisis and their impact on poverty (Moyo, 1998a).

Pan-African Initiatives and Sustainable Livelihoods

Although numerous endogenous development initiatives in the past have been submerged there is continued momentum to generate Pan-African initiatives. More recently at the continental level the NEPAD process seeks to promote major agricultural change towards the following:

- Attainment of food security by increasing food production and raising of nutritional standards;
- Improving agricultural productivity through removal of structural constraints to production, especially the climatic uncertainty which is a risk to farming through investment in irrigation, increasing inflows of private investment, and improving rural infrastructure;
- Improving Rural Purchasing Power, and
- Improving the “institutional Environment” for agriculture through four types of interventions namely support for research centres, provision of extension services, organising agricultural trade fairs and modifying the regulatory environment, by encouraging local community leadership in rural areas and enhancing local participation in policy processes.⁴

However, NEPAD itself has some serious weaknesses, which require civil society to critically engage with it so as to restructure and improve its strategy and outcomes for rural communities. On land for instance, it was recently noted “although NEPAD alludes to infrastructural development and access to resources like water, it is vague about the distribution of these resources. Also,

⁴ NEPAD Documents, Moyo 2002.

the role of the state in land ownership and distribution remains undefined in the NEPAD project as well as how to resolve existing conflicts around access to land".⁵ Further, The strategy is watered down by the fact that its implementation is focused around two existing projects namely: Expanding the Integrated Land and Water Management Plan and strengthening Agricultural Research and Extension Systems which were mainly constructed by external multinational institutions⁶.

Thus there is need to see how NEPAD can achieve greater results by asserting its key weaknesses. For instance, it has been argued, "the NEPAD Agricultural strategy is steeped in market led framework to development management which requires minimalist role of the African state. This approach to promoting agricultural development is however fundamentally contra-distinguished from actually existing practices of global agrarian development. While this NEPAD approach policy conforms to the dominant paradigm espoused by Bretton Woods Institutions in Africa, its major limitation is that agricultural , trade and monetary policies of northern states directly countermand the intended goals of weaker states. This is because agricultural development policy management in the northern hemisphere is based on extensive state intervention in product and factor markets in favour of an agrarian structure comprising mainly of protected owner-operated family farms, dominated by private sector transnational firms. This relationship is reinforced and protected by the dominant position held by these states in key multi-lateral financial, aid and trade institutions. In this manner, NEPAD agricultural strategy is not only subordinated to northern agrarian market structures, but fundamental questions of social justice, equity and even efficiency of the current agrarian political economy, which primarily have a bearing on the livelihoods of the rural poor, are totally excluded from the NEPAD strategy"⁷

5.0 Land Policies and Rural Development in southern Africa

5.1 Colonial Land Policies

One of the most unique features of the southern African region is the contrasting colonial land expropriation experience, the nature of decolonisation process, pattern of land distribution and the varied land reform experiences in the post-independence period. The legacy of the oppressive and racially based policies of colonial governments is still reflected in the inequitable land distribution patterns southern Africa. For example, the extremely skewed land tenure are excessive in

⁵ Report of the Renaissance South Africa Outreach Programme, Continental Experts' Meeting on the NEPAD and African Union

⁶ Moyo 2002

⁷ Moyo 2002

South Africa where white South Africans, who make up only 5% of the population, own almost 87% of the land (Moyo, 2000a). The mean amount of land held per person in South Africa is slightly more than one hectare for blacks and 1570 hectares for whites. In Zimbabwe, approximately 4500 white commercial farmers control 31% of the country's land under freehold tenure or about 42% of the agricultural land, while 1.2 million families subsist on 41% of the country's area (ibid.). In Namibia, some 4000 white settler freeholders own 6400 farms with an average size of 5700 hectares each. On the other hand, communal farming covers 34 million hectares and supports 140 000 families (or about 50% of the population). In Malawi mainly settlers of South African origin who produce the main exportables of that country occupy most of the land. In the 1920s, the decision by colonial authorities to issue legal titles to land resulted in the expansion of estate agriculture. Land alienation, through the grouping of freehold and leasehold titles, was most extensive in the southern region of Malawi where tea and tobacco estates were developed (ibid.). The situation is however different in Botswana where the state controls 96% of the land with 25% owned by the state and 71% being controlled through the tribal land boards. The contest in Botswana is around land owned by the state and land leased to diamond mining concessions with little regard of the security of minority tribal groups.

5.2 Land reforms in Post Colonial Period

Post-independence governments in southern Africa have been confronted by a mammoth task of redressing the inequitable distribution of land that was created by decades of colonial policies and legislation. A major challenge has been the development of appropriate land policies, institutions and land reform programmes capable of redressing the longstanding land ownership patterns, increased access to land by the majority and ensure sustainable utilisation of the land. A land reform programme that is inclusive of the marginalised rural poor as well as empowering small to medium scale agricultural entrepreneurs is what the region needs.

Experiences with land reform policies or redistributing land are quite varied in southern Africa. Since de-colonisation, radical land reforms were pursued in the lusophone countries of Angola and Mozambique which have almost three decades of land reform policy experience although this was truncated by civil war (Moyo 2000b). In the three Anglophone settler states, experiences with land reform, be they efforts led by the state, communities or NGOs is at most around 20 years old. Land reforms in southern Africa are discernibly shifting to radical land reform strategies in the face of waning international investment, and economic decline in most countries and in a context of growing local agitation led by peasants and social movements due to the slow pace of land transfer (ibid.).

The financing for previously alienated land now held by owners with legal title is a major recurring problem in Zimbabwe, Namibia and South Africa. There is a tendency to recognise law in the context of current problems without much clarity on the historical origins of such law. The tendency is to rely on legally accepted mechanism and the rule of law vis-à-vis the resurgence of social pressure for reclaiming lost lands in peri-urban areas of South Africa and Botswana or in rural areas in Zimbabwe, Malawi and Mozambique (ibid.). The challenge is to mobilise appropriate financial and technical resources, legal procedures/or instruments and adequate participation of various interests in defining the type, timing and methods of compensation, while keeping pace with the demands on the grounds on land and develop appropriate private skills and techniques for use of land.

The major constraint on the evolution of land redistribution programmes in the post-colonial and post apartheid era of the 1990s was the emergence and dominance of neo-liberal, monetarist macro-economic and trade investment policies, as well as export-oriented sectoral policies in agriculture and land (Moyo, 2000b; Reed, 2001). Free market policy perspectives reinforced the biases against nationalisation or compulsory acquisition of land in southern Africa and promoted the current focus on market based approaches to land reform. The Zimbabwean willing buyer/willing seller approach that was enshrined in the Lancaster House Constitution of 1979 led to the costly state-financed market purchases of large farms in the 1990s, a tendency that was bolstered by the adoption of the Economic structural adjustment Programme policy prescriptions.

The Zimbabwean experience, which can be considered as a pilot land reform process for southern Africa during the 1980s, set the stage for the elaboration of similar compromises over land in Namibia and South Africa.. In South Africa, the 1997 White Paper on South African Land Policy indeed accords a greater role to the market or private and community sector than central government, even though it is conceded that the government has had initially to play a leading role to play in land policy formulation (Moyo, 2000b).

5.3 Structural Adjustment Programmes and Land

Globalisation has resulted in a change in the nature of global demand for agricultural and natural resources commodities derived from the land. In Zimbabwe the adoption of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) created the demand for formally marginal lands for nature related land-uses which increased the variety of land-users competing for land, adding those geared towards wildlife ranching, CAMPFIRE schemes, ostrich farming, and broader tourist uses of land to the mixed farming land-uses of communal areas and beef ranching of LSCF farmers.

Factors that include improved air transportation technologies, the restructuring of global capital and the development of the global environmental movement have provided the space for the development of horticultural production and wildlife related land-uses in a number of countries in the region. The Government of Zimbabwe for example embarked on a wide range of specific policies to promote the growth and development of the horticultural sector. The Agricultural Financial Corporation (AFC) even broadened its financing to peri-urban to peri-urban plot holders with holdings of at least five hectares in projects, which include piggeries, vegetable growing and poultry (Moyo, 2000a).

Based on the Zimbabwean experience under ESAP, horticultural production provided the opportunity to examine the potential offered by more intensive land use with high returns on a relatively small area of land for potentially large numbers of farmers and workers which could be undertaken in any agro-ecological location so long as the right inputs or technology could be mobilised. For example, horticultural production has meant that many users could intensify their production on small land areas in any agro-ecological region as long as they have access to capital for water and related production infrastructure, and if there is reasonable access to refrigeration and road infrastructure towards external markets. Land intensification through horticulture means more farmers can use less land at higher levels of return. On the other hand, wildlife provided the opportunity to examine the potential offered by extensive land-use on larger sizes of marginal lands with reasonable financial returns. Ostriches offer intensive land use based on pen feeding which can be done profitably on small areas in any natural region without the need to disturb soils or use large quantities of water once the relevant equipment and capital is mobilised.

In a study on two communities in Zambia namely Chiawa and Kaindu, Reed (2001) provided a detailed account on the impacts of economic liberalisation and institutional reforms on rural livelihoods. In Zambia, macro-economic policy have resulted in the removal of exchange rate controls, lifting of price controls on basic commodities, revision of the Lands Act and a general relaxation of the regulatory environment. The tourism sector has benefited most from the policy changes and has resulted in an increase in tourism in the area. However, there is little involvement of native populations as tour operators come mainly from South Africa and Europe.

There are limited economic opportunities for local villagers in the Chiawa and Kaindu areas. For example, regular and part-time employees are seldom hired from the community; operators import food and water, and build lodgings with imported materials. However, some of the positive interactions include economic spin-offs through the purchasing of thatching mats and local produce, hiring of short term labourers etc.(Reed, 2001).

Moyo et al (1998), in case study in Shamva District, Mashonaland East province in Zimbabwe, have observed a new form of relationship between a few large-scale commercial farms (freehold property) and some communal and resettlement farmers in the district. This relationship was in the form of contractual farming. Communal farmers were contracted to produce certain crops. Some large private enterprises were also noted to be engaged in this practice. In a fair environment where communal farmers are more enlightened about the market practices of their produce, such initiatives are bound to increase incomes available and their way of living. This is the kind of interaction that can be encouraged between the various land tenure arrangements in the region.

