Some Demographic Aspects of Women's Access to Land for Farming in South Africa: A comparison from 2004 to 2007.

By

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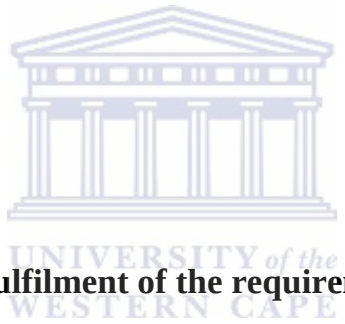

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DECLARATION

I declare that the work on ***Some Demographic Aspects of Women's Access to Land for Farming in South Africa: A comparison from 2004 to 2007*** is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Philomene NYIRASAFARI ***November 2009***

Signed……

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Abstract

The issue of women's access to land is a developmental issue. From a fundamental research view point, this study aims to explore the circumstances in which women access land in South Africa. The study examines the inequalities that may arise in the context of land access, land acquisition; land use, activities taking place on land and closely related issues focusing specifically on women in general, and women headed households in particular. The study is based on demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, occupational groups, education, province of residence and ethnic groups. Bringing together the demographic variables and land related variables, the study captures the structural changes between 2004 and 2007. Using 2004 and 2007 GHS secondary data requested from Statistics South Africa, cross tabulation and bivariate statistical analysis by means of SPSS software was performed. The results obtained indicate that the inequality against women's access to land still persists. Some women have access to land for agricultural purpose but few own it. The findings suggest that a number of factors including age, place of residence, marital status, ethnic group, literacy, educational level, of women are associated with the ability of women to access and acquire land. The sustainable livelihood framework is a theory that guided this study. Diversification is commonly used to prevent time of risks and shocks. In general, the study shows that the proportion of women who had access to land was 16% in 2004. This figure dropped to 14% in 2007.

Keywords

Land tenure, Land use, Land access, South Africa, Rural women, General Household Survey, Marital status, Demographic characteristics, Households, Sustainable livelihood

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the study

Land is a central issue in the transformation that South Africa is going through. Land is regarded as an important asset for household subsistence as enormous number of female heading households rely heavily on land for food production and consumption. National statistics show that, referring to the most recent population census held in 1996, females constitute the majority of the population in South Africa, It was estimated in 1999 that 51.6% of the population is female and that 52.5% of the rural population is female (Mokgope, 2000). Although women make up the majority of the population in rural areas, they have access to only a small proportion of the land (Meer, 1997). This is obviously contrasts with their well documented involvement in food production at household level.

Besides the responsibility of providing for the families falls on women's shoulders, the restrictions of them in terms of land access and other scarce resources means they have too few resources to do so. It is often held assumption that only men in Africa hold land rights in their own rights whereas women do not. Giving credit to this allegation, male bias might visibly operate against the significant rise in the number of households in South Africa headed by female. Some discourses have documented how discrimination results in women's subordination to men in land acquisition (Tati, 2004). The same discourse has underscored the mechanisms of social exclusion embedded in the existing traditional institutions in addressing women needs in regard to land for small-scale farming. Women's access to land is predominantly narrated in terms of difficult access to customary land tenure. From gender perspective,

differentials in socio-demographic characteristics of women who access land for small-scale farming have received little attention in the discourse. At the household level, land is not well elaborated as far as small holdings are concerned. The focus is mainly upon big farming estates. Statistically, little attention has been given to the profile of women who are accessing land in South Africa. In other words; in the context of South Africa, many researchers do not clearly indicate manner in which the factors of age, gender, education, place of residence, ethnic group, and occupational statuses predispose women to land access and land acquisition in comparison with others. For example, educated female heads of household may cope fairly well when negotiating with traditional leaders in terms of land allocation for farming. This study takes stock on General Household Survey data provided in 2004 and 2007 to assess the extent to which women in general and women heading household in particular resort to various methods of land acquisition in South Africa.

Throughout history, land has been recognized as a primary source of wealth, social status, and power. It is the basis for shelter, food, and economic activities; and hence, the most significant provider of employment opportunities in rural areas and is but an increasingly scarce resource in urban areas (Cox & Magel, 2002). The reliance upon access to land dates back to the pre-historic time when people were hunters who survived on animals for food. These animals needed a lot of land space for their survival. Hence, as the population increased, people begin to cultivate land to support or augment the means of livelihood of their families. Over the years, different systems have been developed to supply the population with land. These systems and policies of land allocation have evolved over time and differ from country to country. However, the basic objective still remains the same i.e. satisfying a growing

population with enough space for food production and shelter (Erickson`, 1999). For most rural women in particular, land is predominantly a means of survival and subsistence, and a productive resource against during times of poverty and high unemployment (Meer, 1997). However, in most societies women have unequal access to land and associated natural resources (Meer, 1997). Women's access to land is a very critical issue as land is the most fundamental resource in any society as it plays a crucial role in women's livelihood. Africa, particularly South Africa portrays the challenges women face with respect to land access. Given that land is a vital resource for rural livelihoods, access to land by women should be a key concern in today's world. Like men, there are many women who are active farmers and their means of survival is dependent on agriculture but these women are made to rely on the existence and goodwill of their male relatives for access to land (Allendorf, 2007).

In recent years, the gender gap in land access has received enormous attention from development practitioners and women activists. International women conferences held in Mexico City, United States of America; Nairobi, Kenya and Beijing, China around 1975-1995 were measures aimed at achieving political, social and economic equality between men and women (Michel, 2008). More so, important gender issues which were vital to the well-being of millions of women and girls around the world received attention after these conferences (Woldetensaye, 2007& Michel, 2008).

Furthermore, the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations, the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, and the United Nations Human Rights Commission have all called for equal treatment for women and men in access to land and agrarian reforms (Michel, 2008). More so, multilateral

and bilateral development agencies, such as the World Bank (World Bank, 2001), the Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID, 2000), and the British Department for International Development (DFID), have also noted the importance of women's rights particularly in regards to land access.

Despite all the efforts made to fight against this inequality, women have remained disadvantaged in many ways. Gender equality has not been achieved and women do not enjoy equal rights with men in accessing land and even controlling other productive resources (Woldetensaye, 2007). Access and control over resources and other benefits are still being determined by socio-cultural norms which have significant impacts on gender relations. Social relations of production and consumption (access to and control over means and benefits of production) show constraints on women in many communities (Davison, 1988). These inequalities to opportunities in accessing land and exerting control over resources have made women more vulnerable to poverty than men in many parts of the world. The effect of the past South African racial land laws and policies were gender-related, particularly among majority of the population living in the rural areas (Mokgope, 2000). Hence, the system of land tenure in rural South Africa revealed disadvantages over women of the same race and class than their male counterparts with regards to land access and control.

1.2. Geographical context of the study area

This study on women's access to land was carried out in South Africa and it was limited to nine provinces. South Africa is situated at the southern tip of Africa forming part of the Southern African region and is bordered by Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and Swaziland. Lesotho is situated within South Africa's

borders. There are nine provinces namely Gauteng, Western Cape, Kwazulu Natal, Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Free State and the North West. Pretoria is the executive capital and Cape Town the legislative capital. Other major cities include Johannesburg, Durban, Port Elizabeth, Bloemfontein and East London. The country's climate varies from region to region. The Western Cape experiences a Mediterranean climate and the interior has a semi-desert climate with cold, dry winters and summer rainfall. Kwazulu Natal has a subtropical climate with humid conditions. Snow is uncommon and is limited to the highest lying regions of the country (Mbendi, Information Services). The estimated South African population for 1999 was between 41.9 million and 44.7 million. Out of the over 41 million people in South Africa in 1995, over 31 million were blacks. This represented about 76% of the population. White South Africans constituted only 13% of the population. About 57% of all black Africans lived in Kwazulu-Natal alone and accounted for almost 23% of the black population with Gauteng accounting for 41% of white South Africans (Thwala, 2003).

According to the most recent population census held in 1996, females constitute the majority of the population in South Africa, in eight out of the nine provinces. It was estimated in 1999 that 51.6% of the population is female and that 52.5% of the rural population is female. Moreover, the poorest provinces in South Africa, at the same time contain the largest rural population and have the largest number of females relative to males. In the Northern Province which has the largest rural population and is the poorest province, 54.2% of the population is female. In the Eastern Cape, which is the second poorest province and has the second largest rural population, females comprise 53.8% of the population. Kwazulu-Natal, the most populous province, has

over 4.4 million females which makes 53% of its population. Gauteng is the only province where females are a minority (48.9%) of the population. It is also the wealthiest and most urbanized province with 97% of its population living in urban areas (SSA, 2000).

This study is therefore carried out in the nine provinces of South Africa where women constitute the poorest part of the socio-economic sector of the population (Mann, 2000). According to the National Land Committee (NLC), 60 % of women compared to 40 % of men in South Africa live in poverty. Approximately, 75 % of female-headed households (accounting for at least 40 % of the total number of South African households) are classified poor (NLC, 1998). Furthermore, 60 % of rural and 48 % of urban South African women is unemployed (Central Statistics Service, 1998).

1.3. Statement of the problem

From a developmental perspective, access to land remains a key issue. This is indicated by the enthusiasm of many national governments in entering into commitments through the ratification of various women's rights conventions and hence, the issuance of national policies supporting the rights of women accessing land in many countries. Despite the adoption of the Convention of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1979, The Rome Declaration on World Food Security and the World Food Summit Plan of Action in 1996, macro- and micro-level gender disaggregated data showed that majority of the landless humankind are women (Woldetensaye, 2007). Madebwe & Madebwe (2005) revealed that women have title to only 1 % of the world's land; yet paradoxically, they produced over half of the world's food.

Furthermore, women are over-represented in agriculture, producing up to 80 % of all food stuffs in Sub-Saharan Africa, 50-60 % in Asia, 46 % in the Caribbean and 31 % in the Middle East (FAO, 2002). Yet, rural women continue to have unequal access to productive natural resources such as land, credit facilities, appropriate technology, agricultural extension and decision making positions. The ability of the rural women to access and use scarce land is often constrained by social exclusion, population pressure, and gendered land rights. However, the number of female-headed households is significantly increasing in rural areas of many developing countries, which have been shown to be amongst the poorest in all societies as rural men migrate due to the lack of employment and other income-generating opportunities (Smith & Cohen, 2000).

Nonetheless, South Africa is faced with multi-dimensional challenges regarding access to land by women. Firstly, there exists little or no statistical profile as regards access to land by women. Secondly, there is dearth of official statistics across the nine provinces of South Africa regarding female beneficiaries showing differentials in land access. Thirdly, the social demographic characteristics regarding land accessibility and the method of allocation in South Africa were not documented. Fourthly, little information is available concerning the manner by which the lucky few who have access to land obtained these lands and the difficulties encountered in the process. Fifthly, little is known about what purpose the land accessed were used for, and if in case of farming, what farming activities were carried out on the land. Lastly, the literature has not helped to determine the profile of women who eventually accessed these lands. Hence, this research will explore these demographic dimensions regarding women's access to land for farming, vis-à-vis provide a detailed

comparison with which to measure whether there is any structural change from 2004 and 2007.

1.3.1 Research Questions

The following research questions were investigated through this study:

- What are the channels through which rural women access land for their livelihoods?
- What are farming activities carried out by South African rural women carry on the lands in their possession?
- In which provinces of South Africa is land easily accessible to women?
- What are educational levels of women who access land?
- How do women who access land differentiate in terms of marital status?
- What are the main sources of income of South African women who access land?
- What are other activities do South African women engaged in to generate income besides farming?
- Has there been any increase in acreage in terms of women land ownership between

  2004 and 2007?
- What are the socio-demographic characteristics of women who are involved in land use?

1.3.2 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses will be tested:

- Inheritance is the major way of accessing land.
- Women are more likely to turn to farming activity for their living.

- Besides farming, women are more likely to do other activities generating income
- Lack of education constrains women to access land.
- Age is a factor constraining women from accessing land for small-scale farming.
- Land is more used for crops production than any other activities.
- Marital status is an important factor that helps women to access land.

1.3.3. Aims and Objectives of the study

1.3.3.1. General objective

This study explores the circumstances in which women access land in nine provinces of South Africa (Western Cape; Eastern Cape; Northern Cape; Free State; Kwazulu-Natal; Northern West; Gauteng; Mpumalanga; Northern Province. In details, it further examines inequalities that may exist in the context of land access, acquisition, use and closely-related land issues which primarily focus on women in general; and women-headed households living in both rural and urban areas in particular, given the fact that this category of women constitutes the most vulnerable group in the society.

1.3.3.2. Specific objectives

- To ascertain ways in which women obtain land and the challenges they encountered in doing so.
- To determine what the lands accessed by rural women are used for.
- To explore different farming activities taking place on these lands.
- To assess the demographic status of women in regards to land access.
- To assess if there is any increase in land access for women using the GHS data of 2004 and 2007.

1.3.4. Significance of the study

Gender issues are very sensitive but have an essential role to play in policy formulation, scientific research on women's access to land based on statistical analysis will provide insightful indications on the notion of women in land access**.** From a policy viewpoint, it will assist in promoting gender-sensitive development process in general and in South Africa in particular. Furthermore, the study on demographic aspects of women's access to land for farming will contribute to the growing body of the existing literature**.** South African demographic information shows that women constitute the majority of the population. Yet, the disparity in accessing land between men and women will impact on rural development process of the country. This study on a large scale will further contribute to the socio-economic empowerment and to the sustainable livelihood of the country at large. Nevertheless, this study will broaden knowledge and provide an insight about the challenges that South African women face in accessing land, and hence, provide a better understanding on this gender-related social problem.

1.3.5. Definition of Keywords

The concepts used often throughout the thesis but are not as such directly linked to instrumental variables are defined in appendix 8. These terms are the following: *Tribal authority; traditional societies; household headed by women; ownership of land; household; village; rural and urban; Bantustans; homeland; reformed landholding; patriarchy; ownership; sharecropping; rental.* Only concepts that were measured by use of instrumental variables GHS (questionnaire) are defined in this section.

Access to Land: Refers to the ability to use land and other natural resources, to control and to transfer the rights to the land and take advantage of other opportunities. According to the study carried out on Improving Access to Land and Tenure Security

policy, three main aspects have been highlighted in order to enhance access to land: (1) strengthening land tenure security and land rights, (2) increasing the amount of land that someone has access to, and (3) improving the productivity of land alternatives to enhancing access to land for agriculture may include promotion of non-farm activities and urbanisation.

Demographic characteristics: These are variables within a population such as age, gender, income level, marital status, ethnic origin and educational level.

General Household Survey: The General Household Survey (GHS) is an annual household survey specifically designed to measure various aspects of the living circumstances of South African households. The key findings reported here focuses on the five broad areas which include: education, health, activities related to work and unemployment, housing and household access to services and facilities (GHS, 2005).

Land tenure: It refers to terms and conditions under which land and other related resources are held and use. A tenure system reflects who hold what land under what conditions. Land tenure systems vary from community to community and are influenced by historical development of each community. It could also be referred to as the terms and conditions, under which rights to land are acquired, retained or used.

Land use: This essentially deals with the spatial aspects of all man's activities on land and the way in which land surface is adapted, or could be adapted to serve human needs.

Livelihood: This encompasses the capabilities, assets and activities required for people to obtain a secure living to meet their needs for food, shelter, health, belonging and wellbeing (Mokgope, 2000).

Marital status: This is defined as the current marital status of the person or a civil status of each individual in relation to the marriage laws or customs of a country i.e.

never married, married, widowed and not married, divorced and not remarried, married but legally separated or de facto union.

Province: A province in South Africa is a territorial unit, almost always an administrative division.

South Africa: South Africa is divided into nine Provinces: Eastern Cape, Free State, Gauteng, Kwazulu Natal, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Northern Cape, North West, and the Western Cape. Each of these Provinces has its own Legislature, Premier and Executive Council (Department of Welfare, 1998). The country has a population of 40.1 million, with more than a third of the population (34 %) aged less than 15 years, implying that South Africa has a young population.

1.3.6 Thesis outline

Chapter 1 of this thesis provides introduction to the research, starting with the background to the study, and statement of the problem underlying women's access to land. It further outlines research questions, hypotheses, objectives of the study, significance of the study and the working definitions. Chapter 2 presents a body of literature which discusses the theoretical review underlying the study and the empirical review. Chapter 3 discusses the policy framework. Chapter 4 outlines research design, sampling and data collection, method used in analysis, delimitation and description of variables. Chapter 5 presents data analysis and results, while Chapter 6 critically discusses the findings. Chapter 7 presents conclusion and proffers some recommendations from the study to the policy makers.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

This chapter provides theoretical review and specifically, the conceptual framework guiding the research work. The chapter also discuss empirical evidences as regards what result or inferences other scholars and researchers have laid out about women's access to land. Above all, policy formulation and implementation as regards the study is reviewed.

2.1. THEORETICAL REVIEW

Over the past years, some theories related to women's access to resources have emerged. However, emphasis in this study is placed on access to land used for farming at the household level. Two of the theories discussed in this work are Women in Development (WID) theory and, Women and Development (WAD) theory. Some feminist approaches would also be discussed, while the Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) suggested to be appropriate theory related to the study on women's access to land because it involves women's livelihood diversification would be reviewed as well.

2.1.1. The WID and WAD approaches.

Feminist approaches to women and development have drastically changed the conceptualisation of women's relationship to the development process (Walker, 2006). The Women in Development (WID) approach sought to address issue of poverty and inequality by emphasizing on women's productive roles in agriculture and their participation in development projects as a way of alleviating poverty and empowerment (Walker, 2006). Along this line, investigations into the relationship of

women to land and have led to research perspectives namely Women in Development (WID) and Women and Development (WAD) research. These two perspectives have had a critical influence on the body of knowledge on women's access to land, which is in line with the general reassessment of ((Miller & Razavi, 1995 & Tati, 2004). WID recognizes that women are active participants in the development process, who through both their productive roles provide a critical and often unacknowledged, contribution to the economic growth. Hence, as regards this participatory claim, it can be argued that as an untapped resource, women must be brought into the development process (Tati, 2004)).