Moyo 2000⁸, summarised the current dynamics of land reforms in Zimbabwe as being reflected in the following trends:

Subdivision of large commercial farms. With higher returns, farmers can maintain income levels by intensifying production on a smaller amount of land, thereby allowing for the sale of under-utilised land to new entrepreneurs. Subdivision is also occurring in peri-urban areas

- Entry of black entrepreneurs on state owned land. The government has granted leaseholds to black farmers entering large-scale commercial farming and provided subsidies and credit to support their start-up operations;
- Entry of transnational corporations. Large-scale corporate arrangements combining national and transnational corporations have entered the market, promoting new land uses;
- Illegal allocation of communal lands. As demand for land has increased and prices have hardened, illegal mechanisms of conveying land in communal areas to persons outside the areas have increased;
- Increased investment on state-owned lands. The Forest Commission, Parks Authority, and estate farms have increased investments in new land use activities;
- Utilisation of marginal lands. The introduction of new land-uses, especially wildlife and tourism has increased the value of previously unused land;
- Self provisioning. Poor Africans have taken into their own hands the seizure of lands from the state, large-scale commercial farms and communal areas.

These tendencies are found in many other countries in Southern Africa. The processes have shaped the land reform-livelihoods debate in the region.

6.0 Community Strategies for Accessing Land

⁸ See also Reed 2001

Conflicts over land and other natural resources are a major threat to rural livelihoods. The history of liberation struggles in southern Africa is rooted in the land question. In the post-independence period, conflicts over land have not subsided. For the past two years, for instance, land occupations on Zimbabwe's large scale commercial farms have been one of the most visible forms of conflicts (see Moyo 1995; Moyo, 2000; Marongwe, 2002). However, over the last 15 years, land occupations have been experienced in urban and peri-urban areas in South Africa and in isolated public and private estates in various countries. Conflicts have the ultimate effect of reducing developmental efforts while in the worst situations they destroy community livelihoods. The history of the development of illegal settlements is essentially a livelihood based land conflict. Communities have also devised their own strategies of improving their livelihoods (see Boxes 1 and 2).

The history of locally organised formal civil society pressure for land redistribution by civil society agencies in southern Africa is quite limited in terms of time and spatial incidence. Only in South Africa did the National Land Committee structures emerge in the late 1970s and 1980s as part of the mass movement. More recently, spontaneous illegal squatting or land occupations have been more influential in keeping the land redistribution issue on the agenda than formal organisations of civil society or their recognised CBO counterpart.

Box 1: Community struggles and water related livelihoods-an example of Nyanyadzi River Catchment, Zimbabwe.

The Nyanyadzi Catchment is about 800 square kilometres and traverses all the natural ecological regions of the country. The source of the Nyanyadzi river and its tributaries lie in the Chimanimani highlands and at the base of the river system is a 414 hectare 4 block flood irrigation scheme established in 1934. Its water supply is augmented by pumped water from Odzi River to supply blocks A, B and D, leaving C to depend entirely on water from Nyanyadzi river.

The river experiences seasonal flow variations leading to shortage of water for the downstream irrigation scheme which under the Water Act of 1976 has a water right. Upstream there are a number of farmers and water users with 'informal abstraction points', which sustain plots ranging in size from 0.25 to 25 acres where horticultural products are grown for domestic consumption as well as for sale to local households, institutions and outside buyers. From 1985 to 1993 two Mutare-based food processing companies Tomango and Lemco, now Cairns Foods, contracted some of the informal irrigators to grow beans, tomatoes and vegetables, with the companies providing seeds and related inputs as well as a ready market and transport. Yields in these 'irrigated plots' vary significantly but can be up to 3 times above the average yield in the formal Nyanyadzi irrigation scheme. The livelihoods of the upstream irrigators are, therefore, sustainable for as long as their access to the water resource is guaranteed. On the other hand, the custodianship and, thus, the environmental security of the Nyanyadzi Catchment is more secure if they can be able to draw benefits from the river.

Informal water abstraction by upstream users has been a cause of tension between up and downstream users of Nyanyadzi river. In 1984, the formal irrigators, with the help of the Police and the Department of Natural Resources destroyed 28 upstream abstraction points and unlined furrows. Subsequent raids were made in 1987, 88, 91 and 94. Between 1988 and 1991 an informal truce was hammered out through the Chimanimani District Administrator's mediation. Water was to be shared between the upstream and downstream irrigators on the basis of weekly rotations. However, the 1991 and 1994 raids show that the arrangement was not sustainable.

The Nyanyadzi Catchment case study pits upstream councillors against their downstream colleagues, upstream AGRITEX officers working closely with the informal irrigators who are naturally innovative farmers for whom AGRITEX services are meant and on the other hand downstream AGRITEX officers working with formal irrigators. The Department of Natural Resources is also a key player in the management of the water resource as is the DA's office. Local stakeholders, including farmers' associations, chiefs and headmen, have also been drawn into the conflict over water resources, especially in shortage periods.

The 1976 Water Act however provided little scope for the resolution of such conflicts largely because it did not provide for the Catchment as the management unit. Furthermore, the absolute volumes written into water rights also complicated the situation.

Where the Act and the right stipulate quantities to be abstracted, a more holistic approach amenable to riparian users is the concept of a share or a chance to benefit from the resource, which appears to be in pursuit of the principles of fair and equitable distribution of resources.

Source: Nhira et al. (1998).

Moyo 2002c further argues that the NGOs' interest in land questions is tainted on their middle class concerns given that their social base or forces are not predominantly representative of peasants' concerns. A complicating factor is that most NGOs have their roots in social welfare and emergency relief traditions and therefore do not address structural land redistribution issues.

Box 2: Land Reforms and Sustainable Livelihoods: an example from South Africa

In 1969, over 3 000 people were forced, at gun point, to burn their homes in what is now called the Pafuri section of the park. The Makuleke people have strong cultural ties with this area and their livelihoods also depended on the rich natural wealth of their surroundings. Women were engaged in activities such as the making of baskets to trap the fish in the floodplains of Luvuvu and Limpopo rivers whilst the men hunted wild animals. The locals also made and consumed a nutritional wine called uchema through the tapping of juices of themlala -palms that were found on river banks. Different types of indigenous fruits were also harvested and these helped in keeping the children healthy. In addition, traditional healers developed a whole set of pharmacological remedies for various ailments from the berries, roots and leaves that were available from the natural environment. The families were relocated near the Punda Maria border in an area called Ntlaveni. The area is characterised by dry savannah conditions, but is not rich in natural resources as that existed on the floodplains of the two rivers where they were originally located. With the coming of independence in South Africa, the new government started a land reform process characterised by three aspects, namely: tenure reform, which is designed to provide security to all South Africans under diverse forms of locally appropriate tenure, including provision of legal recognition and formalisation of communal land rights in rural areas.

- redistribution, where the state provides grants of up to SAR 15 000 per household to assist African individuals to buy land on a willing-buyer willing-seller basis.
- restitution, which is meant to restore land ownership or provide compensation to those who were disposed of their land without adequate compensation by the apartheid practices after 1913.

The Makuleke people have gone through a series of negotiations with the National Parks Board that would see them regain access to their land. An agreement has been made between the Makuleke people and the parks board which marks a new era of conservation debates. The agreement seeks to harmonise the protection of biological diversity whilst recognising the interests of rural people who have remained hostile to the idea of conservation in this part of Kruger National Park.

The agreement is based on the following aspects:

It returns full ownership and title to the Makuleke people of the land that lies between the Luvuvu and Limpopo rivers. This area contains the richest combination of wild plants and animals in the whole of Kruger National Park. In return, the Makuleke people pledge to use the said land in a manner that is compatible with the protection of wildlife. They are obliged not to occupy the land, farm it or undertake any activities such as mining that would endanger the conservation objectives of the park. (It is believed there are deposits of diamonds that lie beneath the banks of the Limpopo River).

The Makuleke people have full rights over the land, which includes entering into partnerships with private investors to build game lodges and camps as long as they remain in line with the wildlife management policies of the National Parks Board. It provides for setting up of a joint board made up of representatives from the Makuleke people and the conservation agency to govern the way in which the wildlife of the area is protected. This arrangement will make it possible for community leaders to train residents to carry most of the conservation activities with time.

The total land area under consideration is about 23 000 hectares. The important point is that it is only the change of land ownership that is being effected whilst it is the same land use and ecological system that is being maintained. The same common principles operational in the rest of Kruger National Park will remain in force in the excised part.

Source: Popular Coalition to eradicate Hunger and Poverty Network Documents (1998).

A major contradiction is the degree to which communities are bypassed or misrepresented by NGOs and donors in land reforms, and how new NGOs/government partnership reinforce conservative land reform agendas. Thus the role of NGOs in land reforms and their ability to promote land related livelihood requires a major shake-up in the way NGOs are organised, led and financed.

The Zimbabwean case is now being referenced as a typical example of an attempt to pursue a radical state-led approach to land redistribution through compulsory land acquisition and as a failed bureaucratic and non-transparent agenda in spite of the scale of and pace of land redistribution which has occurred (Moyo, 1999).

A major populist aspect of the emerging perspectives on land acquisition under market-led land reforms is that it should be community driven. Communities are expected to develop local land reform plans, identifying the demand for potential supply and pricing of land (Deininger, 1998). The communities are expected to self-select the beneficiaries and to negotiate the purchase of such lands and, using partial land purchase grants and private credit, they buy and utilise the land (ibid.).

On the other hand, NGOs in southern African have not been central to land reform or to land and agrarian social movements. Moyo 2000c has summarised the role and character of NGOs. Moyo argues that the NGO community has been and remains a reactionary force and not agenda setting. As such NGOs are disinterested and uninvolved in land redistribution. They do not lead the thinking, policies, action or social movement and that they are not progressive and are anti-change on land issues.

The problem with this perspective is that it is presumptuous in thinking that land transfer can be equitably negotiated by rich land owners with impoverished and marginalised rural populations of Southern Africa. Unlike their Latin American counterparts who have evolved massive social movements supported by radical NGOs and local political organisations, rural communities remain repressed under the pseudo-feudal traditional chieftancy and dominant-party political systems (Moyo, 2000b). Such local structures lack democratic, transparent and accountable procedures and are not inclusive. Moreover, the resource bases and capacities of local CBOs are so weak that they tend to be led by NGOs, which are dependent on external development agency funding of the land reform agenda.