Some justified criticisms have been expressed as regards conceptualizing the place of women within the development process, and these predominantly stress the over-emphasis of women's problems in relation with their particular attributes as a separate socio-demographic group (Tati, 2004). However, limitations in the WID concept has led to the Gender and Development (GAD) concept which emphasizes on the gender relations between men and women, and the specific manner in which women are subordinate to men within such asymmetrical relationships with less access to or control over resources (Tati, 2004). In the WAD concept, solutions to women's problems is no longer viewed as that of an isolated group but instead, are built upon by means of creating a balance in such asymmetrical relations which can be shifted or changed. The overall goal of the GAD approach is women's empowerment. Empowerment entails increasing women's access to knowledge, resource and decision-making power to change their disadvantaged positions to the level of having control over their own lives (Miller & Razavi, 1995). This goal can not be achieved easily and hence, gender inequality still persists. This is reflected in many aspects of

women's lives including their acquisition of resources. Women's struggle emerged to remove these inequalities and to bring change in women's lives hence, feminism was born (Walker, 2006).

2.1.2. Feminist approach

Different issues raised by feminists led to the formulation of many theories. One of the theories discussed in this thesis is feminist economics. The concern of the feminist economists across the field of economics was based on its relationship to gender and on firm rejection of gender marginalization in traditional economic theories. These feminists developed an economics that serves the interests of large and different group of people. Feminist economists brought new insights to economics thought, which resulted in positive difference in the lives of women. They argued against traditional economics which depicted women as dependent on fathers, husbands or males partners by considering the family as a basic economic unit. They affirmed this assumption enforces women's dependence on men, their secondary status within the family and the community, and their exclusion from decision-making (Woldetensaye, 2007 & Michel, 2008). Feminist economists insisted on economic indicators that measure women's well being. They argued that economic growth which basically considered the amount of money flow into the country's economy has little concern to social well-being of people. Hence, they rationalised that economic growth do not basically lead to resource distribution within a country. Feminist economists have also shown evidences that economic discourses had perpetuated masculinity biases in theoretical and empirical researches. Woldetensaye (2007), showed that gender biased research outcomes create low status, low power and less rewards for women since economic theories and discourses influence political, economic and social policies. Feminist economists had contributed to economic theory and methodology and

created alternative approaches such as the 'capability approach'. Feminist economic methodology was categorised into domestic systems, economic success, human agency, ethical judgements, gender, race and class.

Feminist economists asserted that the household should be treated as an important economic institution and unpaid work performed by men and women in a domestic setting ought to be valued. In addition, emphasis was placed on issues of power relation and inequalities within families and households, as such, it is important to analyse women's access to land at the household level. In feminist economics methodology, economic success should consider individual needs and entitlements on top of production of goods, distribution of wealth or income hence, alternatives to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) such as the Human Development Index (HDI) and the Human Capability Index (HCI) were developed (Edith and Jolande, 1995).

Strong emphasis was given to the agriculture sector as a major area of development, in which feminist economists revealed that the agricultural sector and economic concepts should consider effects of gender relations in the system. They further showed economic approach in the agricultural sector and farming systems reflect gender ideologies in society (Woldetensaye, 2007 & Michel, 2008). More so, the farm is seen as a purely economic unit managed by a male farmer who is often considered active on the agricultural economic development. They argued that in the farming households, women's involvement in land use for production purpose is rarely accounted for. This is in agreement with the promotion of small land holdings of the household level (Woldetensaye, 2007). However, women are associated with the domain of the family and the household hence, they are invisible in agricultural

production regardless of their contribution to the sector and the rural economy. Feminist economists asserted that family farm should be conceptualized in a different way because of its characteristics. They conceptualized the family farm as a farm where capital, labour and management are mostly provided by the family who owns/uses the land.

Family farm is primarily based on family labour and there are interlinks of economic activity and family life. Existing economic concepts could not be applied to study gender relations on family farms. Woldetensaye points out that the underlying reasons for these feminists view was that family farm is an area where labour and property relations are based on marriage and kinship and that power relation between men and women in society are reflected on farm activities through marital arrangements. They further emphasized that farm activities are outcomes of household decision-making processes although women and men farmers do not always have the same needs and interests, whereby both differently influences the decision-making process. More so, they underscored the need for more actor oriented approaches to incorporate women's roles in economic analysis and to address their issues effectively (Woldetensaye, 2007).

2.1.3 A SUGGESTED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The livelihood sustainable framework (there and after SLF) as a theory underlies this study on women's access to land for farming. This framework reflects the livelihood strategies that are considered useful for this study on women's access to land. Before formulating the proposed conceptual framework, it is important to present here the salient arguments of the SLF as discussed in the literature. Some of its gaps are identified and these serve as the rationale for the conceptual framework of this study.

2.1.3.1. Livelihood Sustainable Framework (LSF)

According to Ellis's work on Household Strategies and Rural Livelihood Diversification, livelihood diversification was defined as a phenomenon that characterizes the survival and income strategies of individuals and families in rural areas of developing countries. It can also be defined as the process by which rural families construct a diverse portfolio of activities and social support capabilities in order to survive and to improve their standards of living. Diversification is merely a transient phenomenon or one associated with the desperate struggle for survival in declining economies, and it may be associated with success at achieving livelihood security under improving economic condition as well as livelihood distress in deteriorating conditions (Ellis, 1998).

Mokgope (2000) in her study on Land Reform, Sustainable Livelihoods and Gender Relations sees sustainable livelihoods approach as holistic. She points out that livelihood involves various factors, including the context in which people live, their access to livelihood resources, their ability to use these resources, the process which shape and determine people's access to resources, and their ability to use resources to make a living (Mokgope, 2000). Livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets

(including both materials and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks; maintain or enhance its capabilities and stress, while not undermining the natural resource base. Rural livelihood diversification emphasizes especially on household coping strategies, intra-household relations, rural growth linkages, rural non-farm activity, and rural-urban migration. Diversification may occur both as deliberate household strategy and as an involuntary response to crisis (Ellis, 1998). Livelihood diminishes and accentuates rural inequality. It acts both as a safety valve for the rural poor and as a means of accumulation for the rural rich. More so, it can either benefit farm investment and productivity or impoverish agriculture by withdrawing critical resources. Livelihood diversification can be said to be neither a rural nor only a developing country phenomenon, but found to be a survival strategy of urban dwellers in developing countries, and is becoming increasingly prevalent amongst farm families in these countries as agricultural price and other supports to farming are remote.

Furthermore, livelihood is more than just income which refers to the cash earnings of the household plus payments in kind that can be valued at market prices. The cash earnings component of income includes items like crop or livestock sales, wages, rents, and remittances. Livelihood encompasses income, both cash and in kind, as well as the social institutions (kin, family, compound, and village), gender relations, and property rights required to support and to sustain a given standard of living. Social and kinship networks are important for facilitating and sustaining diverse income portfolios. Livelihood also includes access to, and benefits derived from,

social and public services provided by the state such as education, health services, roads, and water supplies (Ellis, 1998).

Livelihood diversification is not synonymous with income diversification (Reardon *et al.,* 1992; Adams and He, 1995). Nevertheless, many, but not all economic studies of diversification focus on different income sources and their relationship to income levels, income distribution, assets, farm output and other variables. Different categories of income have been distinguished such as farm, off-farm, and non-farm income sources (Reardon, 1997). Farm income includes livestock as well as crop income and comprise both consumption in-kind of own farm output and cash income from output sold. Off-farm typically refers to wage or exchange labour on other farms (in agriculture). It also includes labour payments in kind, such the harvest share systems and other non-wage labour contracts that remain prevalent in many parts of the developing world (Ellis, 1998). Non-farm income refers to non-agricultural income sources. Several secondary categories of non-farm income have been identified, and these include non-farm rural wage employment, non-farm rural self employment, property income, urban to rural remittance arising from within national boundaries, and international remittance arising from cross-border and overseas migration (Ellis, 1998).

Most research done on income diversification utilizes the household as the unit for empirical investigation. Moreover, this study on women's access to land uses the household as a unit of analysis. It is a fact that households headed by women are more vulnerable compared to their male counterparts. In South Africa, many households are headed by women meaning responsibilities in families fall on their shoulders. The

household may be conceived as the social group which resides in the same place, share the same meal, and makes joint or coordinated decisions over resources allocation and income pooling (& Ellis, 1993). The farm household economic model treats the household as a single decision making unit, maximizing its welfare subject to a range of income earning opportunities and a set of resource constraints. Intra-household economic approaches based on bargaining theory do not necessarily yield different predictions about patterns of engagement by household members in different labour

Urban migrants are commonly observed to continue to maintain strong rural family connections, even after several generations of urban residence. Circular migration in which family members work for periods in the urban economy, then return to their family farms is taken into account. Seasonal migration related to cyclical work opportunities in different locations is also common (Agarwal, 1990; Breman, 1996). Other school of thought sees diversification as matter of choice and opportunity involving proactive household strategies for improving living standards. Here, diversification for survival has been contrasted with diversification for accumulation.

The composition of rural household income is relatively poorly researched compared to other aspects of rural livelihoods in many developing countries especially in sub-Saharan Africa (Ravallion, 1992). In particular, there is an almost total lack of datasets that are comparable across time intervals greater than two or three years. More so, available evidence is from small-scale, location specific, sample surveys that are not representative of aggregate populations. Added to this, there appear to be little consensus across surveys concerning the definitional categories of income

components, so that individual income steams may be assigned to different sub categories in the data analysis of different surveys (Ellis, 1998).

A range of different motives and pressures of diversity that contribute to explaining why diversification occurs and the patterns of diversity that are observed are well-explained in literature. Some major determinants of diversification are seasonality, differentiated labour markets, risk strategies, coping behaviours, credits market imperfections, inter-temporal savings and investment strategies (Ellis, 1998). All rural households confront seasonality as an inherent feature of their livelihoods (Chambers *et al.,* 1981). Seasonality on its own explains many of the patterns of diversity in rural household income, especially those involving on-farm diversity and off-farm agricultural wage earnings (Adelman & Sahn, 1989).

Income instability and consumption smoothing are real problem confronted by households and hence, an important motive for income diversification associated with seasonality is to reduce income instability. Nevertheless, capability to diversify is likely to be particularly important for poor families that have little or no margin to withstand. There is agreement that the capability to diversify income is critical for the survival capabilities of the rural poor, because they are vulnerable to seasonal and risk factors than better off households (Chambers, 1989). It also because poor households lack assets, they may be landless or near landless, and possess few or no livestock. Without the capability to produce enough food on their own, the poor must diversify income sources in order to survive. Therefore, enabling the rural poor to earn enough in order to survive is one thing, reducing income disparities between poor and rich

quite another (Stark, 1982; Stark & Bloom, 1985). Risk is often discussed as the primary motive for income diversification.

The concept of coping involved with the vulnerability of rural families to livelihood collapse in the face of disaster such as drought, flood, and cyclone (Chambers, 1989; Davies, 1996). The notion of vulnerability is further captured by resilience and sensitivity of the livelihood system, where resilience means the ability of the system to absorb change or even utilizes change to advantage, while sensitivity refers to the susceptibility of the natural resources base to change following human interference (Blaikie & Brookfield, 1987).

Rural growth model approach is relevant to the study of livelihood diversification due to its emphasis on rising farm productivity as the source of diversification of income earning opportunity in rural areas. Empirical studies utilizing the growth linkage approach have appeared to demonstrate big multiplier effect in the rural economy resulting from growth in agricultural output (Ellis, 1998). The direction of causality in the growth linkage model is always from farm growth to non-farm growth, and not the other way around (Delgardon *et al.*, 1994). The implication is that the primary focus of anti-poverty policy should be growth in farm output. The younger, more innovative, better educated members of farm families are the ones that leave the farm to engage in rural non-farm activities or to undertake distance migration. Hence, they may also divert scarce capital from the farm into rural self-employment or job search funding for would-be migrants. Furthermore, non-farm income sources are seen as the agent of positive change in agriculture, rather than agriculture being the agent of rural non-farm growth (Ellis, 1998).

Collective models of the household based on individual welfare maximization and bargaining theory provide more scope for examining how the social status and independent decision-making capabilities of women are affected changing their access to work and income outside the home (Ellis, 1998). Taking gender to mean socially-defined roles of men and women, gender will often be found to constrain the patterns of income diversification pursued by the household.

The constraints may be direct due to the prohibition of women working outside the home, or indirect resulting from girls being permitted less access to schooling than boys. Baring this constrain, the widespread social assignment of women to domestic duties means that their ability to participate in income earning opportunities outside the household or farm is likely, in most cases, to be more circumscribed than is the case for men. Thus, the feminization of agriculture was a significant feature of income diversification in sub-Saharan Africa caused by the predominantly male involvement in long distance migration to cities, mines and plantations (Ellis, 1998). The predominance of males, and often younger males, in many different types of seasonal and circular migration has also been noted. Therefore, gender affects diversification options, in terms of which income earning opportunities are taken up and which are discarded. It also affects diversification patterns, as manifested by unequal male and female participation rates in different branches of non-farm activities (Ellis, 1998).

Gender affects diversification outcomes for the welfare and status of family members as individual. As seen in households headed by women, other main sources of income (wages/salary, remittances, and pension and grants) may be an additional support to the household in time of crisis. A greater share of cash income accruing to women

result both in more of the household budget being spent on food and improvements in family nutrition. The engagement in independent income sources may raise the social status of women within the household, and improve their negotiating position across a range of household decisions, although the outcomes are not guaranteed merely from women's engagement in non-farm income generating activity. Consequently, gaining a better understanding, in different contexts, of the gender-differentiated impacts of alternative income sources within the household could result in improvement in the design of local level policies intended to ameliorate or reduce poverty, improve nutrition, and enhance the ability of individuals to improve their own living standards (Ellis, 1998).

A number of policy areas are identified as having relevance either for the survival portfolios of the poor or for diversifying the income earning options of individuals and households in rural areas. These include targeting and reducing risk, microcredit, rural services, rural non-farm enterprises, rural towns, infrastructure, and education (Evans & Ngau, 1991).

2.1.3.2. Some identified gaps in the LSF with special reference to socio-demographic variables

Livelihood is defined as the means through which people obtain a secure living which meet their needs for food, shelter, health, belonging and wellbeing (Mokgope, 2000). A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets and activities required for people to obtain a secure living which can meet their needs for food, shelter, health, belonging and wellbeing (Mokgope, 2000). Livelihood strategies are determined by the availability of resources, in terms of access to and control over these resources, and as determined by institutional frameworks. Scoones (1998) identify main livelihood

strategies which are agricultural intensification/extensification, livelihood diversification and migration. These strategies cover the range of options open to rural people. It is either more livelihood is obtained from agriculture (including livestock rearing, aquaculture, forestry) through processes of intensification (more output per unit area through capital investment or increases in labour inputs) or extensification (more land under cultivation), or a diversification to a range of farm income earning activities, or a situation of moving away and seeking a livelihood, either temporarily or permanently, elsewhere. Better still, a combination of strategies together or in sequence can be pursued.

Land is an asset which may generate wealth and wellbeing of people through agricultural intensification (gaining more livelihoods from agriculture). Livelihood diversification may also consist of engaging in a range of off-farm activities. Acquisition of land asset remains an element of contestation because land constitutes a major basis of social relations where it affects land access by individuals and communities due to issues around competition. Issues of women's access to land are not well emphasized given that in order to diversify; there should be access to resources.

Ellis (1998) understanding of sustainable livelihoods revealed some gaps and limitations in which little or nothing have been emphasized about women's characteristics and their capabilities to land access. Increasingly, women resort to alternative livelihoods strategies such as off-farm activities to generate income and the income category have not been related statistically to land access as emphasized by Ellis in his work. Statistically, little or nothing has been said about the profile of

women as opposed to men, who qualified for smallholdings and the activities taking place on agricultural land. Having reviewed the literature on sustainable livelihood framework, it emerges that little has been provided regarding the magnitude of households headed by women who assume so many responsibilities and play a crucial role in sustainable livelihood. Hence, the capabilities, aptitudes through which the actors acquire land were not discussed.

2.2. EMPIRICAL REVIEW ON WOMEN'S ACCESS TO LAND

This section focus on relevant review of literature of what has been highlighted by other scholars and researchers on some demographic aspects of women's access to land for farming in general and in South Africa in particular. However, attention will be on gender issue and land access, international view of women's access to land, methods of land acquisition, off-farm activities, main sources of income, household composition, and education and age. The section ends with a suggested conceptual framework.

2.2.1. Gender issue and women's land acquisition.

Rural women have begun to struggle for and assert their rights to land over the past 30-40 years, largely as part of the struggle against apartheid and the institutions of the former homelands created by that system. The results of this struggle have been slow to emerge, however, largely due to the reluctance of men to accept the informal and legislative changes which have provided the space for the allocation of land rights to women. This would result in women gaining autonomy and independent citizenship rights, thus reducing male power within the household and the community (Cross & Horby, 2002).

In the former homelands which comprise 13% of the land reserved for African occupation by colonial and apartheid policies, access and use rights to land are largely confined to male heads of households, though women-headed households are predominant (Cross & Horby, 2002). Women's access to land and their control over its usage has largely, although not exclusively been mediated through their relationship to a male household head, whether a husband, brother, son or other male relative. The particular deprivation of rural women as a social category relative to men has been exacerbated by the legacy of the migrant labour and Bantustan policies that were developed by the apartheid white minority government (Walker, 1998). Both custom and law have generally underpinned women's economic marginalization. In addition, the growing general land shortage and land hunger have increased women's vulnerability. Today, like most rural men, most rural women see land primarily as a social rather than an economic resource and look to the urban sector and to urban jobs as the route to household economic survival and advancement (Walker, 1998).

Gender inequalities are pervasive across many dimensions of societal life including households, social, economic and political institutions. The United Nations recognized that gender inequality resulting from women's low status persist in many societies although the extent of the gap varies across countries, culture and time. The UN presented the burden of this inequality by saying that: "*Women, who comprise half the world's population, do two thirds of the world's work, earn one tenth of the world's income and own one hundredth of the world's property" (*Woldetensaye, 2007).

Cox & Magel, (2002) also contributed to the gender issue by explaining that without specific attention to gender inclusiveness, important segments of society may be excluded from the benefits of land administration, management, and development schemes. They further explained that in many countries, there still exists a lack of adequate provisions for women to hold land rights independently of their husbands or male relatives. Where women gain land-use rights through male kin, men may still control key aspects of land use; women's rights often end with divorce, forcing women to return to the native home, often with no access to land. Mostly, women's direct access to land is often limited in traditional societies. Women have indirect access to land in terms of use rights acquired through kinship relationships and their status as wives, mothers, sisters or daughters (Davison, 1998). Nevertheless, these use rights may not grant enough security for women when family structures break especially in case of divorce or if the husband dies or disappears, a women's situation becomes totally changed and life becomes very unsure (Erickson, 1999).

Furthermore, the gendered face of poverty makes gender an issue in women's access to land (Woldetensaye, 2007). A study carried out by United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in developing countries showed that poverty has a gendered face and that women are poorer than men. The UNDP study on selected countries of sub-Saharan Africa showed GDP (Gross Domestic Product) per capita for women were less than of men. Comparative figures in 1998 were US$1, 142 per woman and US$2,079, per man (Woldetensaye, 2007). Therefore, Cox and Magel (2002) suggest that there is a need for land policy recommendations and implementation frameworks that explicitly address gender inclusive access to land for future personal, economic stability of women in South Africa. Without specific attention to gender

inclusiveness, important segments of society may be excluded from the benefits of land administration, management, and development schemes.

2.2.2. Women and land tenure systems in South Africa

South Africa is a very patriarchal country with different tenure systems operating in different areas (Mhango & Samson, 1998). The literature outlines tenure options for women under the main rural tenure forms found in South Africa today. Land tenure can be understood as the process that defines the kinds of households that qualify socially and politically for land. From Meer's point of view, this point is important for gender, since many of the families run by women do not qualify to hold land, and therefore do not have any official existence as separate households (Meer, 1997).

Thus, various forms of tenure exist in South Africa today for African communities and individuals. Although there is a variety of tenure systems found in South Africa is very large, there are probably three basic kinds of legal tenure in rural African areas. These are the state-administered tenures, tribal or communal tenure, and privately owned land.

2.2.2.1. State land system

These systems are the actual allocation of residential and arable land was often controlled centrally for each district or community by the headmen and the council, the chief or the agricultural officers, who act on behalf of the district magistrate or the national minister. Meer, (1997); Mokgope, (2000), and Letsoale (1987) point out that through this system, land was pegged and divided into arable, grazing and residential areas. Grazing was shared, but arable field and residential plots were allocated to individual families. In practice, land was often inherited, but such inheritance

required approval from the locators. Today it is thus extremely difficult for women to gain land under these systems.

2.2.2.2. The former reserves

Under this system**,** fields are informally lent and subdivided and may be switched to residential use in accommodating married children. In this system, some chiefs now seem to regard land as their private property and this trend further marginalizes women. Inheritance of communal land by male heirs is usually automatic, and families may give land to married or widowed daughters, but inheritance by women is still not usual and can present problems (Meer, 1997 and Mokgope, 2000).

2.2.2.3. Freehold tenure

The freehold tenure includes individual and company owned farms which are mostly in parts of rural areas, residential and commercial plots in declared urban areas. The use of Title Deed Land subdivision of farms within urban areas is controlled by a designated ministry. Women's access to freehold land is determined by their marital status and the type of marriage contracted of a woman determines whether or not she can have control over land in her own right (Meer 1997, Mhango & Samson, 1998, Mokgope, 2000).

2.2.3. International perspectives on women's access to land

Women's access to land is not only an issue challenging South African population but the world as a whole (Deininger, 2003). In many societies, women's land rights are of a secondary nature, acquired through their husbands or male relatives. An example can be seen in Kenya, where title to land was given only to heads of households (almost always men) (Palmer, 2002). Consequently, women's ability to have independent land ownership in case of the death of their husband or divorce was

limited. Divergence between ownership and control rights can have negatives effects on productivity. A situation where the husband controls the proceeds from cultivation, reduces women's incentives to exert efforts, and thus lowers agricultural productivity. This is particularly relevant in African countries, where women are the main agricultural cultivators, and in many Latin America and Asian countries, where men migrate or women are traditionally heavily discriminated against (Deininger, 2003).

In Burkina Faso, household output could be increased by 10-20 % by re-allocating currently used agricultural inputs more evenly between men and women (Deininger, 2003). The household income, if it comes from women's assets holdings may improve child health, nutrition and education. In Bangladesh, Ethiopia and South Africa, assets in the hands of women significantly raise the share of households of women expenditure on education. Extra income, including assets income, accruing to women rather than men in several countries is linked to more outlay on, and gain in, child nutrition (Deininger, 2003).

The argument that women's access to land is not enough in order to sustain livelihoods. Cross (1999) supports this argument by saying that giving women individual and autonomous rights to land do not necessarily guarantee that these may not be taken away later or misappropriated by the powerful within society. Deshingkar (1995) supported Cross's argument by saying that giving women access to land cannot ensure that they are able to utilise it productively and earn a living from it because they may not necessarily have the inputs, labour or knowledge and skills. Mokgope (2000) further points out that having access to land does not necessarily mean that rural women will be able to use it to effectively to improve their

livelihoods. She outlines the limiting factors such as institutional frameworks that shape their access to economic powers, skills and knowledge, information, and decision-making powers and structures, the lack of financial means to be able to join purchasing groups. Hence, women usually do not have powers within the household to make decisions on land acquisitions and land use.

However, Mokgope, (2000) provided substantial reasons why women must have access to land for agricultural purpose by referring to Asian experience. She argues that giving women individual private rights will ensure them access to production resources. In addition, anecdotal evidence suggests that giving women title to land will allow them to use the security this provides to access credits, possibly to start up a number of farm enterprises. In Honduras and Nicaragua, the amount of land women own has a significant and positive impact on food expenditure as well as on children's educational attainment. The risk of poverty and the physical well-being of a woman and her children could depend on whether she has direct access to land, and not just access mediated through male family member, especially for female-headed households with no adult male support (Mokgope, 2000).

Given the importance of land in the asset portfolio of the average rural household in many developing countries, increasing women's control over land could therefore have a strong and immediate effect on the welfare of the next generation and on the level and pace at which human and physical capital are accumulated (Davison, 1998; Toulmin & Quan, 1999). The household income, if it comes from women's assets holdings have been shown to improve child health, nutrition and education in Bangladesh, Ethiopia and South Africa (Deininger, 2003; Davison, 1998).

Giving women rights to land also gives power, helping them to take more control in existing relations, not least by improving women's reservation within marriage. Such empowerment reduces their vulnerability within the household. In Birla, India, allocation of title to men but not women led to increased drunkenness and domestic violence. Similarly in the Mwea irrigation scheme in Kenya, failure to guarantee women's rights to land led to a reduction in their well-being (Davison, 1998; Deininger, 2003). If a woman has the reserved option to work and earn on her own land, it may also gives her power in social and economic relations, and makes participation in local political institutions more likely (Meer, 1997; Davison, 1998). Hargreaves suggests that if the South African government effectively aims to eradicate poverty, then independent land access and control for rural women is appropriate strategy in line of women's wellbeing. However, the study of Deininger, (2003) from Cote'Ivoire highlighted a bias in the allocation of land rights against women farmers is not justified, as the literature provides no evidence of inferior efficiency between men and women.

2.2.4. Some differentials in methods of land acquisition

Most women do not have rights that allow them independent access to and control over land. Men are the link between women and land irrespective of whether or not their needs, responsibilities, concerns, interests and life experiences are the same as those of men (Rose, 1987). Customarily, a woman cannot inherit land in her own right. She can only do so through a man who may be her husband, son, brother or male cousin. However, it has been argued that there is no disparity between women and men's access to land in the system of inheritance because a man cannot inherit

without a wife. In other words, the presence of the wife is only required for purposes of allocating the land but it is not binding enough for the woman to challenge her expulsion from the land.

2.2.4.1. Marital status and land acquisition

Marital status is a demographic feature that determines the way women access land through traditional authority and custom (Meer, 1997). In South Africa, and elsewhere in Africa, marital status determines access to land as women differ in terms of their location within the household structure as wives, divorced, widows or single daughters, and expended the brief to include specific consideration of these differences, and the impact of these differences on women's ability to obtain land in their own right, to obtain secure tenure afterward, and to use their land to develop livelihoods and earn income for themselves and their families (Meer, 1997; Cross & Hornby, 2002).

In rural areas, married women obtain land for farming through their husbands (Keller, 2000), but a survey conducted in the Eastern Cape found that communities considered the allocation of land rights to married women is impossible. In contrast, such rights are vested in husbands who are considered household-heads. Drawing on the work of Turner & Ibsen (2000), the National Land Committee argues that this is a nation-wide tendency. Reluctance to allow married women access to land in their own right is intimately tied up with maintaining patriarchal inheritance rules and rights: *"Male children maintain the family names…female members of households are always bound to be married. Therefore, if they inherit property and thereafter get married, the property of the deceased is left in the hands of a stranger" (Cross et al., 1995).*

Moreover, a married woman may gain access to land if she has her husband's authorization but is likely to lose this in the event of a breakdown in relation through divorce or in widowhood. Her rights may also change if her husband remarries within a polygamous arrangement (Izugbara, 1999). Hence, there are suggestions that women face discrimination with respect to the allocation of individual fields. When access to a plot is granted, this may be on land which other male relatives do not want because, for example, it is not very fertile, difficult to work, or not suitable for animal traction. Izugbara in her study points out that in some areas of Africa like Northern Cameroon, it was found that women could get relatively easy access to bush field land, given its abundance, but were mostly excluded from land which is perceived to be of considerably greater value. Furthermore, a study in Burkina Faso compare the position of women and younger men with regard to access to land confirmed that women generally receive plots that is further away and is less-protected from erosion than land gained by young men. The study also revealed, however, that there was fairly equal access for both women and younger men to the fertile plots found in lowland areas (Izugbara, 1989)

2.2.4.2. Women headed households and land acquisition

Jane & Gale (2007) stressed that women's lack of access to land rights becomes especially severe in situations of conflict and reconstruction, where widows and single women may be extremely disadvantaged. Without husbands, women survivors of wars or disaster may be unable to secure their own place to live. When they cannot inherit either their parents or their husband's property, they are condemned to live in refugee camps as seen in Rwanda and Burundi in the mid-1990. Erickson (1999),

explains the unfair access to land of women headed households by giving reference to widows. She says that widows are quite often totally dispossessed immediately after the death of the husband. Erickson argues that a widow is not even recognised as a person who earned part of the property or contributed to its existence. Erickson also says that the situation is bad for abandoned women and young widows when they decide to leave the in-laws. In all cases, they leave without any compensation. In-laws believe that women come to their homes without land, so they must also leave without anything. They do not have any share of the reclaimed land of the family in-law. She concludes that the local chief may allocate a plot to single women, particularly if she has children, but it would be unthinkable to allocate a plot to married women in her own right.

Nevertheless, women do not challenge this unequal position under customary law. Even female chiefs do not act differently from their male counterpart in administering land to the disadvantaged of women (Keller, 2000). Many widows accept the loss of property, a share of which is rightfully theirs because the emotional costs of challenging in-laws are too high. Given that women do not have equal right to property ownership, widowhood usually means loss of the right of access to field where their labour has been invested and to their homes (Keller, 2000).

Keller also noted that across a range of many communities, it is fairly common practice for a widow to hold land until she dies, at which time it passes on to the male heir, or to hold land until the heir comes of age. Hence, the core assumption underpinning widow's rights to land is that it is transitional which means a temporary arrangement in the transfer of authority from husbands to sons**.** However, in some

circumstances, most divorced or widowed rural women return to their natal families, where they are dependent upon male kin for access to land (Keller, 2000). Widows can not formally acquire land in their own right, but they can inherit land. Van Averbeke (1995) posited that older unmarried women seem to have been able to gain access to land in their own right through mediation by male family member.

Walker (1994) and Cross *et al.*, 1995 carried out a research in Kwazulu-Natal and the Southern Cape which suggested a contrary view about females/daughters' rights to inherit or gain unmediated access to land. Most, uphold a son's prior claim to property over that of a daughter's as natural and right. Hence, they support the general opinion that daughters inherit as a last resort, when there are no sons and no other close male relative. Consequently, one can assume that the lack of access to and rights over land among African women reflects inequality and a very strongly patriarchal society.

2.2.4.3. Differentials in socio-demographic characteristics

Not all women-headed households are equally disadvantaged by tenure. Hence, certain tenure systems are more open to women than others. The literature highlighted that categories of advantage and disadvantage are also closely connected to poverty (Meer, 1997). Those categories of women are widows with grown children, younger widows with younger children, single mothers with children and married women with absent husbands.

2.2.4.3.1 Widows with grown up children

Under most rural tenure systems, older widows with grown children are the best-positioned group (Walker, 1994; Cross *et al.*, 1995). This is because widows under both state tenure and informal tenures are normally allowed to keep a usufruct right to the land holding of their late husbands. Meer (1997) pointed out that widows with

grown or adolescent children are also the category of female-headed household which can most easily move to a new area. Since the household was originally structured around marriage and because children are present, the family is usually viewed as respectable and acceptable, correct in value terms. An older widow who wants to move her family closer to town or into an informal settlement can often obtain a tenure right in the name of her son or grandson (Meer, 1997).

2.2.4.3.2 Younger widows with younger children

The second ranking-category of female-headed households in relation to land access is that of younger widows or abandoned wives with young, pre-adolescent children. Research has shown that when the woman head of household is the only adult, or when she has only daughters; her household is seen as weak, though not incorrect, because she has no male heir to hold the right to land, and no resident male adult to speak for her in public process (Meer, 1997). Today, younger widows and abandoned wives, therefore, seem to be much more vulnerable than older widows, both to loss of land and to impoverishment. Without adolescent son, even respectable widows have great difficulty in obtaining a landholding of their own in most areas (Meer, 1997). Such category of women are given little protection or assistance by their husband relatives. In these circumstances, they may give up to marry or to return to their homes, especially when their brothers still alive and willing to accommodate her.

2.2.4.3.3. Single mothers with children

The most disadvantaged category of women-headed household is that of single mothers with children. If these mothers are not in the process of marrying the father of her children, women in this category are not considered to be head of proper families and are not usually seen as eligible for land rights (Meer, 1997). Although single

mothers are a very large demographic category, they are unlikely to obtain land at all unless they live in their per-urban periphery, where rates of formal marriage appear to be relatively low. Moreover, unless these single mothers have older sons, their right to land is likely to be contested by male neighbours and remote relatives (Meer, 1997).

2.2.4.2 Education of women

Erickson (1999) notes that lack of education can be a limiting variable in terms of women's land access. She says that lack of education, information and communication are the main obstacles for female-headed households to be aware of their rights. Cox & Magel (2002) argue that illiteracy rate is often much higher among women than men, and higher for rural people than urban populations hence, this may be a barrier for women in the way they obtain land. Without this awareness women are only some objects that can be traded off by family (Erickson, 1999). Petrie and co-workers (2003) found that most of the land owners had tertiary education, and about one third had some college or professional training. Some were retired teachers, and some were running the farm in addition to other businesses in town.

However, a research conducted in the Amazon by Keshari and co-workers (1996) gives evidence that women's education is a factor that limits women on her participation in farms activities. Therefore, more educated women are less likely to work on farms. They further confirm that one more year of education would reduce the odds of women's participation in farm activities by 15 %. Thus, educated women are generally less likely to participate in agricultural activities because they can easily find off-farm jobs. Weidman (2003), confirmed that agricultural development policies tend to recognise men, not women as potential contributors to agricultural

development. They claimed that policies are developed to integrate men into commercial agricultural production while women remain in small-scale subsistence farming.

Endely (1991) suggested that a possible solution would be to invest in women's education. Moreover, Sender & Smith (1990) also suggested an association between female education and the development of progressive farming. Weidman (2003) concluded that policy measures to improve women's access to land should include the provision of education and training, health services, legal aid, child care facilities and human rights education. According to Erickson (1999) point of view, it is obvious that the problems women encountered are related to land access and are connected to lack of information because they are not educated, and consequently women do not know their rights and responsibilities. It means that dissemination of information is therefore necessary.

2.2.4.4. Age of women

The literature is silent about specific age at which women access land. However, Fabiyi and co-workers (2007) showed that from the socio-economic characteristics of respondents in the study area, majority of the women farmers in the study area were young women. The results revealed that 88 % of the respondents were within 20-49 years of age, 12 % were 50-70 years of age. Hence, regarding the effects of the women's individual characteristics, the study shows that the age of women limits her participation in farm activities. Thus, women are less likely to work on farms as they age (Keshari *et al.*, 1996) probably because they have no energy to participate actively in farming activities. Furthermore, Chapton and co-workers (2007) showed to

some extent, older women seem have some protection against loss of land compared to younger widows. They revealed landholding size declined by -29.9 % for widows aged 50 and above, compared to -54.8 % among households headed by a widow aged 16-38 years. It means that younger women are more likely to remarry and gain access to the new husband's land, thereby alleviating her need to keep most of the deceased husband's land. In contrast, older women are considered less likely to remarry and might have more social capital in the community that protects them from losing rights to land hence more likely to retain most of the land formerly controlled by the deceased husband (Chapton and co-workers, 2007). Besides the issue of land access, age and marital status may influence the activities on the land. Hilhorst (2000) showed older women with daughter-in-laws and women with unmarried teenage daughters have more time and resources available in order to work on the land. Hence, women in a polygamous marriage may find more time for farming, since domestic tasks can be shared amongst a broader set of female members of the household.