7.0 Conclusion

This paper has argued that in the southern African context, land is key to all sustainable livelihoods debate. The majority of poor rural populations depend on

the physical environment, particularly on the common property resources. This then highlights the importance of land tenure issues in sustainable livelihoods debates and as such land and its allied resources need to be held by communities under secure rights. Land tenure debate in the region has been rekindled by the land occupations, which are exemplified by the Zimbabwean situation. The dominant perception is that tinkering with property rights negatively affects the investment climate due to uncertainty among investors regarding property rights and the declining collateral value of land. However loss in investor confidence arguments tends to overlook speculative gains and costs to the victims and impact of them having access to land. Perhaps taking the livelihood analysis approach greatly assists in recasting the debate. Through sustainable livelihoods, sustainability of the land resource is then interpreted as a function of and management of the physical environment, economy, social environment and institutions. The land reform-sustainable livelihoods debate provides the framework for discussing rural development in a wider context. Land reform must expand the livelihood opportunities of communities through various strategies like diversification, secure land rights, expanding production etc.. This is due to that the fact that inequitable access to land resources and the underlying imbalances in income distribution undermines the development of rural livelihoods in the region.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The Informal Cross Border Trade has remained “invisible” and its contribution disregarded when computing the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). At times it has been judged as illegal trade owing to the fact that those involved in it have not been declaring all the goods they bring into the country or even export. It is estimated in Mozambique that US\$25 million is lost annually due to under declaring at customs (Macamo 1999). At times official routes have not been used and therefore painting a negative picture on those involved. It is estimated that 30,000 to 60,000 Metric Tons of maize is smuggled annually from Zambia to Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) costing the former US\$3 million (Ogutu 1996:1).

With the increasing pressure to accept external policies from the Bretton Woods Institutions (IMF/WB), more people are being pushed into the informal sector. It is presently estimated that 60% of working labour force falls into that category according to the UNDP Human Development Report of 1997. The numbers continue to swell due to the low economic growth rate in the formal sector.

As more people with professional skills continue entering the informal sector, the face and pace of growth has changed in the ICBT. Unfortunately the policies have not yet been designed to accommodate these new developments and hence the conflict and misinterpretation of what really comprises of ICBT as very little is documented according to Ogutu (1996:1) and further reinforced by Macamo (1999: xi). This is happening when the Southern African countries are in the process of strengthening the regional integration and economic co-operation.

Efforts to promote regional integration and economic co-operation in some selected SADC member countries were initiated some time back. The Southern Africa Customs Union (SACU) started in 1910, to date still covers South Africa, Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland and Namibia encouraged free movement of goods and services mainly from South Africa to the rest of the countries. The movement of people was only allowed in restricted numbers mainly to provide migrant labour for the mining sector.

The Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) started as a co-ordination scheme in 1980 to provide alternative trading route for the front line states, and later signed a new treaty in 1992 which transformed it into an Economic Community. Among the main objectives are to achieve development

and economic growth, alleviate poverty, enhance the standard and quality of life of the peoples of Southern Africa and support the socially disadvantaged through regional integration. It also seeks to promote self-sustaining development on the basis of collective self-reliance, and the interdependence of member states. These efforts would be incomplete without strengthening and consolidating the long standing historical, social and cultural affinities and links among the peoples of the region SADC 2000 (Human Development Report).

In an effort to facilitate the achievement of these objectives the Heads of States and government from SADC member countries in 1992 resolved to pursue various policy issues to:

- Harmonise political and socio-economic policies and plans of member states.
- Encourage the peoples of the region and their institutions to take initiatives to develop economic, social and cultural ties across the region, and to participate fully in the implementation of the programmes and projects of SADC.
- Create appropriate institutions and mechanisms for the mobilisation of requisite resources for the implementation of programmes and operations of SADC and its institutions.
- Develop policies aimed at the progressive elimination of obstacles to the free movement of capital and labour, goods and services, and of the peoples of the region generally, among member states.
- Promote the development of human resources.
- Promote the development, transfer and mastery of technology. The Windhoek Declaration of Treaty and Protocol of 1992 adopted by SADC combined trade integration and with sectoral co-operation and co-ordination with extra regional players. This was a deep integration approach as it entailed removal of external barriers like tariffs and internal barriers as monopolies and cartels, investment licensing and regulations.

The CBOs participating in the Informal Cross Border Trade are therefore under this policy, however, they receive very little or no support at all. They have been struggling on their own with hope of receiving recognition one day. This should be reflected through budget allocations, capacity building and regulatory policy framework to enable the sector to grow.

2.0 REGIONAL TRADE AND INTEGRATION IN SADC

2.1 THE CROSS BORDER TRADE EXPERIENCES

During the 1990s, the intra- SADC mainstream trade grew faster than the total SADC trade. For instance between 1991 and 1996 the intra trade growth per year

for exports, imports and total trade was 23.1%, 17.7% and 13.8% respectively. While between 1992 and 1998 the total SADC exports, imports and total trade grew on an average of 2.4%, 5.7% and 3.8% per annum respectively as indicated in the Human Development Report (SADC 2000).

Reflecting on this trend, total intra SADC trade grew from 27.8% of GNP of the sub-region in 1991 to 39.5% in 1996 which also included informal cross border trade though the actual intra trade ratios could be higher (SADC HDR 2000:23). The increase in trade is also attributed to entry of five new members in the SADC membership namely; South Africa, Mauritius, Seychelles, Namibia and Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC).

The African Development Report on regional integration stated that informal trade was less than 5% of the total intra regional trade (ADB,1993) as quoted in SADC (2000 Human Development Report). The total Informal Cross Border Trade may be small in proportion to the total intra regional trade, however a large proportion of the intra- regional trade of some countries where the revenue lost may be significant. Both Macamo (1999) and Ogutu C.A (1996) allude to these findings as pointed out in the SADC 2000 HDR.

Owing to declining levels of revenue due to unfavourable terms of trade, most African countries fell into debt and thus overburdening their citizens. In an effort to reduce the problem, under the World Bank/International Monetary Fund (WB/IMF) they adopted Economic Structural Adjustment Program (ESAP). The ESAP policy proposal encouraged indebted countries with low economic growth rates to liberalise their markets and allow effective competition. It further encouraged reduction of budget deficit, price deregulation, privatisation of the government parastatals and implement effective fiscal policies to guarantee a wide base in revenue collection and financial discipline.

The policies unfortunately, have not impacted positively on the people. Instead, the continent has witnessed more suffering, retrenchments, increase in poverty, and more people sliding into the poverty trap and engaging in micro and medium enterprises. In an effort to earn a living some of those pushed into the informal sector have started participating in the informal cross border trade. They would often purchase merchandise in one country and sell at a profit in their home country. A typical example are the women and men in Zimbabwe who would take crafts, dollies, crocheted materials to South Africa and in return purchase electrical goods, domestic equipment and leather products for sale in Zimbabwe. With the Regional Trade block that is evolving, it follows that the people participating in this sector have a contribution to make towards regional economic co-operation and integration.

The SADC Declaration of Treaty and Protocol of 1992 signed in Windhoek on August 17, indicates that people from all levels of society shall be encouraged to participate and make a contribution towards strengthening the Economic block (SADC: 1992). The Community Based Organisations (CBOs) and other civil society organizations are therefore encouraged to participate in SADC programs through

Article 23 which states that:

- In pursuance of the objectives of this Treaty, SADC shall seek to involve fully, the peoples of the region and Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in the process of regional integration.
- SADC shall co-operate with and support the initiative of the peoples of the region and NGOs contributing to the objectives of this Treaty in areas of co-operation in order to foster closer relations among the communities, associations and peoples of the region.

In this way, the provisions of SADC attempt to encourage maximum participation of all the people from member countries. Unfortunately the people have not been able to make a lot of impact owing to limited channels of information and logistical barriers.

The process of regional integration is greatly influenced by the global policies. From the global trade policies Regional Integration has therefore been encouraged to facilitate structural transformation of the African economies. Following the Uruguay Round Negotiations of GATT (1986-1994) it saw the establishment of multi-lateral trading agency World Trade Organization (WTO) as from January 1st, 1995. It encourages trade under Article I on Most Favoured Nations (MFN) and regional integration Article XXIV, where the countries under a Free Trade Area should not discriminate against a member country (Das 1999). The lessons of regional integration are seen to increase the market size of countries. The SADC region with 180 million people is seen as a large market under integration rather than trading in small units at country level. The negotiations carried through the WTO seek to identify more markets for each country. However, owing to the institutional weaknesses of the African countries and others in the South they attempt to impact the trade negotiations as a block. The Southern Africa Development Community is one such trade block on behalf of its own people, which also includes the informal cross border traders. The trade issues were negotiated as a block in the Singapore Ministerial trade meeting in 1996, Geneva 1998 and November 1999 in Seattle trade meeting, which unfortunately collapsed. The same process of negotiation was repeated at Doha Ministerial Trade meeting in 2001. These efforts have been made in an effort to protect the vulnerable communities and their businesses in the region

especially the women and children, whose livelihood depends on the CBO initiatives.

The informal cross border trade has been there for along time and much more so before the colonial era. Eventually during and post colonial period those without mainstream employment could “jump” the border to go to the neighbouring countries to purchase commodities for sale in their home country upon return. The trade was despised as it was associated with unemployed and low-income earners (Nyatanga, Mpofu and Tekere 2000), especially in Zimbabwe when it started showing its face from the mid - eighties. The trade has been growing and changing its face in the region owing to the volume of wealth it commands. The political dispensation in South Africa since 1994 also introduced a new component to the cross border trade equation in the region as the country became more accessible when compared to the past.

There have been efforts to promote cross border trade by ensuring that a provision in the trade protocol is included. In Article 2 of the SADC Trade Protocol, it highlights that trade protocol shall contribute towards the improvement of the climate for domestic, cross-border and foreign investment (SADC trade protocol 1994:7). It therefore follows that despite the nature of problems creating an enabling policy framework in place, there should systematically reduce the traders experience. It further facilitates harmonization of the trade protocol with domestic trade policies.

A significant amount of trade in Southern Africa is taking place through undocumented ICBT and illegal movement of labour. Often, these processes are aided by parallel markets for foreign exchange, which serve to promote currency convertibility. Small-scale quasi-professional traders including those who use various means to move small quantities of goods across national frontiers may carry on ICBT. Personal relationships with local residents on both sides of the border allow relatively easy movement that could elude control by customs officials. The amounts carried by each individual are not large but in aggregate these flows may be quite significant (SADC HDR 2000).

Organised professionals who wish to escape the customs officials and hence not pay the duty could also carry out this type of trade on a large scale. Given the high visibility of goods being transported, large scale undocumented ICBT often requires the population of government officials and other politically powerful actors to collaborate collectively and undermine the existing government policies. Yet the types of goods exchanged through ICBT are the ones where domestic supplies have been affected by government policies in most cases argues Macamo(1999).

Trade in manufactured goods involve products originating outside Southern Africa. Locally produced agricultural products, minerals and wild animal products enter undocumented Cross Border Trade due to export restrictions or unfavourable government-fixed producer prices.

Exchange rate policies, domestic industry protection, government subsidies and tariffs are among other determinants influencing the direction of undocumented Cross Border Trade flows. These flows are likely whenever divergent government policies in neighbouring states result in significant differentials between local market prices SADC HDR (2000).

The report further argues that in economies where there is a wide spread shortage on the domestic market coupled with restrictions of importing and exporting certain goods, this tends to encourage ICBT. It was further noted in the SADC Human Development Report (2000), that countries that share a common monetary area (CMA) or customs union tend to have less ICBT activities than those that do not.

In SADC the countries that share a CMA are Lesotho, Swaziland, South Africa and Namibia. Botswana used to be a member but pulled out and opted for its own independent monetary system. The countries mentioned here are members of South African Customs Union therefore tend to have less ICBT than those who fall outside that area.

The cross border trade has been there for a long time but only became more prominent in Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia and Zimbabwe mainly after the independence struggle and accelerated during the time the countries adopted Economic Structural Adjustment Program (ESAP). People who did not follow the main border posts were termed as border jumpers, smugglers and the people accused of participating in unregulated trade by the government authorities. However, with the inclusion in the trade protocol it is acceptable to conduct cross border trade despite the past difficulties at the border centres as the traders attempted to cross, that they were arrested or harassed. Studies undertaken in this area, indicate that the process is not smooth for the Informal Cross Border Traders as pointed out by Nyatanga, Mpfu and Tekere (2000).

Regional integration has further been influenced by the historical development of labour migration in the beginning of the 19th Century. According to the World Bank report, the Cross Border Trade conducted by the Community Based Organisations at times referred to as the parallel trade has not only been efficient and welfare enhancing but is rooted in the History and traditional organisation of African societies (World Bank 1989:158) as quoted by Laverge,R (1997).

The SADC (2000) Human Development Report notes that the uneven development of colonial capitalism led to the emergence of white settler states acting as the key focus of capital accumulation (namely South Africa and present Zimbabwe). The neighbouring nations mainly Lesotho, Mozambique, Swaziland, Botswana and Malawi were relegated to labour reserves. In the 1970s foreign migrant workers in South African mines comprised 80% of the total labour compliment but has declined to almost 40% a decade later (ILO/SAMAT, 1998

2.2 EMERGING NETWORKS THAT HAVE BEEN PROMOTING INFORMAL CROSS BORDER TRADE (ICBT)

The ICBT has grown owing to the nature of networks that have supported it. Among these networks include finance, markets, production, transport, accommodation, storage/warehouses, information/communications etc.

(a) Finance

Finance is important for facilitating trade formally and informally. However, there has been shortage of finances to support either of the sectors. According to the Africa Development Bank (1993) shortage of finance is due to fiscal laxity and the absence of monetary discipline, lack of re-institutional capacity in financial system to implement the necessary control measures. Those weaknesses have accentuated the effects of adverse external shocks resulting in weak and volatile Southern African Regional financial macro imbalances including several shortages of foreign currency (ADB 1993:40).

Most of the ICBT start their businesses through individual, family savings and borrowing from friends as the banks are unlikely to lend them any funds argues Macamo (1999) in a study carried out in Mozambique among Informal Cross Border Traders. There have been incidences of ICBT using parallel markets that avail foreign exchange at a higher rate and are mainly preferred by the trading partners. There have been few banks venturing in the areas as the ICBT is still seen as high risk. However, Florence Sigundu of the Metropolitan Bank was quoted saying “the bank planned to finance the ICBT after realising the country was losing large sums of foreign currency declared illegal (Business Herald, May 10, 2001 p.1 and 15). The bank indicated there was a lot of potential and the people involved were depending on it for their livelihood and therefore would want to see it supported and grow.

(b) Markets

The ICBT have established their own networks of markets. These have arisen owing to the restrictive by-laws of local authorities that deny the traders licences to sell their products. It is argued that it would create unhealthy competition with local informal traders argues Peberdy, S (June 2000) in a recent study on ICBT in South Africa.

However, Peberdy notes that most (70%) of the traders brought goods into South Africa like crochets, doilies, baskets, clothes, leather goods, traditional dresses, crafts and curios and jewellery. These were commonly identified to be from Zimbabwe and West Africa. Mozambique exported through ICBT vegetables, cashew nuts and capulanas a type of traditional nuts into South Africa. The ICBT have had their linkages. As soon as they arrived at their destinations, they distributed their wares to other traders who either purchased them for re-export market or selling locally to retailers with stalls, shops or gallery. They developed a strong network in that when the funds were not readily available upon delivery, at times the importers would pay for accommodation to enable their suppliers to return home with foreign currency (Rands) from South Africa which had a higher purchasing value when compared to local currency. The same practice was done in Botswana with respect to mobility of people. The volume of official temporary cross border movements, mainly between South Africa and Zimbabwe has been increasing sharply ever since the introduction of Economic Structural Adjustment Program. For instance in 1992, a total of 377,415 people crossed at Beitbridge into South Africa from Zimbabwe. By the end of 1993, a total of 1 Million people had crossed according to Cheater (1998) as quoted by Muzvidziwa, V (2001) had crossed the border into South Africa from Zimbabwe.

Further research on the movement of traders indicated that in November 1999, in one day 8,589 people left Zimbabwe and 8,845 got into Zimbabwe (Tekere 2000), while on December, 19th, 1999 just one day 10,000 people crossed the border at Beitbridge into South Africa notes Tekere in same study. The frequency varied on the period of the year, month and even certain days. During festive periods, the volume of traffic would increase significantly. The statistics of those who crossed the border from other countries considered for the study were not available then.

The following relates to the movements to and from South Africa on Zimbabwe for the year 1999:

Table 1: Trends in People Movement Between Zimbabwe and South Africa 1999

MONTH (1999)	NUMBER	MONTH	NUMBER
January	134,000		
February	114,000		
March	138,700		
April	168,400		
May	144,500		
June	134,700		
July		
August	168,700		

September	Sept. 98	148,000
October	147,400	Oct. 98*
November	Nov. 98*	131,000
December	Dec. 98*	202,800

SOURCE: South Africa Immigration Office, Beitbridge, 1999 (quoted from Tekere et al 2000)

NOTES: Missing information * Where 1999 information not available 1998 figures are indicated and vice versa. The figures refer to movements in and out of Zimbabwe.

Though the number has been rising, Muzvidziwa, V (2001) noted that in certain months, the traffic was reduced significantly. For instance in Year 2000, during the months of February, March, May, June, it declined due to floods and the run-up to elections. Though he did not provide numbers, he pointed out that in July, it went up again.

(c) Transport

The ICBT transported their goods mainly by road or rail. Those from outside the region used air which was more efficient. There are a few licensed mini-buses and buses from Zimbabwe to South Africa or Botswana, Malawi and Mozambique. They demand cash upfront before travelling. There are no credit facilities even for frequent traders.

The Cross Border Traders from the Community Based Organisations are complaining of high transport costs which are passed on to their goods and services making the trade more expensive. According to African Development Bank (1993). Transport costs in Southern Africa region are high for land locked countries. Transport costs account for 30 to 40% of the total final value of products sold in South Africa Region.

The main reasons for high transport costs are :-

- ◆ Small volume of traffic with a smaller scale of operations resulting in higher fixed overhead costs per unit.
- ◆ Inefficiency in operations manifested in low productivity due to poor skills and training.
- ◆ Inefficient and wasteful border crossing procedures.
- ◆ High cost of maintenance of equipment used.
- ◆ Protocol transport limited to few countries in the region e.g. SACU.

The Africa Development Bank (1993) argues that the costs would be reduced if the policies, investment programmes and service delivery were congruent at the National and Regional levels with particular account being taken of the cross border effects of National Policies.

Transport would further be reduced if there was co-operation between different operators in different countries, use similar systems and procedures and conditions of contracting including liability (railways, airlines, telecommunication, postal services, established but companies etc). In the absence of these facilities, the traders are forced to go physically to transport and market their products.

(d) Storage Facilities/Warehousing

The ICBT hardly use the warehouses as they are either too far from their business delivery points or non-existent argues Macamo (1999) in a study done in Mozambique. Instead the ICBT result in using rudimentary structures for multiple uses. They are often not very safe hence the ICBT prefer to hire a joint security to protect their goods. While the larger number may opt to sleep next to their goods at railway stations, bus-stops or cheaper hotels especially during winter. This is an area that is lacking and requires improvement. Like Macamo (1999), another researcher in the area, Ogutu C.A (1997) noted that when goods arrived at night, traders stored them in rented stalls/shops awaiting export. In his case, he noted while at the stores, arrangements were made to smuggle the commodities across the border either during day or night. The traders hired punters who walk across the border carrying small quantities. It was difficult to police such people. He noted that there was a dire need of warehousing/storage facilities as 76% of traders interviewed used such facilities.

(e) Accommodation

The ICBT would prefer to travel at night and dispose of all their goods at day time and return the following day at night. Unfortunately, it does not always work out that way. At times they are forced to stay overnight or even two to three days while waiting for their funds or complete the sales. In the absence of cheaper hotels, most are forced to sleep outside. Some of the importers make arrangements for their suppliers when the trade is well established and they already know them well. New entrants to the field experience difficulties and again due to lack of organised system argue Mocamo (1999), the accommodation remains a problem. The building of networks to support the ICBT was further observed by Cheater and Gaidzanwa (1996) which facilitated trade. They noted that some hosts received cash with majority being paid in kind. These included food items, clothes and electronic devices. Such services ensured security of their goods and a good return. The accommodation issue around families is based on networks that were historically built as mentioned elsewhere due to migrant labour in the region.