2.2.4.5. Land acquisition through various mechanisms

A woman may have to explore alternative means of access to land for cultivation when she cannot obtain land through her affiliation to her husband (Izugbara, 1989). Izugbara notes that one of such potential means of access to farmlands is through farmlands market transaction**.** Rural farmland market transactions which are active throughout sub-Saharan Africa have been recognised as offering critical scope for landless rural farmers, including women to directly access agriculture farmlands. Thus, besides the traditional way of accessing land through customary, women can also purchase land often by using capital accumulated while working in rural or urban areas. Another is the acquisition of rights through possession or prescribed period of

time. In some countries, this may be the only method for small farmers to gain formal access to vacant or abandoned land and to bring it into productive use. Women can acquire land by leasing, or gaining access to land by paying rent to the owner (Izugbara, 1989).

2.2.4.5.1. Land rental and share cropping

Sharecropping is another way of access to land in return for paying the owner a percentage of the production. Letsoalo (1987) opined that sharecropping is the system wherein function/duties, factors of production and products are divided between the non-cultivator and the cultivator. The cultivator contributes inputs (labour, seeds, equipment), while the non-cultivator contributes little else than the land. Rentals, leases and loans do not involve the permanent alienation of land, and provide benefits for both lesser and lessee. Letsoalo explains that land borrowing arrangements provide a mechanism for landholders to dispose, temporarily, of land they cannot utilise. Moreover, sharecropping as a form of payment in kind for land access is not necessarily as exploitative as have been supposed. It offers a means by which the poor can gain access to land and in Africa, it often provides an important form of risk sharing and mutual aid in times of crisis strongly rooted in social and kinship relations. Thus, land rental and sharecropping markets have mixed impacts on poverty and inequality depending on the terms (Izugbara, 1989).

2.2.4.5.2. Social network

Apart from formalised tenure regimes, there are informal ways of gaining access to land and other resources which are socially recognised, but are often legally unrecognised. Social networks provide one way of gaining access to land and these network links may include kinship, affinity, co-residence, friendship and patron-client

relationship (Mokgope, 2000). However, the rights to access land gained in this way are weaker in the sense that they cannot be legally protected. Social protection of these rights varies and is not particularly strong, given that the rights can be revoked by the owner (Mokgope, 2000).

2.2.4.6. Land use and acquisition.

Land, whether it is inherited, allocated, purchased or seized, is the most basic resource of agricultural production (Davison, 1998). In rural development, agriculture is considered as the best vehicle to reduce rural poverty (Machette, 1981). In most developing countries, agriculture and agriculture-related activities provide most of the employment in rural areas. The implication is that agricultural workers are poorly paid and that most of the employees in the agricultural sector are unskilled. The indication is that increasing agricultural growth may have a large positive impact on poverty (Machette, 1981).

In Africa, women are currently the major food producers. Women's relation to land, as conceptualised in different societies, is a critical factor in their ability to produce food for themselves and their families. Recent developments regarding land use in South Africa revolves around two critical types of land use: use of land for residential purposes and agricultural and grazing use of land (Oosthuizen, 1993). In South Africa, the general consensus is that small-plot agriculture remains important for most rural households, mostly for domestic consumption. It is also claimed that people look to farming or natural resource harvesting as source of livelihood (Palmer & Sender, 2000).

Many women need land for residential purpose. They also need land for fuel and some women are interested in poultry farming and vegetables production on communal gardens. Referring to the experience of the Eastern Cape, where few women perceive themselves as or are interested in becoming farmers, but need land for residence, fuel and micro farming (Marcus *et al.*, 1996). Nevertheless, the role of farming as a source of security and as a safety net for poor and vulnerable groups is still emphasised by some analysts (Palmer & Sender, 2000). For example, it is argued that the availability of own-farm produce for consumption provides a fallback in times of need. Palmer & Sender (2000) claim that the psychological value of land-based goods and services as a safety net is far greater than the physical value of the goods and services. The perception of farming income as reliable seems misplaced, given the high risks associated with farming. Historical evidence showed the survival of almost all types of farm in South Africa has regularly been threatened by severe droughts, recurrent crop and livestock diseases, and extreme price fluctuations (Palmer & Sender, 2000). The argument that agricultural incomes do not add much to the total incomes of the majority of rural households, but that they are also important for those with no other sources of cash income becomes relevant (Pamler & Sender, 2000). May (1996), show that agriculture comprises 81 % of the income of a category of people that he classified as marginalised. This group including women accounts for 4 % of households and has no access to wages, remittance or public transfer. He concluded that agriculture represent an important safety net. However, as noted by Standing and co-workers (1996), the conclusion that the marginalized group including women are heavily dependent on agriculture is tautological i.e. by definition; they do not depend on other income sources. Besides, while income from self-employment in

agriculture may be regarded as providing a means of survival for a small minority of destitute households, it is unlikely to provide a path out of poverty.

May (1996) and De Swardt (2003) concluded that additional support to small-scale agriculture is important in order to improve the security of the poorest, most vulnerable households. However, policy-makers could also consider the possibility that the destitution of these marginalized rural households is the outcome of failures in the distribution of public transfers in South Africa. Hence, a major effort to improve and simplify the distribution of social security transfers would achieve more sustainable security for the poorest than continued neo-liberal advocacy of the benefits of entrepreneurial efforts in small-scale agriculture.

However, Cross and Hornby (2002) concluded that these small holdings provide future settlement opportunities only for the family's own children, if for anyone. These relatively small plots usually do not fall under the authority of traditional institutions. It is these small holdings in areas close to towns and not governed by conservative rural institutions that probably carry the lowest risks of dispossession for women land holders.

2.2.4.6.1. Size of the land

Rural women are typically allocated small pieces of land, usually about 1000-5000 m^2, which are used to produce food crops such as vegetables, chickpeas and groundnuts for home consumption and, to a very limited extent, for sale (Kongolo and Bamgose, 2002). The family plot used to grow cash crops takes first priority, leaving the women only limited time to work on their plots, either very early in the morning or in the afternoon when they are not cooking, tending to the children, gathering

firewood or otherwise engaged by their husbands. Letsoalo (1987), pointed out that there is a dilemma for policy makers/development agents as to the choice between small and large farms. The crucial factors are technology and inputs. From the rural development point of view, small farms are preferable because they use much less capital equipment than large farms, and their total employment is higher (Dorner, 1972).

Middleton (1997) showed the differences between men and women's preferences in relation to land access. Men tend to opt for larger landholdings of a size sufficient to support extensive cultivation and stock grazing, but which could also be converted into a resource for settling relatives and connections to create local patronage. This kind of holding is usually found in outlaying rural areas, and requires strong institutional standing to defend. Conversely, Cross and Hornby (2002) argued women preferred smaller holdings located near transport routes and/or urban settlements. This kind of settlement option gives better access to infrastructure and services, which minimizes labour time and transport costs required to obtain basic resources such as water and energy, as well as health care and access to schools.

As shown in the former Ciskei region, it became apparent that women demanded small garden or small fields on which to grow vegetables. Women's demand for land is tied to their social reproductive function in society. In Kwazulu-Natal, it was revealed that land accessed by women is used for garden for subsistence and income generation, infrastructure, residential use and growing grass (Middleton, 1997).

2.2.4.7. Income generating livelihoods among small land holding.

Additional support to small-scale agriculture is important in order to improve the security of the poorest, most vulnerable households (May, 1999; De Swardt, 2003). Pension, grants and remittances are other ways through which women earn income. In terms of pension scheme, all South Africans whose yearly income does not exceed a certain minimum amount are entitled to a state pension when they reach retirement age. Retirement age for women is 60 years and for men 65 years. Although pension is not very large, it serves as lifeline for many elderly people who have never been in a position to make provision for their retirement years (Oosthuizen, 1997).

The importance of this state pension can hardily be overestimated, since for thousands of elderly people it is the difference between survival and starvation. Often, especially in rural areas, this pension is stretched to also provide in the most essential needs of several other family members who live with the pensioners. Oosthuizen argues that although this pension scheme places enormous burden on the state budget, it is one of the most important means of combating abject poverty among the rapidly growing elderly population of South Africa. However, with the impending collapse of the current pension system in South Africa, it is unlikely that pensions will in future remain an important source of income for rural populations. Smaller pensions will most likely also force thousands of elderly people out of rural and into urban areas where alternative support systems will have to be developed for them (Oosthuizen, 1997). Palmer and Sender (2000) found that although pensions and remittance make the largest contribution to household incomes, most men and women identified farming as their most important income source, because pension and remittance income were irregular, but farming could be relied on.

Non-agricultural income diversification not only refers to the fact that households are diversifying into non-agricultural activities but that they are often pursuing more than one, sometimes several, different non-agricultural activities simultaneously or at different times throughout the year (Bryceson, 2002). As more household members are entering into agricultural production, donor agencies in the 1970s and 1980s generally assumed African rural women lack involvement in cash-earning (Bryceson, 2002). Income diversification's pervasive expansion has overturned this assumption. Rural women are earning cash, although their work is generally less remunerative than men's because women remain largely restricted to income-earning activities based on their home-making skills. Farming almost always requires significant start-up capital, as well as access to working capital to purchase inputs and smooth shocks. Historical research showed the importance of access to cash income sources in differentiating those South African farmers who farmed intensively and achieved the highest incomes (Ellis, 1999; Bryson, 2002 & Oosthuizen, 1993).

2.2.4.7.1. Income generated from salary and wages

Besides farming, rural women are involved in different activities generating income. Just like many rural men, they look at the urban sector and urban employment as a route to household economic survival and advancement (Weidman, 2003). Walker, (1998) highlighted that in the context of high unemployment rates; women are less likely to secure employment and are paid less when they do. Consequently, most rural black women are found in poorly paid domestic labour and micro enterprises which do not offer job security and benefits or much by way of legislative protection. Kornegay (1996) claimed employed women are concentrated in low-paying occupations. Therefore, access to land thus remains a crucial factor in the economic

survival of female-headed households in rural areas (Walker (1998). Moreover, the study on gendered livelihood strategies in rural South Africa and Appalachia showed many women engage in a tradition of cooperation through informal support networks. Some studies in the gender and development have paid increase attention to the growth of small businesses and entrepreneurship-generating income among women in rural areas (Oberhauser, 1998).

2.2.4.7.2. Self-employed women

The study on Gendered livelihood strategies in rural South Africa and Appalachia revealed an estimated three-quarter of household income in the former Bantustans is from remittances and 10-15 % is from informal activities such as crafting and street vending (Oberhauser, 1998). The crafting and street vending activities are largely undertaken by women and children since remittances from migrant labour are not always reliable and are frequently controlled by the males. All these activities are done in addition to their primary responsibility for domestic tasks and agricultural production, burdens which place significant pressure on their time and physical well-being. McIntosh (1991) examined the importance of such cooperative action in generating income, especially among women, and the ability to alleviate poverty and pursue rural development goals in the Transkei and Kwazulu-Natal. It was demonstrated that rural women generate income through women producer groups. However, many of these activities are limited by inadequate training, finance, and technological inputs. Oberhauser, (1998) argues that Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) also play crucial role in helping rural women to generate income by supporting their activities e.g. ‘operation blanket’ is a non-profit group that oversees the sewing group of women in the North West region. The mission of this NGO is to promote sustainable growth and development for marginalized communities in rural

areas especially women in order to earn income for their livelihood. The sewing group receives technical training and some financial support to purchase equipment and raw materials (Kundu, 1996).

2.2.4.8 A suggested conceptual and analytical framework.

On the basis of the arguments developed by Ellis (1998), the specific hypotheses examined in the empirical analysis are as follows: (a) inheritance is an important way for a woman to access land (b) rural women are more likely to turn to farming activity for their living (c) besides farming, rural women are involved in other activities generating income (d) lack of education is a factor that constrains women to access land (e) age of women is a feature that constrains women from participating in farming activities (f) women living in rural areas are more involved in small-scale farming than women in urban areas (g) besides farming, women derive income from other sources.

More so the proposed conceptual framework focuses mainly on individuals and land plot characteristics. The study expects to have large number of black women living in rural areas who rely heavily on land by subsistence farming. Women are also expected to acquire land indirectly through husbands or their male kin. Women who do not have enough size of land for agricultural purpose resort to off-farm activities whether as self employed or working in public spheres as managerial, domestic workers or entrepreneurs. Access to land will be determined by physical being of individuals such as place of residence whether living in rural or in urban areas, and by physiological state of individual as well such as sex, age, literacy, and educational level. Physiological being (age) might be a limiting factor or facilitate women to have access to land. Educated women are assumed to have access to information regarding

land acquisition and they have their capabilities and manner to manipulate traditional leaders who have land in their possession i.e. the highly educated the woman is, the greater she has access to land.

Women also differ in their social attributes, where married, widow, divorced or separated women experience land access differently. Even if divorced or separated women do not have support, they can work on their own and earn a living. It is predicted in this study to see the variations where land is used for different agricultural purposes. Intra-household relationships must be taken into account, since one expects to see the difference between women who are living alone as compared to the ones who are living with children as dependents. The hypotheses suggest two relevant comparisons. Firstly, to compare 2004 and 2007 GHS data by land access, methods of acquisition to their social characteristics in order to ascertain the extent to which women are relatively more disadvantaged in the different modes of land access and the ways in which they obtain small plot for farming. Secondly, to compare the importance of land in rural women's subsistence and diversified income on the basis of land related variables and women's social characteristics variables.

CHAPTER 3: REVIEW OF SOME POLICIES

In response to challenges women encounter in land access, activists are struggling to introduce or strengthen laws intended to give women more secure access to land and are combating social norms and practices in their way. Despite many obstacles, they are making headway here and there and the position faced by women is receiving increasing attention in land policy reform process**.**

3.1 International land policy framework

International law has framed gender equality as part of global concern on human rights and basic freedoms for social, economic and political rights. These include claims on access to and control over productive resources like land. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted in 1948 (UDHR, 1948) and various international laws and conventions developed afterwards have a number of provisions to address gender equality. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) prohibits any distinction, exclusion or restriction on the basis of gender that harms or nullifies women's human rights and fundamental freedoms (Woldetensaye, 2007). It establishes women's rights to be equal with those of men to political, economic and social participation and benefit.

The Beijing Declaration in Article 35 states that governments should ensure women's equal access to economic resources including land, credit, science and technology, and vocational training as a means to further the advancement and empowerment of women (Woldetensaye, 2007). Governments are required to incorporate gender perspectives in all policies and programs to bring about political, economic and social development through women's empowerment and gender equality. It should be noted

that Zambia is a signatory to a number of international instruments including the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against, the SADC (Southern African Development Community) AGender and Development Declaration of 1997 and the 1995 Beijing Declaration (Machina, 2002). These were considered critical areas of concern because feminization of poverty had become a significant problem in developing countries. Women's limited access to productive resources and inequitable decision-making power was put as major reason for feminization of poverty. Governments are required to re-formulate macro-economic policies that address gender disparities in economic power sharing to alleviate poverty and advance economic growth. Gender mainstreaming was considered a major strategy to be followed by states to alleviate poverty especially among women living in rural households (Woldetensaye, 2007).

The United Nations Higher Commission on Human Rights passed resolution on women's equal ownership access to and control over property and land (UNHCR 2003/22). International conventions ratified by governments including international human rights instruments and women's equal rights conventions were bases for considering women's access to and control over land as human rights issue in the resolution. African Protocol to the African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa adopted by the Organization of African Unity (OAU) called upon all African states to eliminate discrimination against women and to ensure women's rights as set in international declarations and conventions (Woldetensaye, 2007). It demanded African governments to combat all forms of discrimination against women through appropriate legislative and institutional measures. The protocol includes a number of articles on women's social, economic and political equality and gives particular

emphasis to the rights of widows and divorcees. UN agencies and international organizations play significant roles in supporting women's equal rights on access to and control over land. The Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) of the UN led international efforts to overcome hunger. FAO draws special attention to rural development and facilitates debate forums on land policy issues. FAO established ILC (International Land Community) that focuses on women's access to land and gender relations in land tenure. ILC runs 'Gender Relations in Tenure Project' on women's rights to land which focuses on key issues regarding women's access to land (Woldetensaye, 2007). Furthermore, several international agencies such as the World Bank, USAID, (United State Agency for International Development) SIDA (Swedish International Development Agency), and Oxfam GB are taking gender issues as major concern in land policy formulation in their land and agriculture related development programs in developing countries.

3.2 National land policy

Under apartheid, land was distributed purely on racial basis and apartheid policies dispossessed many black people of their land (Williams, 2007). Since the dawn of colonial occupation, native people were dispossessed and robbed of their land, and were paid to work on what was formerly theirs. Apartheid policies merely reinforced and accelerated the process of land dispossession in the race for white dominance through providing them with access to wealth and power, and oppressed a majority through economic isolation and racial subordination (Mokogpe, 2000 and Williams, 2007). Since the dawn of colonial occupation in South Africa, native people were disposed and robbed of their land, became occupiers of it, and were paid to work on what was formerly theirs. The most conspicuous of these policies was probably the Native Land Act of 1913 (Monster, 2002). Other racially discriminating land policies

were the 1936 Native Trust and Land Act, the 1939 Control and Improvement of Livestock in Native Land Act as well as the Group Area Act. Many people were forcibly removed from their land and concentrated on land that was either not suitable for agricultural use or inadequate for both residential and agricultural purposes. Under the apartheid policies like the Native Act, a minority (12,6% of the population) owned 87% of the land, and the majority of South Africans were concentrated on overcrowded pieces of land reserved for black people (Budlender and Latsky. (1991). Many of these areas were geographically remote and marginalized. The most popular of these gave rise to areas known as "Bantustans", located in the former homelands. The removal of black people from their land was also largely accelerated by the so-called "betterment schemes" which promised agricultural growth if people were to move to compact villages (Mgwigwi, 1999). Even though the promise of betterment planning never materialized, McIntosh and Vaughan (1999) noted that there exists evidence to suggest that it had genuine objectives to promote conservation and increase agricultural productivity. They further note that government resisted providing the range of resources, services, and infrastructure needed resulting in its downfall.

With democratic legislation now in place, government soon realized the need to remedy land dispossession resulting from past discriminatory laws. Legislation included the process of land reform which is aimed at poverty alleviation, through the improvement of rural livelihoods and targeting the poor. Mokgope (2000) points out that access to land in the past was unbalanced because the rural poor and particularly Africans were prohibited from owning land. The land reform programme also recognises the fact that women have also been discriminated against in terms of

having access to land. In addition to giving the rural poor access to land, the land reform programme also recognises that there is a need to target women specifically.

A research done in the Queenstown district of the Eastern Cape showed specifically targeting women would have helped them, given that women are financially weaker and constitute majority of the poor. Therefore, targeting women should be complimented with access to services, including credits and other financial services, and skills and knowledge training (Mokgope, 2000; Cross & Hornby, 2002). As already stated, majority of the country's landless population are poor rural women. Thus, an effective land reform programme must recognise the centrality of women's needs and interests. The former homelands comprise predominantly women-headed households, and irrespective of household type, women bear the additional burdens of domestic and reproductive responsibilities. For this reason, Cross and Hornby (2002) suggested both national and household level objectives are dependent on the improvement of women's access to and control over resources, including land. If women's access to and control over land can be increased through land reform, it becomes an effective anti-poverty asset for poor rural women in particular, and hence, rural development can begin to occur from the bottom up (Cross & Hornsby, 2002).

More so, the Act does not address individual rights to security of tenure and the accountability of forms of land administration. The important issue that the government needs not to ignore if whether or not the three streams of land policies serve to address is gender roles. There is visible transformation of gender policies and the role amongst the poorest women is lagging behind and these rural women are most likely to be in government offices (the assumption is lack of education). It is the

policy option adopted that the government seems to restrict poor women from being involved in the programmes.

The Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD) programme designed to represent the redistribution criteria to the allocation of land for sustainable growth by community seems to be the only instrument making progress in addressing access to land for women. LRAD provide an excellent vehicle for redressing gender imbalances in land access and land ownership by allowing agricultural projects under LRAP given that even women can associate themselves to assist each other. The sub-programme will serve as a means of creating opportunities to enable women to develop skills thus giving them security against poverty and providing them with an independence economic status, by just ensuring women participate fully in asset redistribution and agrarian reform (Cross & Hornby, 2002. Women rights in regards to property rights are a sensitive debate under customary law. Bjuris & Daniels (2009), note that in October 2008 the constitutionality of the communal Land Rights Act (Act 11 of 2004, herein after the CLRA) was challenged in the Pretoria High Court and the outcome is keenly awaited. In this case, four communities (Kalkfontein, Makuleke, Makgobistad and Dixie) appeared before the court to challenge the constitutionality of CLRA. Thus, according to Bjuris & Daniels (2009) some of those challenges are summarised as follow:

1) The Bill was rushed through parliament before the 2004 elections and public hearings, required by the Constitution, did not take place.

2) By giving traditional leaders undemocratic and unpre7cented powers, the CLRA actually undermines security of tenure rights must be strengthened, protected, protected and guaranteed.

3) The CLRA allows traditional councils that are not democratically elected to become land administrators and sell land with the permission of the land rights board.

4) The CLRA discriminates against black owners of property as white owners in a similar position have full title to their land.

5) The executive function given to traditional councils falls outside the limited role and function given to them by the Constitution and The CLRA will make tenure of women more insecure.

3.3 Obstacles in achieving policy outcomes

Longway (1999) and Ovonji-Odida (1999) showed more affirmative action is needed to ensure that women's voice is properly heard. Affirmative action is required to ensure that women are represented in commissions which are set up to advice on land issues, land administration body, resettlement scheme authorities and land dispute mechanisms. Land reforms cannot be ignored in the process of women's rights to equal treatment. Decentralization of land management is essential for improving people's access to land. Local government is the most appropriate level of government to handle land management in favour of local populations. Toulmin & Quan (2000) suggested where gender balance has not been achieved, a more considered analysis should be made in order to reveal hidden constrains which prevent women from coming forward as representatives, and making their voices heard within policy making.

Knowing that ensuring implementation of women's rights within the village setting is one of the more intractable problems of gender balancing policies, revision of the constitution, land laws and other laws will not automatically change practices. Law merely provides a framework within which rights and relationships are to be negotiated. A stronger legal status does not automatically afford women more

independence but it may provide a stronger bargaining position (NEDA, 1997). For women to be able to exercise their rights, sufficient support must be given to them in order to assert what rights they have, including being able to resist strong pressure to relinquish them. Quadros (1999) and Dzumbira (1999) suggested provisions could usefully be made to inform women of their rights in relation to land and provide training in legal literacy.

The land-delivery systems that are in many countries remain centralized, inefficient and expensive. These cause problem to any citizen who try to acquire land, but the poor especially the women, are the ones that suffer most from it. A review of land-delivery systems is required to make them more efficient. Women have to get better access to information about land transactions including stages of land purchase and transfer, the required documentation and charges (Habitat, 1994). Land information systems in every country should be examined from a gender point of view. It should be possible to register more than one owner in the system. Co-ownership registration must be introduced and promoted, reflecting both names in case of a couple, all names in a family, community or co-operative. The information system must also facilitate registration of different kinds of ownership and tenure. What is generally missing among women is awareness of their legal rights and of the opportunities that are available to them. In order to create awareness of women's rights vis-à-vis tradition non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and women's groups should be important actors at community level. They should provide education, legal support, advice and information on women's rural and urban land rights (Lee-Smith, 1994). Networking among women's groups is another essential step to support and promote equal gender rights to land and property. Groups of women can meet and exchange information and

skills, and formulate joint action programs. When women are more organized and well informed, they have more power and courage to demand their rights (Habitat, 1996). A dialogue should be created between professional women and grassroots women.

Women are often excluded from education, which put them in a disadvantaged position in the world of work and political life. Even those who can read have problems understanding the technical language used in documents on shelter development (Habitat, 1994). There is an urgent need to increase women's educational opportunities, from literacy campaigns to scholarship. A study conducted on security of widows' access to land in the era of HIV/AIDS in Zambia, suggested efforts to safeguard widows' rights to land by mobilizing support among traditional authorities to better understand the social and economic impacts of existing land inheritance institutions may have high economic, social, and health payoffs (Chapton, Jayne & Mason 2007). In other words, clear policy and practical intervention to transform traditional institutions and their practices, is critical to ensure that all rural women living under communal tenure systems benefit. Evidences existed showing women are significant users of land and the income that they derive is critical to the sustainability of their rural households (Mokgope, 2000 & Cross & Hornby, 2002). However, an important blockage is that women do not have independent legal evidence about their interests in their husbands, brothers or father's property. Thus, the need for such emerges at crisis moments in women's lives such as divorce or the death of a spouse, when the rights they had as a result of their relationship to the household through their husband are placed under stress. Hence, this confirmed the need for some policy thrust such as the need for property records that reflect women's interests in land as

well as changes to legal impediments to women's access, such as marriage and inheritance laws. In terms of policy implementation and practice, the land interests of individual household members need to be unraveled and ways need to be found to protect these against internal household claims (Cross & Hornby, 2002).

Moreover, Davison (1988) suggested solution to women's lack of tenure security require decisions at the national level that put into practice laws that guarantee a woman's right to inherit land as a daughter. Further, legislation is needed to ensure that widows, who currently have no legal protection, receive the right to inherit their husband's property. Finally, policies must be advanced that make available to women, regardless of marital status, capital for the purchase of land. Furthermore, increased government commitment to ensure security of widow's access to land is another approach to safeguarding widow's access to land, but initial evaluations of government efforts provide mixed evidence (Izumi, 2006). Government decrees will likely have little impact if local community authorities are not part of the agreement (Chapton & Mason, 2007). But certainly, national governments, donors, and NGOs have an important role to play in developing programs to work with local authorities to protect widows and children against property grabbing by relatives of the deceased as well as to institute property rights that are more compatible with social protection and antipoverty (Chapton *et al.*, 2007).

Palmer (2002), in Gendered Land Rights, process, struggle, or Lost clause made some very useful policy recommendations to advance and protect women's rights in land access, summarized thus:

(1.) Constitutional commitment to gender equality must be a fundamental principle.

(2.) The statutory provision for joint registration of customary household land rights

for spouses and the adoption or retention of the spousal consent requirement in the case of land transfers.

(3.) Provisions to protect communal resources from privatization and alienation should be safeguarded.

(4.) Government investment in non-farm rural development as an urgent priority should be supported.

(5.) Provisions to ensure that women are represented on local level land administration bodies and training for government officials tasked with the implementation of land policies on gender issues and women's rights.

(6.) The review and repeal of all personal, family and customary law, including provisions on inheritance, which discriminate against women, as well as the review and repeal of any other legislation that prevents women from owning land or entering into contracts in their own right.

(7.) Strengthening the capacity of local-level institutions to administer land and adjudicate disputes in a gender-neutral way, through the recruitment of women personnel, the training of personnel, and the review of existing practices.

(8.) Initiating a major review of all land policies in the light of HIV/AIDS, looking at district-level, demographic, economic and social impacts on land access and land use.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Throughout this chapter, numerous stages of the research methodology used in this study are discussed. Scope and perspective with respect to the nature and type of research conducted is the first part to be discussed. The second part to be discussed relates to the study design. The sampling techniques and methods of data collection are also discussed. The data analysis and its stages regarding how the data are organised, reduced, analysed, and displayed is discussed. Data analysis which also involves the description of variables such as the descriptive name, position, source, valid range, and valid range of variables constitutes an important part of this study. The procedure involves measuring demographic variables and land-related variables (bivariate analysis) to test association are provided. In this context, hypotheses also are tested to see if they are true or false and the conclusion is given. The chapter ends with the discussion on the limitations of this study.

4.2. SCOPE AND PERSPECTIVE

The research on women's access to land is quantitative as it makes use of variables; hypothesis testing and scientific sampling. From a statistical view point, little is known about the profile of women across the nine provinces of South Africa. The study is based on demographic characteristics such as age, gender, and marital status, occupational groups, education, and household composition, province of residence and population groups.

The study will also focus on land use, land acquisition and land tenure, by looking at variables such as size, methods of land acquisition, activities taking place on the land and land ownership. In this study, household is used as a unit of analysis. By bringing together the demographic variables and land-related variables, the study has captured the structural changes between 2004 and 2007.

4.3 STUDY DESIGN

The type of research design is cross-sectional study, where a sample survey conducted as a personal interview by means of household questionnaire. The same questions were asked to respondents to get information concerning people's past experiences regarding access to land. This is the reason why the use of the General Household Survey since it provides coherent information and a true picture of data which is assumed to be of good quality. However, as the interest of the study lies in the how, from statistical view point, land is accessed by women across nine provinces, by using demographic variables and land related variables, the study allows the researcher to see the differentials in terms of land access, land use, different types of activities taking place in land, and the study shows in which province women access land easily. Statistically, the study has captured the structural changes by comparing the findings of 2004 and 2007.

4.4. SOURCE OF DATA

Full data sets (2004 and 2007) were obtained by requesting them from Statistics South Africa. Knowing that GHS provides comprehensive information, a multi-stage stratified sample was drawn using probability proportional to size principles. The sample was drawn from the master sample, which Statistics South Africa uses to draw samples for its regular household survey. The master sample was drawn from the data base of Enumeration Areas (EAs) established during the demarcation phase of census

1996. As part of the master sample, small EAs consisting of fewer than 100 households were combined with adjacent EAs to form primary sampling units (PSUs) of at least 100 households, to allow for repeated sampling of dwelling units within PSU (SSA, 2004). The sampling procedures for the master sample involved explicit stratification by province and within each province, by urban and non-urban areas. Within each stratum, the sample was allocated disproportionately. A PPS sample of PSUs was drawn in each stratum, with the measure of size being the number of households in the PSU. Altogether approximately 3000 PSUs were selected. In each selected PSU a systematic sample of 10 dwelling units was drawn, thus, resulting in approximately 31400 dwelling units and the sample was representative throughout the nine provinces of South Africa. The instrument was the household questionnaire designed for GHS for 2004. A personal interview was conducted, and every head of household was interviewed. General Household Survey of July 2004 contains four files namely person, worker, tourism, and house files. The files which interest this study are person, worker, and house files.

4.5. METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS

The main objective of data analysis is to compare observed findings with expected findings as it has stated in hypotheses for empirical observation. To perform the data analysis, the use of a computer is helpful because of large data sets and variables. In so doing, SPSS, as an appropriate statistical software package, was used. The data analysis of this study consists of three operations such as description of all variables, quantification of relationships between variables, and then comparison of observed findings with expected findings.

Bivariate analysis to test association between variables is performed. Chi-square is used to test the association between two variables. Independent variables are cross-tabulated with dependent variables according to the level of measurement. The variable regarded as independent (demographic variables) is filled in the column and the one believed to be dependent (land related variables) in the row. Tables are produced in SPSS.

Comparison, observed and expected values are compared to check if the hypotheses are supported or rejected. A big gap (P-value) suggests that the hypothesis formulated is not significant, whereas a narrow gap (P-value less than 0, 05) shows that the association is significant. However, if the divergence between observed and expected findings occurs, investigation regarding the reason will be checked. The tables are constructed in such a way that the hypotheses are answered.

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{\left(o_{ij} - e_{ij}\right)^2}{e_{ij}}$$

Moreover, statistical significance testing such as Lambda, Cramer's V and Kruskal tau are used to measure the strength. All this was done to consider both the difference between the observed and the expected findings regarding access to land of those women living in rural and urban areas in general (married) and women headed household in particular (widows, divorced/separated and single daughters/ mothers) across the nine South African provinces. The study measures the circumstances in which women access land and the inequalities that may exist in the context of land acquisition and closely related issues, given that women are among the marginalised groups and invisible in terms of land access, land ownership and land tenure.

4.6. DELIMITATION TO THE STUDY

The study on women's access to land focuses on small-scale farming and is limited to the nine provinces of South Africa. Only women aged between 15 and 85 years and above are the main focus and household serves as a unit of analysis. The study compares 2004 and 2007 data sets, and the structural changes in terms of women and land access across the country are provided.

4.7. DESCRIPTION OF VARIABLES.

In this study, variables were selected according to variables used in GHS.

The variables used were divided into three categories based on the following characteristics: socio-demographic, socio-economic and location variables. The variables being analyzed are categorized as follow:

Socio-demographic variables: (age, gender, marital status, population group, education, and household composition**)**. These variables are coded in a person file which includes data from Flap and section one.

Land related variables: (land use, land access, land acquisition, land size**,** land tenure). These variables are kept in a house file and contain the data from section four.

*Socio-economic variables**:*** (occupation, income, economic activities**)** these variables are coded in a worker file and contain the data from section two

Location variables: (residential area, rural and urban**)** this variable is recoded in person file.

4.7.1. SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Instrumental variables are defined along the lines of the level of measurement used by Statistics South Africa.

4.7.1.1 Age groups

This question was asked to find out the age of the household members (the person's). The question was asked of each member of the household. The enumerators had instructions to write complete years in whole numbers and not in words. Then, the age was captured and re-coded into groups using SPSS as follows: 15-19, 20-24, 25-29, 30-34, 35-39, 40-44, 45-49, 50-54, 55-59, 60-64 and 65-69, 70-74, 75-79, 80 years and above. The age group that interests this study starts at 15 because it is assumed that from the age of 15, every member of the household can own land.

4.7.1.2 Gender

The question "Is (the person) a male or female" is asked each household member to determine his or her gender. The enumerators were not supposed to assume the gender of the members of the households by simply looking at people's names or physical appearances. Then the gender or sex of participants was recoded as male, female or unspecified.

4.7.1.3 Marital status

The question about marital status of the members of the household was "what is (the person)'s present marital status". This question combines both modern and traditional marriages considered in this question. Marital status of the participants was categorized as follow: (1) Married or living together, (2) Widow/Widower, (3) Divorced or separated, (4) Never married. Moreover, the question such as "Does the person's spouse/partner live in this household"? Yes or No. This question was applicable to people who indicated that they are married or living together as husband

and wife. Furthermore, the question such as which person is the spouse/partner of….was applicable for those people who said “Yes” to the question above. It confirms that the information on the previous question, which seeks to determine whether couples within the visited household, live together or not.

4.7.1.4 Source of income

The question regarding the main source of income, “What is the main source of income for this household”? It was applicable to all household members for interest in their main source of income. The enumerator was required to ask for the main source of income, even in cases where more than one is applicable. Other non-farm income was income from the sales of a business, other than a farm, operated by a household, also begging, and selling of illegal items. The information obtained referring to this question was recorded as: (1) salaries and/or wages, (2) remittances, (3) pensions and grants, (5) sales of farm products, (6) other non-farm income, (7) No income,

4.7.1.5 Household composition

With household composition variable, we will know how many widows with adult children, younger widows with young children, and single mothers with children. Hence, the questions such as “What is the person’s relationship to the head of the household”. This kind of question was asked for each member of the household to determine their relationship to the head of the household. In this regard, the respondent was asked to give the information on how each member is related to the head of the household. Thus, the household composition was recorded in nine categories: (1) Mark the head/acting head; (2) husband/wife/partner; (3) son/daughter/step child/adopted child; (4) brother/sister; (5) father/mother; (6) grandparent/great grandparent; (7) grandchild/great grandchild; (8) other relative (e.g. in-laws or aunt/uncle); (9) non-related persons.

4.7.1.6 Population groups

The question “What population group does (the person) belong to”? It was asked to determine the population group of the persons from the selected dwelling. In this case, the respondent had to answer for each member without any assumption. In this circumstance, the enumerator was not supposed to make any conclusion influenced, for example, by using people’s names during the interview. This question seems very sensitive but very important since we need to find out the composition of the South African population. Thus, the population groups were coded in four groups: (1) African/black, (2) coloured, (3) Indian/Asian, (4) White.

4.7.1.7 Ability to read

The following question was asked “Can the person read in at least one language”? This question was on literacy of the members of the household. It was applicable to each member of the household who is considered to read simple sentences. That means, a person who can only read his name and surname is not regarded as being able to read. Thus, the information regarding this question was coded as “Yes” or “No”.

4.7.1.8 Ability to write

The question on literacy also was asked “Can the person write in at least one language”? This question was on literacy of the members of the household. It is applicable to each member of the household. A person who is considered able to write must be able to write simple sentences. That means a person who can only write his or her name and surname is not regarded as being able to write. The information on this question was coded as “Yes or No”.