(f) Information/Communication

The ICBT have not been able to develop effective linkages with the mainstream sector so as to benefit from the information and communication facilities.

According to Jose Luis Mocamo (1999), most traders depend on the word of mouth for information generation -and dissemination. The traders used past experiences to determine what to sell or buy especially through their informal networks.

It is argued that information links the various actors in the economy by facilitating knowledge about resources enabling producers to keep track of shifts in investment, supply and demand. By permitting consumers to minimise their choice on the basis of prices and supply. Information helps to effect distribution of goods and services and ensures transactions between actors, thus linking production and consumption, Lundu, M. (1996:7).

In Zimbabwe, Zwizwai, B.M. as quoted by Lundu, M. (1996), argues that the electronic media mainly radio and television services are a major source of information to a significant majority of viewers and listeners. The media reaches 90% of the approximately 11.5million and 70% of the rural communities in Zimbabwe. He points out the distribution of the information in the following way. Illustrated in the table below.

TABLE 2. DISTRIBUTION OF INFORMATION

1.25Million	View television
2.5Million	Listen to Radio 2
850,000	Listen to Radio 3
400,000	Listen to Radio 1
250,000-300,000	Listen to Radio 4

Source: The Political Economy of Information on Development, Democracy and Security in Africa edited by Maurice Lundu.

He further noted that socio-economic issues have limited time allocated to them yet a significant number of people would be reached. He noted that though there is print media, which produces dailies, weekly papers and popular magazines, owing to the cost factor, academic inclination and complicated for the general public, they tend to exclude issues on cross border activities. The ICBT which has been mainly undertaken by women was projected negatively in the early 1980s argues (Cheater 1998) as well as Cheater and Gaidzanwa (1996) as quoted in Muzvidziwa (2001:68) labelling them as economic saboteurs and unpatriotic. They were seen as draining the much needed foreign exchange and taking it away for the elite business people who were the real foreign currency consumption culprits (Cheater 1998) as quoted by Muzvidziwa (2001). However, the negative picture has been countered by the research findings of McDonald Gay, Zinyama, Mattes and De Vletter (1998:32) as quoted in Muzvidziwa (2001)

that they are more regularised, decriminalised and manageable than what media reports seem to portray in the neighbouring countries.

The use of telephones, e-mails and websites is still distant for most Community Based Organisations. According to UNDP, Human Development Report of 2000, Africa has 2% telephone penetration and 1% internet. Yet of that number 50% of people with access to internet are in South Africa. The report argues that if the communication facilities were improved, the level of trade is likely to improve.

2.3 PRODUCTS TRADED IN THE REGION

The products traded by the community Based organisations vary from country to country. In Mozambique for instance they export crafts, furniture, cashew nuts and other traditional nuts and dried fish to South Africa. They would in turn import from South Africa electrical equipment, textiles, utensils, motor vehicle spare parts, food items, alcoholic beverages and leather products. There were similar products exported in the region. Sometimes a country could export products in the same category eg like textiles and import a different type of textiles based on what was profitable.

The Table 3 below indicates that South Africa exports much more to Zimbabwe than what they import. Both having almost similar industries, the industrial goods tend to be more expensive in Zimbabwe due to the minimum wage policy enacted in the 1980s by the government. The Cross Border Traders from Zimbabwe indicated they could sell their products in South Africa, buy some of those commodities for resale at home and therefore make some profit. Apart from a few textile materials the Zimbabwe ICBT exported crafts which mainly found their way to tourism sector. There is potential for expanding the Zimbabwean market into South Africa.

TABLE 3: ZIMBABWE EXPORTS AND IMPORTS FROM SOUTH AFRICA

Zimbabwe Exports to South Africa		South Africa Exports to Zimbabwe (Zimbabwe Imports)	
<p><u>Textiles</u></p> <p>Linen, Java (African Attire), jersey, jackets Chair bags, clothes, Bed sheets, table Clothes, pants, bras tea, Bed spread</p> <p><u>Leather</u></p> <p>Foot ware</p> <p><u>Agriculture</u></p> <p>mazoe juices, indigenous nuts Groundnuts, Beer/alcohol</p> <p><u>Crafts</u></p> <p>Doilies, toys, Sculpture (stone & Wooden), baskets, Wooden utensils Paintings</p> <p><u>Others</u></p> <p>Music</p>		<p><u>Textiles</u></p> <p>Blankets, duvet, Curtains, clothing, Jeans, comforters, Jackets, bedroom Wares, table clothes, Pants, bras, Bedsread, towels, Carpets.</p> <p><u>Utensils</u></p> <p>Pots, spoons, Kitchen ware, Plates, glass ware Water glasses Cutlery</p> <p><u>Cosmetics/Beauty Care</u></p> <p>Cosmetics Perfumes Hair beauty Deodorants Soap Perfumes Tooth paste Feminine towels</p> <p><u>Others</u></p> <p>Ornaments, Cigarettes, Music</p>	<p><u>Leather Products</u></p> <p>shoes, handbags, sandals,</p> <p><u>Electrical Goods</u></p> <p>electric generator, motor engines, Solar panels, Radio, TVs, VCR, ironing box, Electric cables, & building electrical gargets other electrical goods, fans</p> <p><u>Industrial</u></p> <p>spare parts vehicles hard ware bicycles umbrellas furniture bolts and nuts building Materials</p>

TABLE 4: ZIMBABWE EXPORTS AND IMPORTS FROM BOTSWANA

Zimbabwe Exports to Botswana		Botswana Exports to Zimbabwe (Zimbabwe Imports)
<u>Agricultural Products</u>	<u>Crafts</u>	<u>Textile</u>
Tea leaves	stone crafts	Blankets
Vegetables	hand crafts	Linen
Sugar	doilies	Duvets
Freezits	toys	Jersey, jackets
Mopane worms	baskets	Carpets
Mealie meal, maize utensils	wooden	<u>Electrical</u>
Mazoe orange	toys	Radios,
Beans, macimbi		TV, VCR
Local nuts, ground	<u>Domestic</u>	
Nuts, poultry,		
Alcohol, (beer, wines)	Groceries	
Nyimo	Nyemba	
Sweet potatoes	brooms	
<u>Textile</u>	<u>Services</u>	
Blankets	Zimbabwe	
Clothing	music artists	
Bed covers		
Sewing stuff		
<u>Utensils</u>		
Plastic wares		
<u>Furniture</u>		
Garden furniture		

With respect to the Table 4 above, indicating Zimbabwe exports to Botswana, the study noted that Zimbabwe is exporting substantially more commodities into Botswana. These commodities are mainly agricultural in nature. The study indicates that the agricultural sector and more specifically the food security policies would need to be reviewed to ensure the country has adequate supplies and surplus stocks for the export market to bring about the much needed

revenue. Although it was not possible to estimate the volume of agricultural produce exported through ICBT, studies done by Macamo (1999) and Ogutu, C.A (1997) confirm that significant volumes are traded in that way.

2.4 THE IMPACT OF CBOs CROSS BORDER TRADE

The trade contributes to the family incomes. They have been able to rise from almost nothing to an average of US\$500 per month with a few earning twice or three times the amount. It therefore brings in the much needed foreign currency estimated at US\$40-50 million per month in Zimbabwe. This is translated to US\$600 million per year which compares to some of the traditional exports like tobacco and higher than tourism. The main limitation however, has been the linkage between the informal financial sector and the main-stream banking sector. In South Africa, the informal cross border traders contributed to the National economy US\$1 Billion by the end of 2001 according to the government (Citizen Feb, 2002). This is a sector that has a lot of potential part particularly in employment generation, generating financial resources, promoting agricultural development by identifying market outlets for the surplus production.

For the traders exporting the food products, they are contributing to increased food production and fairer distribution by purchasing it in surplus areas and exporting to Botswana. Among the food stuffs exported across the border are groundnuts, tea, maize, fruits, vegetables, beans, potatoes, worms especially to Botswana. The farmers growing such products would probably have been stuck with them but now can sell or barter them for other commodities. There is need to exercise caution by encouraging the governments in the region to ensure sanitary and phyto sanitary conditions are dealt with completely to ensure no harmful bacteria is exported when food products are exchanged. There is a major potential for developing the agricultural sector in Zimbabwe to export to the neighbouring countries like Botswana whose weather conditions do not permit agricultural production to the same magnitude.

As for families sending their children to school both locally and outside Zimbabwe, the traders in ICBT have benefited greatly from the trade. Before the children would have dropped out of school but presently they are able to complete their learning in a school system and seek self-employment within or outside the country.

With respect to the policy on Socio-Cultural Integration as indicated in the SADC treaty and protocol of 1992, which encouraged the strengthening of the cultural values, socio-economic through mobility, etc. The networks created by the traders in the region have gone a long way towards strengthening such ties.

The process has been undertaken seriously by the traders who are now forming country associations with a view to establishing a regional association to advocate on their behalf in SADC and COMESA trade areas. The issues affecting CBOs would be brought to the service and hopefully integrated within the policy framework at the country and regional levels.

3.0 CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the conclusions drawn from the facts and figures extracted in the primary data, presented and discussed in this study, the study makes the following recommendations:

In view of the declining economic conditions affecting millions of people, the Informal Cross Border Trade has emerged as an effective safety net for those seeking self-employment. It is bringing in a lot of foreign currency into the participating countries. However, most of these funds are in the parallel market but not in the main stream banking sector a part from South Africa where the Banks link up with the informal sector like ABSA and the Development Bank of South Africa. The Reserve Banks in SADC must address this by coming up with a monetary policy that stabilises the currency and curtails shortage. That is a function that could be played by supranational institutions from a sectoral perspective.