4.7.1.9 Educational level

The question about the highest educational level was asked was ” What is the highest level of education that (the person) has completed”? This question is applicable to all household members. The question focused on the qualifications already obtained should be entered. This means that the current level with which a person is still busy with was not applicable. In this regard, diplomas and certificates should be of six months duration.

Thus, the levels of education were recorded as follows: (1) no schooling, (2) Primary school from Grade 1 to Grade 6; Grade 7/Standard 5; (3) Secondary school: from Grade 8/Standard 6/Form 1 to Grade 11/Standard 9/Form 4; (4) Grade 12/Standard/10/ Form 5/; Matric with NTC (National Tertiary Certificates), certificates with lower than Grade 12/Standard 10, certificate with less than Grade 12/Standard 10, (5) Certificates and Diplomas with Grade 12/ Standard 10; (6) Tertiary education: Bachelor degrees and diplomas, Honours degrees, (7) Highest degree: Master’s and Doctorate.

4.7.2 LAND-RELATED VARIABLES

4.7.2.1 Land use or activities in agricultural land

This variable is applicable to households with access to agricultural land or could be used for that purpose. The main purpose for this question is to find the nature of activities done on agricultural land. With regard to this variable, categories are recoded (1) field crop; (2) horticulture; (3) livestock; and (4) poultry (7) orchard.

4.7.2.2 Land access

In order to get information on land access variable, the following question was asked: “Does this household has access to land that is, or could be, used for agricultural

purposes**"?** This question was asked of all household members who have access to land for agricultural purposes or could be used for that purpose. In this regard, the enumerator must exclude communal grazing land if the respondent answers "Yes".

4.7.2.3 Land size

The question regarding land size was asked in terms of number of hectares. This question was "How many hectares of land, for agricultural purposes, if any, does the household have access to"? This type of question was only applicable to the households with agricultural land or land that could be used for agricultural purpose.

The idea behind this question was to get information about the number of hectares of land the households have access to, excluding the communal land. In case the respondent do not know or is not sure of how many hectares, then the enumerator may use the following example as a guideline: a hectare is 10 000 square meters, thus category one means less than one half of a hectares. However, the size of the land was estimated in six categories: (1) less than 5.000 m approximately one soccer field; (2) 5.000-9.999 m; (3) 1 but less than 5 ha; (4) 5 but less than 10 ha; (5) 10 but less than 20 ha; 20 ha or more.

4.7.2.4 Basis of land access or methods of land acquisition

Land acquisition is a land related variable used to identify the methods of accessibility. Then the question was asked like this "On what basis does the household have access to the land". This question is applicable to households with access to agricultural land or could be used for that purpose. The objective of this question is to know about the degree of security and control that the household has in respect of the land. If the household has more than one plot or piece of land, then the respondent has to answer for the largest. Hence, the information in regard to this

variable was recoded in four ways: (1) own land; (2) rent the land; (3) share cropping; (4) tribal authority.

4.7.3 SOCIO-ECONOMIC VARIABLES

4.7.3.1 Income category

The question regarding income category was applicable to household members who have been performing certain economic activities in the last seven days. Given that this kind of information is personal the enumerator must inform respondent that the information will be confidential. Then the enumerator would draw a range of money in Rand and the respondent would point on one of those incomes, and state whether it is weekly, monthly or annually. In this regard, income was categorized as 1) none; 2) weekly (R1-R46); 3) monthly (R1-R200); 4) annually (R1-R2400)

4.7.3.2 Main occupation

The following questions were asked of all household members aged 15 years or older to identify the type of work the person does. The information was recoded into 10 categories. 1) legislators, senior officials and mangers; 2) professionals; 3) technical and associate professionals; 4) clerical; 5) service workers and shop and market sales workers; 6) skilled agricultural and fishery workers; 7) craft and related trades workers; 8) plant and machine operators and assemblers; 9) elementary occupation; 10) domestic workers.

4.7.4. LOCATION VARIABLES

4.7.4.1 Residential area (Stratum)

Concerning location variable, residential area was the main focus. Residential area is a derived variable derived from the type per province. Thus, it was recoded according to the nine South African provinces as follow: (1) Western Cape rural or urban; (2) Eastern Cape: rural or urban; (3) Northern Cape: rural or urban; (4) Free State: rural

or urban; (5) Kwazulu-Natal: rural or urban; (6) Northern Cape: rural or urban; (7) Gauteng: rural or urban; (8) Mpumalanga: rural or urban; and (9) Limpopo: rural or urban

4.8 Data analysis

Firstly, the rate of women's household headship is computed to assess the magnitude of women heading households across the nine provinces of South Africa.

The formula used is the following: $\frac{\text{Total Households headed by Female}}{\text{Total Households headed by male and female}} * 100$

Secondly, cross tabulation is used to control the relationship between land-related variables and social demographic characteristics variables. Third, given that most of the variables are nominal, the use of Chi-square to test association between two variables is appropriate. In addition, Cramer's V, Lambda and Tau are also appropriate to measure the strength of the association.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter involves the analysis of the data collected during the General Household Survey (GHS) of 2004 and 2007. The statistical analysis was based on demographic characteristics such age, gender, marital status, occupational groups, education, province of residence, and population groups of head of households. The analysis also focused on land use and acquisition by looking at variables such as land size, different mechanisms of land acquisition, activities taking place on acquired land, main source of income and income category. Furthermore, by means of cross-tabulation and bivariate analysis of demographic and land-related variables, the analysis captured the structural change which occurred between 2004 and 2007. Although the focus of this study is based on women aged between 15-85 years and above, living in rural areas across nine provinces of South Africa, men of the same age groups are also included in the analysis. This inclusion is justified by the fact that it brings a broader-based comparison than of looking at women-headed households only.

5.1 Women and household headship

According to the National Social Development Report (1997), the majority of women-headed households are found among South Africa's rural population. Traditionally, women in rural areas have been regarded as people who are attached to their homes thus, fulfilling various tasks and reporting to their husbands. However, when it comes to decision making on specific issues such as economic and political matters, men are the ones who take the lead. Mahlangu says that the household is the place where most socio-economic and demographic decisions are taken. Women have been shown to play a pivotal role in the reconstruction and development and hence,

they are seen as the backbone of the South African economy due to their significant contribution to the national polity (Mahlangu, 2007).

Table 1 illustrates the rate of male- and female-headed households for 2004 and 2007 across the nine provinces of South Africa; depicting sharp variations across the country. In 2004, Northern Province had the highest rate of households headed by women (51 %), followed by Eastern Cape (49 %) and Kwazulu-Natal (46 %). Gauteng has the lowest rate of female-households (31 %) suggesting that most households in this province were headed by men. More so, in 2007, the proportion of female-headed households was shown to have increased significantly at the natural level. This may be indicative of increased responsibilities in terms of gender-balanced relations. Again, the Northern Province (53 %) took the lead, followed by Kwazulu-Natal (50 %). The proportion in the Eastern Cape remained the same (49 %), while the Northern West increased to 46 %, Mpumalanga to 41 %, and the Northern Cape to 34 %. The Western Cape and Gauteng have the same proportion of 31 % and they have not increased. The total rates of female-headed households in 2004 (41.0 %) compared to that of 2007 (43.0 %) show an increment of 2.0 %.

Consequently, the increasing rate of female-headed households implies that across the provinces, considerable household responsibilities fall on women's shoulders hence, they have to take care of all responsibilities in their families. Given that female-headed households are strongly represented in the surveys, it is pertinent to say that women contribute to the development of the country. This is in support of earlier claims stated in the literature. However, women are the single most disadvantaged and vulnerable category where inequality and power relations heavily hamper their ability to gain access to the most basic resources such as land for small scale farming; which

they need in their pursuit of sustainable livelihoods (Marcus & Wildschut, 1996; Davison, 1998; Woldetensaye, 2007).

More so, it can be seen that the rate of female-headed households cannot be underestimated in the context of African society. It can be inferred from the results in Table 1, the important role women play in the society as actors for development. Despite this reality, women remain disadvantaged in many ways. In many situations their work remains unacknowledged. Gender equality has not been achieved and women do not enjoy equal rights with men in accessing and having control over land and other productive resources (Woldetensaye, 2007).

Table 1: Rates of male- and female-headed households by province

Province	Household (2004)			Household (2007)		
	Total HH	Female HH	Rates %	Total HH	Female HH	Rates %
WC	2703	854	32	2431	759	31
EC	3557	1738	49	2880	1415	49
NC	1251	413	33	1316	452	34
FS	2269	728	32	1733	693	40
KZN	4428	2044	46	4893	2466	50
NW	2571	993	39	1478	683	46
Gtg	4083	1263	31	2078	646	31
Mlnga	2309	930	40	1608	663	41
NP	3043	1552	51	1941	1028	53
Total	26214	10516	40	20355	8805	43

WC: Western Cape; EC: Eastern Cape; NC: Northern Cape; FS: Free State; KZN: Kwazulu-Natal; NW: Northern West; GTG: Gauteng; MLNG: Mpumalanga; NP: Northern Province.

5.2 Distribution of land access by gender

Land is unquestionably one of the most fundamental resources with regards to self sustainability and development (Bjuris & Daniels, 2009). Female-headed households are faced with the responsibility for food production for growing populations. Even in male-headed households, women often have prime responsibility for food production, while men commonly concentrate on cash crops. Rural women in particular are responsible for half of the world's food production and produce between 60-80 % of food in most developing countries and particularly in South Africa (Cox and Magel, 2002).

The distribution of households that have access to land for small-scale farming by gender is shown in Table 2. The proportion of male- and female-headed households that have access to land for agriculture purpose for both 2004 and 2007 is indicated. In 2004, high proportion of households that have access to land for small-scale farming is found among female-headed households (16 %), while only 10 % of male-headed households have access. However, it should be noted that even though women are the most to have access to land in this case; they do not own it in their own names. Women lack rights to land, which tends to be held by men or kinship groups controlled by men and women access is mainly through a male relative, usually after a husband (Kimani, 2008). For both genders, those who do not have access to land outnumber those who have access to it, which meant the majority of the population do not rely on land as their primary source of household income because of its scarcity. Thus, of the 10501 female respondents, 16 % have access to land, while 87 % do not have access to land for small-scale farming. Moreover, of 15676 male respondents, 10.0 % reported they have access to land whereas 90 % admitted they do not have access to it.

However, from the 2007 survey, the findings show that the rate of female- and male-headed households that have access to land has decreased. Results showed that of the 8593 female respondents, 14 % reported they have access to land, while 86 % do not have access to it. More so, out of the 11292 male respondents, 9 % admitted they have access to land whereas 90 % do not. Comparing results from both years, it could be seen that in 2007, the proportions of households that have access to land have slightly decreased among both genders. The implication is that there is more reliance on other source of income by people for their livelihood than farming.

Table 2: Distribution of land access by gender in 2004 and 2007

Land Access	Gender (2004)			Gender (2007)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Yes	1574 10.0%	1712 16.3%	3286 12.6%	1036 9.2%	1172 13.6%	2208 11.1%
No	14102 90.0%	8789 83. %	22891 87.4%	10256 90.8%	7421 86.4%	16677 88.9%
Total	15676 100.0%	10501 100.0%	26177 100.0%	11292 100.0%	8593 100.0%	9885 100.0%

5.3 Land access in rural and urban areas by gender across the province

Land plays a more important role in rural areas than in urban areas because majority of the rural population rely on the land. Table 3 (see Appendix 1) provides the findings on land access by province making a distinction of rural and urban area and. However, it should be noted that this question was only asked in the 2004 survey but not in 2007. The findings distributed by gender indicates that majority of men- and

women-headed households that have access to land is situated in rural areas more than in the urban areas. It was shown that for males, the highest proportion of access to land was witnessed in the rural Eastern Cape areas (62 %) and 11 % in the urban areas; followed closely by rural Kwazulu-Natal areas (35 %) and a meagre 1 % in the urban areas; and then rural Northern Province areas (25 %) but which has a meagre 1 % in urban areas. More so, for female-headed households, the same pattern of land access in rural and urban areas by gender was observed across the provinces, but with at a higher proportion than seen for the males. The rural Eastern Cape areas has the highest rate at 66 % and only 12 % in urban areas; followed by rural Kwazulu-Natal (49 %) and a meager 1 % in urban areas. These trends clearly show how small-plot for agriculture remains important for most rural households, especially for domestic food consumption, and it is shown that people particularly in rural areas look to farming or natural resource harvesting as sources of livelihood (Palmer & Sender, 2000). Hence, as stipulated by FAO, specific policy measures are required to address the constraints facing women farmers and to give special consideration to the needs of female-headed households.

5.4 Land access by province and gender

Table 4 shows the distribution of households headed by males and females that have access to land for agricultural purposes across nine provinces of South Africa in 2004 and 2007. In 2004, the Eastern Cape (44 %), followed by Kwazulu-Natal (28 %) and the Northern Province (19 %) were shown to the highest proportion (in descending order) of female-headed households with access to land for agriculture. As it is well known, the Eastern Cape is predominantly rural hence; many women are involved in small-scale farming. Kwazulu-Natal has a dominant rural based economy involving

households headed by women and as shown in Table 1, it is one of the provinces with a high proportion of households headed by women. In Gauteng, women do not have access to land at all meaning that land in this province is mostly in the hands of men. Among male-headed households, a total of 9 % reported they have access to land for small-scale farming. Across the provinces, Eastern Cape (35 %), followed by the Northern Province (18 %) are the provinces with the highest access to land for agriculture. A reported 1 % for Gauteng is the least proportion of male-headed households having access to land for agriculture purpose. The overall trend showed Eastern Cape as the province with highest proportion of households with access to land for agriculture for both males and females because those provinces are predominantly rural. Gauteng is the least province among all provinces of South Africa with a low proportion of households having access to land.

More so, the data from Table 4 also show the distribution of land across provinces between both genders in 2007. The survey revealed that among male-headed households, Eastern Cape (25 %), followed by Kwazulu-Natal (15 %) and Northern Province (14 %) were the areas with the highest proportion of land accessibility. However, Gauteng still remained the province with the lowest proportion of male headed households having no access to land. The rest of the provinces do not show much variation in proportions. As expected in the female-headed households, the Eastern Cape (35 %), Kwazulu-Natal (19 %), and the Northern Province (16 %) in a descending order were the provinces with the highest proportion of accessibility to land. The Western Cape (0.3 %) instead of Gauteng became the province having the least proportion of land accessibility to females. In general, of the 8593 households surveyed, 14 % have access to land, whereas 86 % do not have.

Comparatively, referring to the two dates 2004 and 2007, table 4 showed land access decreased from 10 % to 9 % among males in and from 16 % to 14 % among females respectively. Hence, females seem to have experienced a bigger decrease in percentage gap (2%) compared to males (1 %). The Eastern Cape women are shown to access land easily due to its high proportion of female-headed households; it is mainly rural hence, women have to rely on land for food production for their daily survival. Furthermore, due to the prevailing poverty environment, the Eastern Cape women do not have many other alternatives of earning income to make a living.

Table 4: Distribution of land access and province by gender

Gender	Land access	Province 2004									
		WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GTG	MLNG	NP	Total
Male	Yes	69 3.7%	633 34.9%	42 5%	60 3.9%	361 15.2%	67 4.2%	28 1.0%	46 3.3%	268 18.0%	1574 10.0%
	No	1778 96.3%	1183 65.1%	796 95.0%	1480 96.1%	2017 84.8%	1511 95.8%	2785 99%	1331 96.7%	1221 82.0%	14102 90.0%
	Total	1847 100%	1816 100%	838 100%	1580 100%	2378 100%	1578 100%	2813 100%	1377 100%	1489 100%	15676 100%
Female	Yes	13 1.5%	762 43.9%	2 0.5%	14 1.9%	561 27.5%	34 3.4%	0 0%	36 3.9%	290 18.7%	1712 16.3%
	No	840 98.5%	974 56.1%	410 99.5%	714 98.1%	1479 72.5%	958 96.6%	1260 100%	892 96.1%	1262 81.3%	8789 83.7%
	Total	853 100%	1736 100%	412 10 %	728 100%	2040 100%	992 100%	1260 100%	928 100%	1552 100%	10501 100%
		2007									
Male	Yes	63 3.9%	359 25.0%	30 3.5%	31 3.1%	341 14.5%	38 4.9%	19 1.4%	30 3.3%	125 13.8%	1036 9.2%
	No	1567 96.1%	1076 75.0 %	820 96%	990 97.0%	2013 85.5%	742 95.1%	1383 98.6%	887 96.7%	778 86.2%	10256 90.8%
	Total	1630 100%	1435 100%	850 100%	1021 100%	2354 100%	780 100%	1402 100%	917 100%	903 100%	11292 100%
Female	Yes	2 0.3%	476 34.6%	9 2.0%	7 1%	453 19.0%	23 3.4%	7 1.1%	31 4.8%	164 16.0%	1172 13.6%
	No	736 99.7%	902 65.4 %	432 98%	671 99.0%	1934 81.0%	644 96.6%	627 98.9%	617 95.2%	859 84%	7421 86.4%
	Total	738 100%	1377 100%	441 100%	678 100%	2387 100%	667 100%	634 100%	648 100%	1023 100%	8593 100%

WC: Western Cape; EC: Eastern Cape; NC: Northern Cape; FS: Free State; KZN: Kwazulu-Natal; NW: Northern West; GTG: Gauteng; MLNG: Mpumalanga; NP: Northern Province

5.5 Land access and ethnic group by gender

Population ethnic group remains a very informative demographic variable. It was used to assess at what extent land was accessed among Africans/Blacks, Coloureds, Indians/Asians, and Whites according to the gender of the head of households in both the 2004 and 2007 GHS**.** The distribution of households that have access to land by population ethnic groups and gender is shown in Table 5. In 2004, analyzed data from the survey showed female-headed households of Africans/Blacks with the highest proportion (19 %), followed by Whites (4 %), and the Coloureds (2 %), while Indian/Asians (1 %) remains the population ethnic group to have least access to land. Regarding male headed-households, Africans/Blacks (12 %), followed by Whites (9 %), and the Coloureds (3 %), while Indians/Asians (1 %) have the access to land. Overall, the highest proportion of households with access to land among all population groups according to both genders in 2004 is found among the Africans/Blacks because this category of population, particularly women, are found in rural areas and rely more on small-scale farming for their livelihoods.

Investigating the 2007 GHS data revealed that in male headed-households, the highest proportion of individuals having access to land for small-scale farming are the Whites (12 %), followed by Africans/Blacks (11 %), and the Indians/Asians (4 %), while the. Coloureds (1 %) are less likely to have access to land. The total proportion of households that have access to land among males in 2007 is 9 %. On the female side, access to land is highest among Africans/Blacks (16 %), which is different from male where highest proportion is seen among Whites. However, apart from African/Black households, there is no much variation in terms of proportion among the rest of population groups that have access to land.

Comparative analysis across all populations groups, female Africans/Blacks have highest proportion at 19 % in 2004, but in 2007, male-headed households of Whites had the highest proportion at 12 %, and female-headed households of Africans/Blacks at 16 % have access to land. Black female in rural areas tend to have high proportion of households which rely on small-scale farming for food production and consumption because they are the most vulnerable and disadvantaged group. From historical background, Yanou (2006) stated the Native land Act No 27 of 1913 forced black women to work as labourers in white farms under labour tenancies that were easily subjected to terminations. This made them more vulnerable to evictions than their male colleagues.

Table 5: Distribution of land access by population group and gender

Gender	Land Access(2004)	Population groups					
		African/Black	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Other	Total
Male	Yes	1310	46	3	215	0	1574
2004		11.8%	2.6%	6%	9.3%	.0%	10.0%
	No	9798	1735	469	208	13	14102
		88.2%	97.4%	99.4%	90.7%7	100.0%	90.0%
	Total	11108	1781	472	2302	13	15676
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Female	Yes	1667	21	1	23	0	1712
		18.9%	2.3%	.8%	3.6%	0.0%	16.3%
	No	7152	883	127	618	9	8789
		81.1%	97.7%	99.2%	96.4%	100.0%	83.7%
	Total	8819	904	128	641	9	10501
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Male	**(2007)**	857	21	10	147	0	1035
2007	Yes	10.5%	1.3%	3.6%	12.1%	0.0%	9.2%
	No	7270	1632	266	1068	0	10236
		89.5%	98.7%	96.4%	87.9%	0.0%	
	Total	8127	1653	276	1215	0	11271
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Female	Yes	1159	9	1	3	0	1172
		15.8%	1.1%	1.3%	.9%	0.0%	13.7%
	No	6156	848	75	335	0	7414
		84.2%	98.9%	98.7%	99.1%	0.0%	86.3%
	Total	7315	857	76	338	0	8586
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	0%	100.0%

5.6. Age differentials in land access by gender

Age may be a social demographic characteristic which show how generations of male- and female-headed households have access to land for agriculture. Table 6 shows male- and female-headed households from different age groups who have access to land for agriculture purpose. The respondents were classified into five age groups: 15-29 years, 30-44 years, 45-59 years, 60-74 years, 75-80 years and above. The proportion of female-headed households with access to land for both 2004 and 2007 is highest among those aged 60-74 years; and 75-80 years and above (21 %), followed by those in 45-59 age group at16%. Young female household heads aged between 15-29 and 30-44 age groups have access to land at lesser extent.

The pattern shown suggested that age of women may be a contributing factor to gaining access to land at older age i.e. the older the woman, the stronger the likelihood of accessing land for small-scale farming. The reason behind this may be that at old age, women do not have other alternatives of income earning other than farming to make a living. On the contrary, low proportion of female-headed households with access to land is found among the younger age group (15-29 years), which increases as the age groups go higher. The result suggest old women have high proportion in land access because at this age families are more intact, even widows at this age are less likely to marry again. On the male's side, high rates are also observed among households that are appearing in old age, but they constitute lower rate at younger age compared to females. Comparing data analysis from 2004 and 2007 survey, there is no significant difference among both genders in terms of land access.

Table 6: Distribution of land access by age group and gender

Age group	Gender					
	Land access by males			Land access by females		
	Yes %	No %	Total %	Yes %	No %	Total %
15-29 (2004)	166 (8.6)	1772 (91.4)	1938 (100.0)	183 (15)	1052 (84)	1255 (100.0)
30-44	456 (8.1)	5190 (92.0)	5646 (100.0)	474 (14)	2973 (86)	3447 (100.0)
45-59	457 (10,0)	4130 (90.0)	4587 (100.0)	497 (16)	2619 (84.1)	3116 (100.0)
60-74	377 (14.1)	2303 (86.0)	2680 (100.0)	405 (21)	1553 (79.3)	1958 (100.0)
75-80+	118 (14.3)	707 (85.7)	825 (100.0)	153 (21)	672 (93)	725 (100.0)
Total	1574 (10)	14102(90)	15676 (100).	1712(16.3)	8789 (84)	10501 (100.0)
15-29 (2007)	360 (8.3)	3963 (98.7)	4323 (100.0)	462 (14.0)	2957(86.0)	3420 100.0
30-44	299 (10.5)	2842(89.5)	3141 (100.0)	310 (16.0)	1977 (84.0)	2287 100.0
45-59	224 (11.0)	2036 (99.0)	2260 (100.0)	231 (13.4)	1488 (86.6)	1719 100.0
60-74	111 (10.1)	1103 (99.9)	1214 (100.0)	110 (15.0)	734 (85.0)	944 100.0
75-85+	42 (13.5)	312 (88.1)	354 (100.0)	58 (22.0)	265 (88.0)	323 100.0
Total	1036(10.1)	10256 (91.0)	11292(100.0)	1172 (16.0)	7421 (84.0)	8593 100.0

5.7 Land access and marital status by gender

In South Africa and elsewhere in Africa, marital status is a determining factor of how land is accessed as women differ in terms of their position within the household structure as wives (living together as husband and wife), divorced, widows or single daughters. These differences determine women's ability to obtain land in their own rights, and to ensure secure tenure afterwards. Table 7 shows the distribution of male- and female-headed households with access to land for agriculture purposes according to marital status and gender for 2004 and 2007. The 2004 data shows that among female-headed households, divorced/separated women are more likely to rely on land for small-scale farming (23 %). This clearly explains how migration to mines by South African men has affected the family stability. Moreover, the government

contributed to this instability by implementing regulations which prevented dependants from joining heads of family at the workplace hence, the observed increase in women separated from their husbands is observed. Since divorced/separated women are the most vulnerable they tend to rely more on agriculture for their living compared to other women who were married. Households of married women returned a proportion of 17 % but at a lesser extent than divorced or separated women. The overall findings in 2004 showed there is no much variation in the trends of households with access to land among women in South Africa. However, the findings revealed a high proportion among male-headed households in the divorced/separated category (12 %), followed by the group of those who were married (11 %).

Furthermore, in 2007, 14 % of the total respondent admitted they have access to land for small-scale farming. In female-headed households, couples living together (16 %) reported they have access to land, while 12 % of widows were successful in accessing land for agriculture, 16 % of divorced/separated women gave a positive response, and out of a total of 4258 of the never married group, 14 % have access to land for agriculture. The findings revealed the variations among female-headed household are not that large since most age groups access land at an almost equal extent. However, the literature suggests widows are more disadvantaged in terms of land access compared to other categories of women because they are often totally dispossessed immediately after the death of the husband. Thus, a widow is not sometimes recognized as a person who earned part of the property or contributed to its existence. Comparatively, it was shown not much change has occurred in terms of land access among male-households in regards to marital status. Conversely, among female-

headed households, a general decrease was observed in 2007, from 23% to 12% particularly among divorced/separated women.

Table 7: Distribution of land access by marital status and gender

Marital status	Land access					
	Male			Female		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
(2004)						
Married/living	457	3717	4174	505	2430	2935
together	10.9%	89.1%	100.0%	17.2%	82.8%	100%
Widow/Widower	86	880	966	93	507	600
	8.9%	91.1%	100.0%	15.5%	84.5%	100.0%
Divorced/separated	84	351	399	55	185	240
	12.0%	88.0%	100.0%	22.9%	77.1%	100.0%
Never married	981	9148	10131	1059	5663	6722
	9.7%	90.3%	100.0%	15.8%	84.2%	100.0%
Total	1574	14096	15670	1712	8785	10497
	10.0%	90.0%	100.0%	16.3%	83.7%	100.0%
(2007)						
Married	390	3473	3863	383	2438	2821
	10.0%	89.9%	100.0%	13.6%	86.4%	100.0%
Living together	61	680	741	96	505	601
	8.2%	91.8%	100.0%	16.0%	84.0%	100.0%
Widow/Widower	85	836	921	79	579	658
	9.2%	90.8%	100.0%	12.0%	88.0%	100.0%
Divorced/separated	39	292	331	39	211	250
	11.8%	88.2%	100.0%	15.6%	84.4%	100.0%
Never married	461	4963	5424	575	3683	4258
	8.5%	91.5%	100.0%	13.5%	86.5%	100.0%
Total	1036	10244	11280	1172	7416	8588
	9.2%	90.8%	100.0%	13.6%	86.5%	100.0

5.8 Differentials in land access and literacy by gender

Literacy is a mechanism that can transform and boost women's participation in development, because it can stimulate and enhance individual initiative. Table 8 indicated that in 2004, out of 1712 female respondents who reported access to land, 17 % are literate whereas 15 % are illiterate. Hence, out of 8786 reported not having

access to land, 83 % are literate while 85 % are illiterate. The results suggested illiteracy may be a limiting factor in the development process of women in South Africa, especially in the rural areas where a high proportion of illiterate women have no access to land. Illiteracy and literacy thus have an important impact in terms of land access which enhances women's empowerment. Empowerment simply referred to the availability of objects and assets to women, which improve their security or influence and hence, improve their household bargaining power and facilitate empowerment more broadly (Allendorf, 2007).

Furthermore, results from the 2007 survey revealed 9 % of male respondents are literate (know how to read) and have access to land. More so, 10 % have access to land, but are illiterate (don't know how to read and write). Ninety-one percent (91 %) of male respondents reported not having access to land even though they read and write. This result suggests on one hand, literacy does not influence land access, since one can know how to read and write without having access to land. Conversely, literacy remains a contributing factor since high proportions of male respondents who have access to land are found among the literates. Nevertheless, 14 % female respondents who can read and write do have access to land, whereas those who do not have any plot of land but know how to read and write equals 86 %. Generally, results showed higher proportion of literate females have access to land than males. Consequently, it could be concluded that literacy plays an important role among female-headed households in terms of land access.

Table 8: Distribution of land access and literacy by gender

Gender	Land access	Ability to read (2004)			Ability to read (2007)		
		Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Male	Yes	1177	397	1574	914	122	1036
		10.6%	8.8%	10.0%	9.1%	9.7%	9.2%
	No	9970	4130	14100	9109	1138	10247
		89.4%	91.2%	90.0%	90.9%	90.3%	90.8%
	Total	11147	4527	15674	10023	1260	11283
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Female	Yes	1277	435	1712	1036	136	1172
		16.9%	14.7%	16.3%	13.6%	13.8%	13.6%
	No	6263	2523	8786	6568	847	7415
		83.1%	85.3%	83.7%	86.4%	86.2%	86.4%
	Total	7540	2958	10498	7604	983	8587
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

5.9 Land access by highest level of education and gender

Educational level is an important parameter needed to stimulate, create, achieve and enhance active participation of rural women in development. Kongolo & Bamgose supported this argument by stating that, ideally, education should contribute to economic development, equalize opportunities between social classes, reduce disparities in the distribution of income and prepare the labour force for a modern economy. A lack of education is enhanced by inequalities and disparities in accessing and controlling household resources such as land. Not having access to land leads to absolute poverty in the rural areas. Nevertheless, International Organizations such as UNESCO and the World Bank are becoming increasingly aware of the importance of

women in national development, and the fact that education can contribute to their playing a much more meaningful role in development (Kongolo & Bamgose, 2002).

The distribution of land access by highest level of education and gender is shown in Table 9 (Appendix 2). In 2004, the proportion of male respondents with no schooling but having access to land equals 34 % of a total 2799, while 33 % of 1830 female respondents with no schooling have access to land. Using primary school level as an index of distribution, male respondents who have access to land and have passed through Grade R/0 amounted to 6 %, Grade 1 was 5 %. An increment in the proportions was observed from Grade 1 to Grade 7 which peaked at 16 %. For female respondents who could access land, an increment was observed in their proportion from Grade 2 (5 %) to Grade 7 (16 %). The high proportion of non-schooling among females with access to land reflected the role of cultural values, as well as economic realities of limited family resources and employment opportunities for women, which in the past have inhibited South African girls' entry into primary and secondary education may now be prominent factors inhibiting them from entering universities. As consequence, lack of education on the part of women, as stated elsewhere in this study, deprives them of their productivity levels in the rural areas, because they will remain ignorant of ways and means of producing more on the farm (Kelly, 1987). At primary school level, the overall result show that the proportion of male (31.8 % in 2004; 21.3 % in 2007) and female (33.1 % in 2004; 22.4 % in 2007) respondents who could not access land due to their not having any form of school remain unacceptably high.

At secondary school level, there is no much variation among male-headed households who have access to land, but the proportion is higher among matric holders (27.8 % in

2004 against 27.1 % in 2007). The same pattern was observed among female-headed households who have matric certificates (29.1 % in 2004 against 30.0 % in 2007). Hence, there is no much variation between 2004 and 2007 among female-headed households who have access to land. Question about the distribution of land access by educational certificate and gender were asked during the 2004 GHS survey but not in 2007. Hence, the proportion of male respondents with higher certificates is at highest among those having a diploma with Grade 12 (56.7 %). The same pattern is observed among females with those having a diploma with Grade 12 (61.1 %) being the highest.

However, in 2007, the question about the distribution of land access by certificate and gender was not formatted. Hence, male respondents with a postgraduate degree or diploma (43.8 %) made up the highest proportion of those who have access to land. Same result was observed among female respondents with a postgraduate degree or diploma (45.9 %) who were able to access land. On the other hand, 40.2 % females reported not having access to land even though they have had a postgraduate degree or diploma. Looking at those respondents who have a university degree, male respondents with bachelor degrees (60 %) have the highest proportion of graduates who could access land, while among the female graduates, those with bachelor degrees (2.1 %) accounted for the lowest proportion. This finding showed the attainment of higher degree like Masters and doctorate does not show access to land in the favour of both male and females, particularly females. Nevertheless, a lack of education from women still deprives them of their productivity level especially in the rural areas, because they will remain ignorant of ways and means of producing more on the farm.

The results depicted in Appendix 2 showed education is an important factor which strongly affects demographic as well as other socio-economic behaviours in society. Head of households with no schooling is not necessarily illiterate. Head of households who have not attended school can read and write through participation in adult education programmes, literacy programmes, and other means such as church/mosque education.

In general, a decrease in terms of proportion of male and female educated and have access to land has been observed between 2004 and 2007. In conceptualizing the results, education is an important demographic factor when it is linked to land access especially as women remain vulnerable, disadvantaged and a marginalized group. A relatively high proportion of those who have access to land are observed among women with higher education. This may suggest that the more women are educated, the more they are open-minded to how scarce resources such as land are accessed and controlled. In general, educated women have more than one options of acquiring land as they are in better position for earning income than uneducated ones. Hence, sufficient political will and sustained commitment to women's education are required among other efforts, to meeting economic needs and interest of most rural women by the local authorities and governments.

5.10 Methods of land acquisition and stratum (rural and urban) by gender

Further analysis was carried out to explore the relationship between methods of land acquisition by stratum and gender of head of households as shown in Table 10 (Appendix 3). This was done by means of cross-tabulating methods of land acquisition which is a land-related variable and stratum which is one of the

demographic characteristics of women staying in a place which might either be rural or urban in any province of South Africa. The literature has shown rural women are more disadvantaged in terms of land access, and some of the ways by which they acquire land includes land ownership, renting, sharecropping, and tribal authority. The findings in Appendix 3 showed across all provinces, female households acquire land through tribal authority (63 %), followed by land titling or land ownership (35 %). Mores so, highest proportion of those who are able to access is found amongst female households living in rural areas of each province. Throughout all provinces, tribal authority is ranked first as a method that helps South African women to obtain land for agriculture.

5.11 Methods of land acquisition and population groups by gender

Despite the importance of land, many women are not allowed to acquire land under the customary tenure system. In South Africa, customary and statutory tenure co-exist. Even though Section 9 of South African Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) entrenches the principle of non-discrimination, women continue to be victims of unfair discrimination under both tenure systems. As pointed out by the former Minister of Finance, Mr. Trevor Manuel, this is unacceptable as rural women produce about 80 % of the food growth in Africa but own just 2 % of all agricultural land and only 1 % of agricultural credit (Manuel, 2007). Table 11 provides the insight of mechanisms by which both male and female from different population groups obtain land for agriculture. The methods of land acquisition were controlled using demographic variables such as population groups and gender of the head of households in order to measure these differentials.

In 2004, female-headed households who own lands are highest among the whites (83 %), followed by Coloureds (81 %), and African/Blacks (33 %). Hence, renting land is not common phenomenon among female-headed households because a meagre 1 % of households, which is found among Black/African, use this method to acquire land. Sharecropping is predominant among the white population (13 %), but only 1 % of female-headed African/Black households use this method. However, tribal authority is one of the methods through which African/Black female-headed households (64 %) access land for small-scale farming. With the tribal authority mechanism, land is obtained through the chief and then, through male relatives. However, this process becomes so challenging to women who want to acquire their own land. Moreover, out of 1690 female-headed households across all population groups, 35 % own land, 1 % rent land, 1% obtain land by means of sharecropping, 62 % access land through tribal authority, and 1 % by means of other unspecified mechanisms. Nevertheless, land title and land tenure tend to be vested in white men at 86 %, either by legal condition or by socio-cultural norms. Land shortage is specifically common among Asian/ Indian women.