- The Informal Cross Border Trade should be liberalised so as to reduce all the tariffs and non-tariffs barriers like the customs and excise duty and bureaucratic paper work through introduction of tax incentives that would be so attractive to the extent that cost of evasion would be higher, than paying the reduced tax.
- The movement of Informal Cross Border Traders remains a major issue of concern. There should be decentralization of visa issuing cities and SADC secretariat working towards introduction of SADC Passport to facilitate movement of people.
- The local authorities should collaborate more effectively in SADC. They should establish similar bye-laws to facilitate trade and also establish business districts to promote business development in the region.
- The SADC governments should allocate resources for capacity strengthening of CBOs involved in the Cross Border Trade owing to the nature of business in which they are engaged. It would improve the level of efficiency and effectiveness and result in accelerated degree of investment.
- The agricultural policies should be strengthened to ensure sustained food security and the surplus exported to earn the much needed foreign currency through reduced tariffs and removal of non-tariff barriers. The Community Based Organisations should be encouraged to add value of their products from perishable to those with long shelf life.

- The governments in the region should encourage policies that promote processing/manufacturing for export market by providing attractive incentives. They should also encourage building bonded warehouses in countries where SADC products are in great demand to save time, facilitate the Cross Border Trade and maximize on profits.
- Information is very valuable for facilitating trade. Towards this end, the governments in the region should promote the establishment of information centres for people involved in Cross Border Trade so as to access information on what is available, demanded, pricing system, markets, where to access finance etc. The policies must be reviewed within the framework of the multilateral trading institution (World Trade Organisation) and Southern Africa Development Community trade policies.

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Dr Hespina Rukato, Department of Environmental Affairs (DEAT)
presentation on '*African Perspective on World Summit for Sustainable Development (WSSD)* '

PRESENTATION FORMAT

Highlights of WSSD processes
Why focus on Africa?
Africa content process
Africa workshop
African objectives for PrepCom IV
Text: Contentious and unresolved issues
Political declaration
Partnerships and UN agencies
Multi-stakeholder dialogues
Assessment and further work
SWOT ANALYSIS (if there is time)
Questions to guide further work (if there is time)

Highlights of WSSD processes

UN regional PrepComs 2001

- Africa Ministerial in Nairobi, October 2001
- G77 Workshop co-hosted by SA and Indonesia, NY, January 2002-08-0
- G77 position on major issues related to Agenda 21 and Rio Principles
- Negotiation strategy-focusing on coherence of group and its position in all WSSD processes
- Start of build-up of G77 on the 'big issues' for Summit, and what not to waste time on
- Informal 2 day brainstorming session on WSSD in NY
- Secretary General's Report-released prior to PrepCom II

Highlights of WSSD processes

SG's report highlights limitations on implementation of Agenda 21

- Concludes that Africa's marginalisation in the global economy is accelerating
- Concludes that there is a need to devise ways of ensuring Africa benefits from globalisation
- Highlights the 'poverty' situation in Africa

PrepCom II

- Consensus that implementation of Agenda 21 has unsatisfactory due to lack of resources, poor institutional coordination, focus on environmental pillar at the expense of economic and social pillar etc (see SG's Report)
- Consensus that poverty eradication should be focus of WSSD
- Consensus that WSSD mandate, as stipulated in GA resolution, should focus on implementation, with clear sources of resources, institutional mechanisms, monitoring mechanisms, targets and timeframes
- Consensus that WSSD would not renegotiate Agenda 21 and its Principles, but strengthen its implementation
- Acknowledgement of need for partnerships (amongst stakeholders and governments) to enhance implementation of Agenda 21
- End of PrepCom II in March, Chair Emil Salim released Chairman's text
- Text based on inputs from regional PrepComs, SG's Report, Major Groups during PrepCom II, Delegations
- Text had 9 Chapters, one of which was ' Sustainable Initiatives for Africa'

Why Focus on Africa?

The Millennium Declaration

- Had highlighted Africa as a poverty stricken continent- Millennium;
- Development Goals became NB as a linkage to WSSD due to focus and targets on poverty eradication.

SG's report highlights the plight of Africa

Therefore logical to have a focus/chapter on Africa in the WSSD

Africa Content process

PrepCom III

- Africa mandated by Chair, through Chair of G77, to strengthen Africa Chapter to reflect the aspirations of Africans;
- Africa group form a drafting team to strengthen chapter
- NEPAD underpins Africa approach-though not all countries were supportive of approach;
- Strategy to use MDG (already supported by HoS) & NEPAD sectoral targets;
- Focus of discussions within Africa Group;
- By end of PrepCom III-had 7 pages-comprehensive
 - Accepted within the G77
 - Negotiating blocks such as EU start raising issues

Africa Workshop

During PrepCom III, Africa Group agree to workshop Africa issues, based on Chair's text

- Chair releases PrepCom III text, with comprehensively modified Africa chapter
- Approach was to highlight only issues that pertained to Africa, common issues such as energy were taken to various sections of text
- Need identified for Africa to strategise and sharpen
- 19 May 2002 Workshop at Gallagher Estate
- Decision to highlight NEPAD as one of the many possible African Initiatives
- Strategy to bring back strategic issues such as trade and finance into Africa Chapter
- First time that Africa comes together to prepare and strategise
- Output, was the basis of discussions for Africa Chapter at PrepCom IV
- It was a good product, demonstrating that with resources and will, Africans can impact positively on international processes
- MOST IMPORTANTLY, OTHER REGIONS EMULATED AFRICA DEMONSTRATED BY proposals to include a section on 'other regions in text': competition VS good example: Africa can only be supportive

AFRICAN OBJECTIVES FOR PREPCOM IV

- Achieve action-orientated programme
- Achieve consensus on Africa chapter
- Assert economic platform
- Seek substantive commitments
- Build links between type 1 and 2 outcomes
- Keep balance in text between three pillars of sustainable development
- Push specific sectoral mandates

ORGANISATION OF PREPCOM

- Negotiation of position through G77
- Working groups on Chair's text
 - WG1 dealt with Chapters 1-4
 - WG2 dealt with Chapters 5-9
 - WG3 dealt with governance
- Multi-stakeholder dialogue
- Dialogue on partnerships
- High Level (Ministerial) Segment
- Side events and caucuses

TEXT: CONTENTIOUS ISSUES

Economic platform:

- G77 & China: inclusion of cbdr, implementation of Doha & Monterrey, additional resources for implementation, access to markets, trade-related technical assistance;
- Developed countries: inclusion of precautionary principle, attempt to dilute gains of Doha & Monterrey, emphasising domestic governance and domestic mobilisation of resources, downplaying ODA
- **Energy:** G77 (some elements) & JUSCANZ diluting energy targets, and renewables
- **Water/sanitation:** contention around sanitation target, resources for implementation
- **Agriculture & Food Security:** contention around 'right to food' and subsidies
- **Consumption & production:** contention around application of eco-labelling/life-cycle approach
- **Biodiversity:** convention around actions to combat biodiversity loss
- **Marine:** contention around equitable allocation of fishing rights to developing countries

TEXT: UNRESOLVED ISSUES

Further negotiations required on:

- Inclusion of additional targets and timeframes
- Links between type 1 and type 2
- Key principles (cbdr; precautionary)
- Finance and trade (particularly relationships between WSSD, Doha and Monterrey)
- Governance
- Sectoral issues (climate change, renewable energy, living marine resources)

POLITICAL DECLARATION

- Bali only expected to deliver core elements
- Initial attempt to introduce draft declaration independently of agreement on text
- Elements discussed in Ministerial Segment
- Broad agreement that declaration should:
 - Be concise, inspirational
 - Reiterate commitment to implementation of Agenda 21 and Rio principles

- Emphasise multi-lateral co-operation in poverty eradication
- Endorse implementation plan

PARTNERSHIPS

- Type 1: mandated by intergovernmental agreement
- Type 2: voluntary, but within framework of draft implementation plan
- G77: strong links between T1 & T2; structured co-ordination and monitoring
- JUSCANZ: laissez faire approach to type 2 partnerships, no structured co-ordination, no monitoring, no links with type 1
- Stakeholders supportive of G77 position

AGENCIES

- General low profile and lack of technical inputs
- Some agencies disgruntled when CSD introduced draft programme of action for energy
- Low profile in dialogue on 'type 2' initiatives
- Profile in side events only
- Implications for UN reform

MULTI-STAKEHOLDER DIALOGUE

- Constraints: various parallel processes
- Concern about limited government engagement in dialogue
- Concerns raised about weak text, dilution of targets, no commitments
- Concern about physical separation of government and stakeholder venues
- **NO PROACTIVE PROPOSALS PUT FORWARD**

ASSESSMENT

Secured global agreement on framework for Summit including:

- Focus on 3 pillars of sustainable development
- Action-oriented text
- Targets based on MDGs
- Agreement on the need for concrete implementation frameworks in key sectors
- Broad agreement on approach to political declaration

FURTHER WORK NEEDED

- Key elements of summit agreement

- Bracketed text in the draft plan of implementation
- 75% of text agreed, 25% not
- If weighted, the 25% is the most critical for Africa, (governance issues, trade and finance, means of implementation)
- Draft political declaration
- Implementation frameworks to give effect to targets in key sectors

WAY FORWARD

- Leadership roles?
- Process to broker agreement on text on trade, finance, means of implementation
- Process on implementation plans in priority sectors (lead countries and agencies)
- Process on political declaration
- Strengthen engagement with stakeholders
- (See UN documents, plus swot analysis)

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX 1: GROUP REACTION TO PRESENTATIONS

GROUP I: WSSD

Critical Issue	Possible Solution
World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Need development programmes ii. Information sharing outreach programme iii. Issue of participation in WSSD Process iv. Networking linkages between different stakeholders v. Decentralisation of structure and power vi. Political will to implement conventions or agreements vii. Markets/trades viii. Natural resources/sustainable use, or to sustain people's livelihoods ix. CBOs to identify niche in WSSD process in order to add value x. To lobby/advocate for recognition by politicians xi. Poverty reduction strategies
Land utilisation -Under utilisation	Penalties Knowledge Support i.e. technology and skills
Resources/Inputs -capital -access to financial institutions	Lobby/negotiate/legislate
- Corruption - Nepotism	Deepen/ democracy rights - K Challenge
Disabling Frameworks e.g. legislation	It is not cast in stone - reform it - appropriate and relevant

GROUP 2: LAND REFORM

Critical Issues	Possible Solution
Current Tenure System <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - insecure - inequality - inadequate access - exploitation of people - lack of infrastructure services - resource degradation 	Tenure reform <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - participation of CBOs builds on existing knowledge and practice - Broad participation e.g. academics, financial institutions, technocrats

Group 3 - Regional Integration

Critical Issues	Possible Solution
Capacity of CBOs- e.g. in Business Management and accounting skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Formalise Cross Border trade (give traders licence and decriminalise CBT) - Information dissemination - e.g. rights of traders, community centres and pamphlets) - Need to institute CBNRM - Use CBT to trade in indigenous products - Run exhibitions - Capacity building for CBOs and community traders - Encourage trade through networks as opposed to individuals - Assist CBOs to source resources to construct accommodation facilities - Institute quality control measures for goods - Lobby for SADC passports to facilitate easier movement of travellers - Encourage and lobby government to create a conducive environment for traders in terms of policy, laws and facilities.

Group 4: New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD)

Critical Issues	Possible Solution
<p>New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Document not widely known- Document to be developed in local languages- NEPAD still largely at Government level-	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Develop tools for measuring process of NEPAD- Representation of CBOs at NEPAD events- Involve CBOs in NEAPD processes- Mobilise resources to ensure ownership of NEAPD by Africans- Develop clauses within NEPAD to ensure consultation with communities

APPENDIX 1: COMMUNITY BASED ORGANISATIONS PERSPECTIVES AFRICAN UNION AND NEW PARTNERSHIPS FOR AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT

The Community Organizations Regional Network (CORN) represents community-based organizations in Southern Africa. The core membership consists of CBO representatives from South Africa, Angola, Botswana, Mozambique and Zimbabwe. CORN promotes leadership development, and management capacities and policy advocacy for national CBO associations.

CORN representatives met from the 4th - 6th July 2002 at the University of Natal, Durban Campus- South Africa, to consolidate the network's strategy and programmes and redefine development perspectives.

The theme of the first CORN regional multi-stakeholder workshop was "Fighting Poverty Through The Promotion of Sustainable Rural Livelihoods".

The workshop discussed, among other issues, sustainable development, regional integration and African Union as these affect grassroots communities in Africa.

The CBO network has various concerns, which they would like to bring to the attention of our leaders as they launch the African Union (AU).

The meeting emphasized that CBOs play a crucial role in development initiatives at the local level. This, role however, has been constrained by the lack of adequate recognition of CBOs by our national governments and other development agencies. For Africa to achieve sustainable development, it is critical that the participation of CBOs is recognized and enhanced by our national governments.

The meeting deliberated on the WSSD and Agenda 21 process. We, as CBOs under the auspices of CORN lamented the lack of information, consultation and total exclusion in this important process.

Recognizing that communities depend on land and natural resources for their livelihoods, the existing inequalities in land resources have worsened poverty in Africa. CBOs have been marginalized in the search for solutions to this problem.

Recognizing the increasing volume of trade undertaken by Cross Border Traders (CBT), CORN deliberated on key issues affecting Regional Trade and Integration. We lamented the continuous harassment of CBTs and their ill treatment by Customs and Immigration officials, and law enforcement agents, (particularly

the denial of visas or appropriate travel documents, and the confiscation of goods).

CBOs welcome the birth of the African Union. We recognize the continental economic policy framework dubbed NEPAD initiative, but lament that it has persistently excluded the participation of CBOs.

CBOs, therefore, call for specific actions through the newly formed AU to draw up specific strategies that recognize the role of CBOs.

In this respect, the CBOs call for a partnership with government in the following areas:

- Institutional capacity strengthening programmes for CBOs through WSSD, NEPAD and other development processes.
- Clear resource mobilization initiatives targeted at CBOs.
- Institutional mechanisms that recognize the critical role of partnership with CBOs.

Acknowledging that the World Summit on Sustainable Development, which aims at addressing issues of Sustainable Livelihoods, will be held in Africa, we as CORN call upon our leaders to facilitate greater participation of CBOs in the forthcoming meeting and the follow-up initiatives.

Realizing the centrality of land, we as CBOs call for our full participation in the land reform processes in our respective countries.

With respect to Trade and Regional Integration, we urgently call upon government to facilitate dialogue and establish institutional mechanisms that would create a trade-enabling environment for CBOs.

We call for ordinary peoples to be engaged in development at all levels.

Appendix 2: PRESS STATEMENT 2ND JULY 2002

IMMEDIATE RELEASE

SOUTHERN AFRICA'S COMMUNITIES SAY "DON'T LEAVE US OUT OF NEPAD AND AFRICA UNITY DIALOGUES"

"Community Based Organisations need the support of their governments. Their role should be catered for in the AU formation, NEPAD and WSSD. Without governments seriously engaging their citizens, the chance to transform unsustainable development policies will be lost during NEPAD and WSSD and the African voice will degenerate into theatrics of competitive politics". So says a new organisation - CORN - Community Organisations Regional Network, which will be officially launched this weekend (Saturday 6th July, 10.00 am at the ABSA Stadium in Durban) with over 250 southern African community based organisations present.

The timing of this unique confluence of CBOs in Durban is critical. The meeting will strategically position CBOs to engage critically with the formation of the African Union (AU) and to develop CBO perspectives on the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD), and the World Summit for Sustainable Development (WSSD).

Decades of development assistance have not achieved much of a sustainable nature. Initiatives designed to benefit communities do not reach their target. The continued marginalisation of Africa due to globalisation process and the social exclusion of the vast majority of its peoples constitute a serious threat to global stability. CORN is determined to force change in existing paradigms of development, characterised by "top-down" approaches, which relegate communities to the periphery.

Our statement simply is " we have now arrived at the centre stage of decision making at both the economic and political level. We are here to stay!", say participants from throughout southern Africa. CORN represents the will of the majority to be heard and to participate.

The CORN initiative emerged from the KwaZulu Natal CBO network also called ISO Lenthuthuko - Vision for Development" which was formed in 1992. To date there are now over 2300 CBOs spread throughout KwaZulu Natal. The idea also spread like wildfire in the region and representatives from other SADC Countries formed CORN in 1997. Their vision is for Africa to extricate itself from

the quagmire of poverty and to vest development in communities that are in the front line of underdevelopment.

The CORN initiative promotes the participation of rural and urban grassroots communities in decision-making. By recognising and pursuing critical participation in NEPAD and WSSD, CBOs hope to contribute towards overcoming the shortcomings of Africa.

Hitherto, CBO participation and influence on policy formation has been weak however, the fast growth of CBOs reflects the increasing demand being made upon them to deliver development services. CORN has mobilised to support such development through both national and regional level structures. The current priorities are to address:

- Nutrition and food security.
- HIV/AIDS/STD and TB programme communicable diseases primary Health care.
- Land Reform.
- Cross Border Trade.
- Capacity Building.

The acronym CORN is not accidental. CORN as a grain crop is unique because of its origin, adaptability, high productivity and versatility. CORN is the nexus for the exchange and sharing of information on community based development in the region.

ENDS

Appendix 2: CITATIONS

On the Occasion of Receipt of Awards from Durban, Metro on July 05/07/02 in Recognition Of Outstanding Work Towards The Creation of CORN.

Dr N C Dlamini-Zuma
(Minister of Foreign Affairs – South Africa)

“The most pathetic person in the world is someone who has sight but no vision”
Helen Keller – (Deaf and blind renowned motivational speaker)

For this our honoured guest, we are here to testify that she has vision, commitment and trust, in not only the marginalized communities of South Africa, but of the continent.

Indeed this vision has been etched deep within her because of her life story. She is a testimony, a symbol of why we are gathered here tonight. From humble beginnings, disadvantaged economic background, her ability, versatility, adaptability has enabled her to become the lady we honour tonight.

More than 10 years ago before the empowerment of the marginalized became a politically correct buzz word, she knew that the solutions of Africa’s poverty, the proverbial albatross on Africa’s neck lay with Africa’s marginalised. The people were central to alleviating their poverty, serious partnerships had to be formed that engaged them.

Hers was the crucial leadership that saw the beginning of change in development strategies. She convinced and demonstrated to her government, governance and institutions in the region to commit resources to the disadvantaged. The essential development paradigm shift could only be realised when the hitherto disadvantaged were permitted to shape their destinies. She ignited imaginations; she nurtured a will of the underprivileged to be heard. The alleviation of poverty can only be achieved by those that suffer its consequences without this leadership without this partnership other interventions will remain inconsequential.

Her simple truth is “POWER RESTS WITH THE PEOPLE”.

Professor Sam Moyo
(Professor of Development Studies, and Chair of several regional and Pan African Development Agencies)

To describe Professor Sam Moyo can only be done in glowing expletives.

It is not an exaggeration to say this man has a great mind and he is simply brilliant. Years ago Sam Moyo initiated debates that only today have become current such as the land issue. These debates sought to give a voice to the marginalised. Including CORN, he has been the core catalyst in the formation of institutions in Africa that spoke on sustainable development. The hypothesis he constantly tested was how could development be attained without the inclusion of the marginalised when policy is being defined, when resources are allocated?

He has foresight, vision, determination and he has courage.

Professor Sam Moyo understood, conceptualised and articulated that the roots of Africa's poverty lay in the exclusion of the vast majority from the ownership of its resources. The attainment of political independence was only the beginning. Africa must systematically strategise to wrest itself from poverty. Africa has to engage in debate. African countries had an intrinsic symbiotic relationship, but the tragedy was that Africa stood as a disaggregated whole broiling in conflictual theatrics.

We watched him from the sidelines, but too timid to join him. We were not ready, the stakes were too high.

Today Sam, we honour you, we acknowledge that you were right, you catalysed our own development, you empowered us.

Unless our roots, our communities are acknowledged, enfranchised then Africa's voice remains hollow.

Most men die from the neck up when they stop dreaming. Today, Sam, we are privileged to share your dream.

Laila Nicolaisen -NPA

Is an exceptional lady not only from our African context, but also from the donor community.

She believed in Africa's right to self-determination before we ourselves did, she wrestled to change pre-conceived ideas on Africa's underdevelopment held by many donor agencies. She is a woman of consequence.

Tirelessly she imparted her skills and knowledge to ensure that resources were channelled to those best placed to define their use. Her involvement did not end there, she was actually physically present when community leadership exploded and expanded from Kwa-Zulu Natal to all parts of the province and the region. She had faith.

Her leadership led others in her wake to understand that participation of those marginalised communities was the answer the missing link to Africa's underdevelopment. They are not the problem but the solution. She went the extra mile for Africa- We salute her!

KELLOGG FOUNDATION

Simply we thank you.

You trusted in our determination to help ourselves. You enabled us to grow to our current structure and frame.

You were not prescriptive with your aid; there was no conditionality in your terms. You imparted this philosophy this development principle to your staff.

It became a ripple effect. You impacted on other donors. You taught: "Fund communities, then government will take them seriously", that was the clear statement.

Today we honour you.

UNIVERSITY OF NATAL

We have arrived here earlier than we would have made it because you gave us a home. We grew, we developed, and you nurtured us.

Through the Vice Chancellor and staff the support to CIDC for over a decade has contributed to the fruition of our vision.

Your support has not only provided resources but also a firm, strong and unwavering leadership. Tonight we acknowledge you.

APPENDIX 4: COMMUNITY-BASED ORGANISATIONS PERSPECTIVES ON THE AFRICAN UNION AND NEW PARTNERSHIPS FOR DEVELOPMENT

1.0 Background

The Community Organisations Regional Network (CORN) is a grouping of community-based organisations operating throughout the Southern Africa region. The core group consists of CBO representatives from South Africa, Angola, Botswana, Mozambique and Zimbabwe. CORN aims to provide leadership, guidance and direction to the communities already organised into national CBO associations. CORN seeks to interface between activities on the ground and policy at government level, which ultimately have an effect on development activities.

From the 4th - 6th July 2002, CORN held a series of meetings at the University of Natal, Durban Campus, aimed at consolidating the network's strategy and programmes on how to tackle development issues. The theme of the first meeting held as a regional multi-stakeholder workshop was "Fighting Poverty Through The Promotion of Sustainable Rural Livelihoods". The workshop generated a healthy debate on issues relevant to the whole sustainable development as it affects all grassroots communities in the African region. Below are some of the critical concerns that the CBO Network would like to bring to the attention of our leaders as they launch the African Union - whose vision they support.

2.0 Role of CBOs/NGOs in General

- Information dissemination
- Development of legislative framework
- Ensuring community participation
- Advocacy and lobbying role
- Capacity strengthening
- Awareness raising
- Networking and liasing
- Researching the informal systems that exists
- Resource mobilisation
- Monitoring and evaluation of the impact of development initiatives in the local communities
- Formulating strategies for early intervention strategies for the prevention of conflicts
- Ensuring effective implementation of government policies and legislation

2.1 CBOs and WSSD

CBOs take note of the lack of progress in the implementation of Agenda 21, 10 years after the Rio Summit, but are encouraged that the WSSD taking place in Africa.

CBOs view sustainable development as an integrated process. This process focuses on ensuring that various targets of development are addressed at both National and global levels. This process places the national governments on the stage of providing information, support and developmental tools to CBOs so as to enhance the objectives of the RIO+10/WSSD.

As the WSSD is an on-going developmental process, it is incumbent upon CBOs to take the resolutions and declarations of the summit and place them for review. CBOs are critical in the implementation phase of the WSSD process focussing in various stages such as: health, (HIV/AIDS/Malaria/etc); conservation of natural resources, globalisation challenges and the African Development challenges placed on NEPAD.

2.2 Land Issues and Sustainable Development

- Inefficient utilisation of Land across the main land tenure categories (state, freehold, communal/customary) for varied reasons
- Inability of the market to redistribute land to the poor and poor capacities of communities to engage in market-driven land reforms
- Undemocratic land reform institutions that are vulnerable to high levels of corruption
- Inconclusive debate on what constitutes secure land tenure rights in the African context
- There is different approach between countries related to land reform, although some experiences show that Mozambique and Botswana have achieved a good manner on community consultations.

2.3 Regional Integration and Cross-Border Trade Institutional Set-up

- Inadequate institutional and legal framework to support cross border trade
- Lack of capacity amongst communities
- Lack of information on market opportunities within and outside the region

2.4 African Union (AU) and New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD)

CBOs welcome the birth of the AU and Launch of NEPAD. The CBOs however, have the following concerns:

- The lack of adequate consultation in the initiation and design of NEPAD. CBOs, therefore request the Heads of States to establish national processes that will enable full participation of CBOs in the further development of NEPAD and its implementation.

3.0 Recommendations

Role of NGOs

- Government should recognise the community initiatives, improve and strengthen community capacity through creating a conducive environment for CBOs/NGOs to operate
- Sustainable Development and WSSD
- With the need to critically review the implementation mechanism for sustainable development in mind, CBOs request governments to assist:
 - By establishing financing mechanism targeting CBOs at all levels;
 - Establishment of institutional mechanisms that will facilitate the full representation and participation of CBOs in the WSSD implementation process; and
- Both WSSD and NEPAD are important in the development of Africa's people and participation in globalisation. It is therefore important that governments provide information on developments of both processes to its communities, at all levels of the social-strata. CBOs are best placed to implement at grass-root levels, supported by various government structures and businesses.

Land Issues

- Governments should facilitate development of specific tools (carrot and stick) to reduce under utilisation of land in the various land tenure categories;
- Building capacities of CBOs and local communities to negotiate in land reform process
- Developing democratic and autonomous local level institutions involved in land acquisition, allocation and land management
- CORN must promote exchange visits in order to reinforce CBOs intervention where the land reform is still to take place (e.g. in Angola).

Regional Integration

Governments to provide a conducive environment for cross-border trade, communities through:

- Capacity Building
- Establish network patterns (including database and websites).
- The Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) should strengthen its integration process under Article I on Most Favoured Nations (MFN) and Regional Integration Article xxiv of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) to

increase the volume of trade generated by CBOs and other rural communities in the region to create wealth, open up economic opportunities and eradicate poverty.

The CBOs and people's associations are keen to strengthen partnerships in the region in line with Article 23 of the SADC protocol and Treaty of 1992. Towards this end, we urge the SADC member to provide SADC passports to facilitate movement within the region.

The Economic Development Policy in Africa as outlined in NEPAD must be driven by people's visions and values, adopt a participatory and inclusive approach to enhance its ownership. We urge the AU to strengthen the capacity of CBOs to engage effectively in this process by promoting leadership and governance institutions at all levels.

The AU should promote and protect the use of indigenous knowledge systems in the continental agrarian practices within the framework of the Convention of Biological Diversity of Agenda 21 endorsed by the OAU and within the "Trade Related Intellectual Property Rights" (TRIPS) to ensure indigenous resources are used for Africa's development.

NEPAD and The African Union

- The establishment of an institutional mechanism that will facilitate periodic inputs by CBOs into the development and implementation of NEPAD
- Commit substantive resources mobilised through NEPAD for CBO community based development work.
- Establish local, national sub-regional and continental public monitoring systems for NEPAD implementation.

WORKSHOP PROGRAMME

**REGIONAL WORKSHOP “FIGHTING POVERTY THROUGH
SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT”
UNIVERSITY OF NATAL, DURBAN, SOUTH AFRICA
4- 6 JULY 2002**

Workshop Format

To achieve the above-mentioned objectives, the workshop will be structured in four sections:

General Sessions

I. Opening Sessions

Plenary

National Challenges

National Development Issues

NGO Challenges

CBO Challenges/Funding

Regional Challenges

Regional Trade and Integration

Food Security

African Challenges/International Challenges

African Union

NEPAD

WSSD/International Challenges

Working Groups

Concluding Remarks

REGIONAL WORKSHOP "FIGHTING POVERTY THROUGH
SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT"
UNIVERSITY OF NATAL, DURBAN, SOUTH AFRICA
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PROGRAMME

Thursday, July 4 CBO DEVELOPMENT DIALOGUE

9.00-9.15 **Opening Remarks,**
Bonventura Buene
Mozambique

9.15-11.00 **PANEL 1: LOCAL DEVELOPMENT PERSPECTIVES**

- **Sustainable Development and CBOs**

Ms Patti Joshua,
CBO, South Africa

- **Social Security in the SADC Region: The Need for an
Enhanced Role Played by CBOs**

Professor Marius Olivier

**Centre for International and Comparative Labour and Social
Security Law (CICLASS), RAU, South Africa**

- **Discussants**
 - **Sam Moyo: land resources**
 - **John Mwaniki: Trade issues**

DISCUSSION

11.00-11.30 TEA BREAK

11.30-12.30 **PANEL 3: GLOBAL SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT**

African Perspectives of WSSD

Dr Hespina Rukato

**Director WSSD Policy Unit, Department of Environmental
Affairs and Tourism- South Africa**

Discussion

12.30-13.45 **LUNCH**

13.45-14.45	Nepad and the African Union, Honourable Minister N.C. Dlamini- Zuma Minister of Foreign Affairs - Rep. of South Africa
	Discussion
14.45 – 17.00	COMMISSIONS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sustainable Development and WSSD • CBO Perspectives of Land Reform & Local Development • Regional Integration Strategies for CBOs • CBO Perspective on NEPAD
17.00-17.30	TEA
17.30-18.30	PLENARY – POSITION STATEMENTS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • African Position on WSSD – CBO Perspective • CBO Perspective on NEPAD
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Friday, July 5	CORN ORGANISATIONAL BUSINESS
9.00-10.30	Opening and recap of CBO Position Resolutions on WSSD & NEPAD
	Corn Overview & Discussion
10.30-11.00	TEA
11.00-13.00	CORN Programme & Structure -Overview Presentation -Country Progress Reports -Discussion
13.00-14.30	LUNCH
14.30-16.00	COUNTRY COMMISSIONS
16.00-16.30	TEA
16.30-17.30	REGIONAL STEERING COMMITTEE ELECTIONS
17.30-18.30	ADOPTION OF RESOLUTION ON WSSD AND NEPAD

18.30-18.45 CLOSING REMARKS

19.00-20.30 COCKTAIL (Venue: Students Union, UND)

Saturday, July 6 Launch of CORN at ABSA Stadium, Durban

8.00-9.00 Arrival and Cultural Activities, Exhibition

9.00-9.30 Opening Comments

9.30-10.30 Cultural Presentations/Entertainment

- **His Worship The Mayor, Councillor Obed Mlaba Welcomes Delegates**
- **Chair of CORN Steering Committee**
- **His Majesty, King Zwelithini of Kwa Zulu Natal**
- **His Excellency, Thabo Mbeki, President of The Republic of South Africa**

13.00-14.30 LUNCH

14.30-16.00 OPEN
(Entertainment, exhibition, exchange & inte