Furthermore, the methods of land acquisition were also investigated using the same variables in analyzing data from the GHS of 2007 in order to make a comparison. Of 876 African/Black male respondents, 46 % own land; 3 % rent land; 3 % share crops with the landlord; 47 % acquire land from tribal authority; while 3 % obtain land through other ways. Of 28 Coloured male-headed households, 50 % own land; 27 % rent land; 11 % share crops; 7% access land through tribal authority; and 4 % through other methods. Indian/Asian male respondents acquire land at an equal basis (8 %); while of 151 white male respondents, 86 % own land and the rest acquire it at an

equal rate. Hence, out of 1645 African/Black female-headed household, 43 % own land; 2 % admitted they acquire land by means of share cropping with the landlord; 51 % reported they access land by tribal authority; 3 % obtain land by renting; and 3 % by other means such as getting it as a gift or by buying it. Out of 18 Coloured respondents, 30 % own land; 10 % rent land; 20 % access land by sharing crops; 10 % by tribal authority; and 20 % through other means. However, among white female-headed households, 22 % own land; 33 % rent land; 33 % share crops; while 11 % obtain land by other ways.

The above findings revealed male-headed households have high proportion of land access entitled in their names than females. It also confirmed evidences from the literature which showed women are less likely to have land written in their own names. Moreover, female access is significantly through tribal authority than male, implying that tribal authority is one of the methods which facilitate women to access land. The data from 2007 is though encouraging in the sense that the total proportion of women who own land has increased 8 % from 2004, those who rent land has also increased by 2 %, while those who share crops with the landlord increased by 2 %. Conversely, female-headed households who acquire land through tribal authority have, however, decreased by 12 %.

Table 11: Distribution of methods of land acquisition and population group by gender

Gender	Land acquisition	Population group				2004	Population group				2007
		Afr/Black	Coloured	Asian /Indian	White	Total	Africa Black	Coloured	Asian/ Indian	White	Total
Male	Owns the land	478 37.0%	27 58.7%	3 100.0%	183 86.3%	691 44.5%	403 45.8%	14 50.0%	9 7.5%	130 86.1%	556 52.0%
	Rents the land	28 2.2%	2 4.3%	0 0.0	15 7.1%	45 2.9%	23 2.6%	8 28.6%	1 8.3%	12 7.9%	44 4.1%
	Share cropping	9 0,7%	0 0.0%	0 0.0	3 1.4%	12 0.8%	18 2.0%	3 10.7%	1 8.3%	2 1.3%	24 2.2%
	Tribal authority	729 56.4%	2 4.3%	0 0.0	1 0.5%	732 47.1%	410 46.6%	2 7.1%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	412 38.5%
	Other, specif	49 3.8%	15 32.6%	0 0.0	10 4.7%	74 4.8%	22 2.5%	1 3.6%	1 8.3%	7 4.6%	31 2.9%
	Total	1293 100.0%	46 100.0%	3 100.0%	212 100.0 %	1554 100.0%	876 100.0	28 100.0%	12 100.0%	151 100.0 %	1070 100.0%
Female	Owns the land	549 33.4%	17 81.0%	1 100.0%	19 82.6%	586 34.7%	512 43.2%	3 30.0%	0 0.0%	2 22.2%	518 43.0%
	Rents the land	15 0.9%	0 0.0%	0 0.0	0 0.0%	15 0.9%	30 2.5%	1 10.0%	12 100.0%	3 33.3%	36 3.0%
	Share cropping	8 0.5%	0 0.0%	0 0.0	1 4.3%	11 0.7%	26 2.2%	2 20.0%	1 100.0%	3 33.3%	30 2.5%
	Tribal authority	1052 64.0%	1 4.8%	0 0.0	0 0.0%	1053 62.3%	604 51.0%	10 10.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	605 50.2%
	Other, specify	20 1.2%	3 14.3%	0 0.0	1 4.3%	24 1.4%	13 1.1%	2 20.0%	0 0.0%	1 11.1%	16 1.3%
	Total	1645 100.0%	21 100.0%	1 100.0	21 100.0 %	1689 100.0%	1185 100.0%	18 10.0%	13 100.0%	9 100.0 %	1205 100.0%

5.12 Differentials in methods of land acquisition and marital status by gender

The methods of land acquisition were also analyzed using marital status to see if there is any effect as it is usually reported in literature. The traditional notion is that for women, inheritance through male kin and chief is an important way of acquiring land. The patterns displayed in table 12 shows that the total proportion of male respondents who own land increased from 45 % in 2004 to 52 % in 2007. More so, the proportion of married men-headed households increased from 43 % in 2004 to 48 % in 2007. Widowers owned land at 42 % in 2004, but this increased to 57 % in 2007. Divorced men owned land at 58 % in 2004 and it increased to 72 % in 2007. The never married male-headed households owned land at 45 % in 2004, which increased to 54 % in 2007. Meanwhile, in female-headed households, married respondents owned land at 32 % in 2004 and this increased to 43 % in 2007. Widows owned land at 36 % in 2004 and this increased to 44 % in 2007. Divorced women also own land at 46 % in 2004, but this decreased to 41 % in 2007. The never married women own land at 35 % in 2004 and the proportion increased in 2007 to 44 %. Across board, male respondents have high proportion of land ownership than female-headed households, and divorced female-headed households have access to land ownership than other categories of women even though there was a decrease in their proportion.

The total proportion of female-headed households renting land in 2004 was 1 % and it tripled to 3 % in 2007. The same pattern was observed among married female respondents sharing crops with the landlords. Married female-headed households, who obtain land through traditional law (tribal authority) were 65 % in 2004 but decreased to 52 % in 2007, while the proportion of widows which was 62 % in 2004, decreased to 47 % in 2007. The proportion of divorced/separated female respondents

who can access land through tribal authority was 49 % in 2004 and increased to 54 % in 2007, while the never married female respondents which were 62 % in 2004 decreased to 49 % in 2007.

In general, the results above showed the proportion of male households with land entitled to their own names was higher than of female households, though the proportion has slightly decreased in 2007. Conversely, the total proportion of female-headed households with land entitled in their names gradually increased from 35 % in 2004 to 43 % in 2007. More so, the total proportion of females who acquire land through tribal authority decreased from 62 % in 2004 to 50 % in 2007. A general conclusion is that women, regardless of their marital status, obtain land through traditional authority even though small size of land is entitled in their own names compared to men. This statement support the traditional notion which says that inheritance is an important way through which women acquire land.

Table 12: Methods of land acquisition and marital status by gender

Gender	Land acquisition	Marital status(2004)					Marital status (2007)					
		Married/ living together	Widow/ Widower	Divorced/ separated	Never married	Total	Married	Living together	Widow/ Widower	Divorced/Separated	Never married	Total
Male	Owns the land	194 43.3%	36 41.9%	28 58.3%	433 44.5%	691 44.5%	193 47.8%	33 52.4%	48 56.5%	28 71.8%	253 53.5%	557 52.2%
	Rents the land	11 2.5%	2 2.3%	1 2.1%	31 3.2%	45 2.9%	21 5.1%	2 3.2%	7 8.2%	0 0.0%	14 3.0%	44 4.1%
	Share cropping	1 0.2%	1 1.2%	1 2.1%	9 0.9%	12 0.8%	10 2.5%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	14 3.0%	24 2.2%
	Tribal authority	217 48.4%	40 46.5%	17 35.4%	458 47.1%	732 47.1%	172 42.2%	22 34.9%	27 3.8%	11 28.2%	180 38.1%	412 38.6%
	Other, specif	25 5.6%	7 8.1%	1 2.1%	41 4.2%	74 4.8%	10 2.5%	6 9.5%	3 3.5%	0 0.0	12 2.5%	31 2.9%
	Total	448 100.0%	86 100.0%	48 100.0%	972 100.0	1554 100.0	408 100.0%	63 100.0%	85 100.0%	39 100.0	473 100.0%	1068 100.0
Female	Owns land	158 31.8%	33 36.3%	25 45.5%	370 35.4	586 34.7%	168 42.6%	39 39.8%	36 44.4%	16 41.0%	259 43.7%	518 43.0%
	Rents the land	4 0.8%	1 1.1%	1 1.8%	9 0.9%	15 0.9%	8 2.0%	2 2.0%	4 4.9%	1 2.6%	21 3.5%	36 3.0%
	Share cropping	5 1.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	6 0.6	11 0.7%	10 2.5%	1 1.0%	2 2.5%	1 2.6%	16 2.7%	30 2.5%
	Tribal authority	323 65.0%	56 61.5%	27 49.1%	647 61.9%	1053 62.3%	204 51.8%	54 55.1%	38 46.9%	21 53.8%	288 48.6%	605 50.2%
	Other, specify	7 1.4%	1 1.1%	2 3.6%	14 1.3%	24 1.4%%	4 1.0%	2 2.0%	1 1.2%	0 0.0%	9 1.5%	16 1.3%
	Total	497 100.0%	91 100.0%	55 100.0%	1046 100.0	1689 100.0	394 100.0	98 100.0	81 100.0	39 100.0	593 100.0	1205 100.0

5.13 Methods of land acquisition and literacy by gender

As hypothesized, literacy is an important variable used to control if methods of land acquisition are linked to ability to read or to write of the head of households. Hence, the findings on Table 13 (Appendix 4) regarding land acquisition and ability to read

and write showed out of 1665 female respondents, 1239 admitted that they are literate and have access to land in 2004. Among them, tribal authority remained the method of acquisition due to its high proportion of 63 %, followed by those who actually have their lands (34 %). The same pattern of land acquisition was also observed among female respondents who are illiterate. However, literate head of households show high proportion of land access than their illiterate counterparts.

In regards to 2007 GHS data, high proportion of head of households is found among male who own land and who are literate at 52 %, followed by male who obtain land through tribal authority (39 %). Those who do not know how to read and write also acquire land through different methods but at lesser extent compared to those who know it. Among female-headed households who are literates, high proportion is found among those who acquire land through tribal authority (51 %), followed by those who have their own land (42 %). Ability to read and to write is tool to helping women negotiate ways of acquiring land for small-scale farming.

5.14 Land size and population group by gender

The size of the land is an important indicator of the population for optional use of the land holding by men and women for small-scale farming across population groups. Analyzing the GHS 2004 data, the distribution of number of hectares among female households show that majority of Africans/Blacks and Coloured have access to land but particularly on small size of land (less than 5.000m^2), and then the number of households decreases as the number of hectares increases. More so, it was observed white female-headed households (4.3 %) have access to bigger size (20 ha or more) of the land compared to other population groups. Among males, whites and Coloured

have access to bigger size (20 ha or more) than other population groups. Overall in 2004, 8 % of males compared to 1 % of females have access to bigger size (20 ha or more) of lands. This confirmed reports that females farm smaller and more dispersed plots and are less likely to hold title, secure land ownership, or to have the same rights to use land.

Furthermore, analysis of the 2007 GHS data revealed among African/Black female head of households, 65 % reported they have access to land which is less than 5000 m² (approximately one soccer field), but this proportion decreases as the number of hectares increase. Among the Coloured and white female respondents, similar pattern of higher proportion having smaller plots of land and fewer or non-existent proportion having access to bigger plots of land was also observed. However, only one female Indian/Asian respondent reported she has access to land of 20 ha or more. Results showed even though there was a drop in the proportion of whites with access to bigger farmlands, they still remain the ethnic group with the highest accessibility to large size of the land in South Africa.

In conclusion, the proportion of female households with more land decreases between 2004 and 2007. The findings showed Africans/Blacks and Coloured have access to small plots of land compared to their white counterparts. Furthermore, white have access to bigger size than other population groups, particularly in 2007. This observed racial inequalities stemmed from the apartheid era when thousands of blacks were resettled in homelands outside the so-called 'white South Africa'. These homelands were too small to accommodate the large numbers of people who lived there hence; even good agricultural lands were used for residential purposes. Consequently, more

than 90 % of productive agricultural land still remains in the hands of commercial white farmers (Letsoale, 1987).

Table 14: Distribution of land size and population group by gender

Gender	Number of hectares	Population groups (2004)					Population groups (2007)				
		Africa/ Black	Coloured	Indian/ Asian	White	Total	Afri /Black	Coloured	Indian/ Asian	White	Total
Male	Less than 5.000m*2	838 64.3%	33 71.7%	1 33.3%	32 15.0 %	904 57.7%	547 60.6%	8 24.2%	3 25.0%	9 5.8%	567 51.5%
	5000m*2-9.999m*2	260 20.0%	3 6.5%	1 33.3%	7 3.3%	271 17.3%	129 14.3%	3 9.1%	1 8.3%	17 11.0%	150 13.6%
	1 but less than 5ha	150 11.5%	2 4.3%	0 0.0%	4 6.5%	166 10.6%	89 9.9%	6 18.2%	2 16.7%	14 9.1%	111 10.1%
	5 but less than 10ha	33 2.5%	2 4.3%	0 0.0%	13 6.1%	48 3.1%	54 6.0%	9 27.3%	3 25.0%	13 8.4%	79 7.2%
	10 but less than 20ha	7 0.5%	1 2.2%	0 0.0%	15 7.0%	23 1.5%	41 4.5%	4 12.1%	1 8.3%	21 13.6%	67 6.1%
	20ha or more	6 0.5%	3 6.5%	0 0.0%	121 5.6%	130 8.3%	13 1.4%	3 9.1%	2 16.7%	75 48.7%	93 8.4%
	Total	1294 100.0%	44 100.0 %	2 100.0%	192 100.0 %	1542 100.0%	873 100.0 %	33 100.0 %	12 100.0%	149 100.0 %	1067 100.0 %
Female	Less than 5.000m*2	1130 68.0%	20 95.2%	0 0.0%	8 34.8 %	1158 67.8%	790 64.6%	3 25.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	793 63.8%
	5000m*2-9.999m*2	341 20.5%	1 4.8%	0 0.0%	2 8.7%	344 20.2%	191 15.6%	2 16.7%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	193 15.5%
	1but less than 5ha	148 8.9%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	4 17.4 %	152 8.9%	111 15.6%	1 8.%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	112 9.0%
	5 but less than 10ha	26 1.6%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 4.3%	27 1.6%	60 4.9%	4 33.3%	0 00.0%	2 25.0%	112 5.3%
	10 but less than 20ha	4 0.2%	0 0.0%	1 100.0%	1 4.3%	6 0.4%	40 3.3%	1 8.3%	0 0.0%	3 37.5%	44 3.5%
	20ha or more	5 0.3%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 4.3%	9 0.5%	6 0.5%	0 0.0%	1 100.0%	2 25.9%	9 0.7%
	Total	1654 100.0%	21 100.0 %	1 100.0%	16 100%	1696 100.0%	11198 100.0 %	11 100.0 %	1 100.0%	7 100.0 %	1151 100.0 %

5.15 Farming activities taking place on the land

5.15.1 *Field crops*

In South Africa, as well as elsewhere in sub-Saharan Africa, there is a general agreement that small plots for agriculture remain important for most rural households, mostly for domestic consumption, and it is claimed that people look at farming or natural resource harvesting as a prime source of livelihood. Therefore, as the responsibility of producing food for the families lies on the hands of women they need enough size of the land so that they can produce sufficient crops for home consuming and for cash (Onwubike, 1990). For this reason, analysis was performed to control how much people rely on field crops across South African provinces. Table 15.1 showed the distribution of farming activities particularly field crops by province and gender for both 2004 and 2007. In 2004, the distribution of farming activities on land (field crops) among females indicates that women in Northern Province are more involved in field crops (99 %), followed by Kwazulu-Natal (95 %), and then Mpumalanga (88 %). In these provinces women rely much more on farming because these provinces are predominately rural. Therefore, field crops play a crucial role in food production. However, the Western Cape (63 %) remains the province where women are less likely involved in field crops. In the case of male-headed households, Northern Province (98 %); followed by Kwazulu-Natal (95 %) and Eastern Cape (84 %) are the provinces where there is a high reliance on field crops. These results show that most of the households are involved in farming (field crops) but females represent a high proportion households involved in farming activities.

However, in 2007, differentials were found among male and female involved in farming activities (field crops) across the nine provinces of South Africa. In female-headed households, Northern Province (98 %) followed by Mpumalanga (97 %) and

Kwazulu-Natal (94 %) are reported to be the provinces where women were highly likely to be involved in farming activities. Even though most rural women are involved in field crops, their proportions declined between 2004 and 2007, which might be likely due to some people moving from rural to the city for jobs seeking for cash income. Nevertheless, the general conclusion is that rural women are more likely to rely on field crops in most of the provinces which are predominantly rural, where other alternative of source of income are scarce. Besides field crops as farming activity on the land, people also are involved in horticulture.

Table 15.1: Distribution of activities taking place on the land (field crops) and province by gender

Gender	Field crops	Provinces (2004)									
		Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	Kwazulu Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpuma Langa	Northern Province	Total
Male	Yes	42 60.9%	528 83.7%	13 31.0%	34 57.6%	344 95.35	52 77.6%	18 63.3%	33 71.7%	262 97.8%	1326 84.4%
	No	27 39.1%	103 16.35%	29 69.0%	25 42.45 %	17 4.75%	15 22.4%	10 35.75 %	13 28.3%	6 2.25	245 15.6%
	Total	69 100%	631 100%	412 100%	59 100%	361 100%	67 100%	28 100%	46 100%	268 1005	1571 100%
Female	Yes	8 61.5%	660 86.8%	2 100%	11 78.65	534 95.4%	25 73.5%	0 0.0%	31 88.6%	288 99.3%	1559 91.3%
	No	5 38.5%	100 13.2%	0 0.0%	3 21.4%	26 4.6%	9 26.5%	0 0.0%	4 11.4%	2 0.7%	149 8.7%
	Total	13 100%	760 100%	2 100%	14 100%	560 100%	34 100%	0 0.0%	35 100%	290 100%	1708 100%
Provinces (2007)											
Male	Yes	24 37.5%	300 83.8%	14 48.3%	14 46.7%	309 90.6%	31 79.5%	8 92.9%	26 92.6%	119 96.0%	845 72.5%
	No	40 62.5%	58 16.2%	15 51.7%	16 53.3%	32 9.4%	8 20.5%	6 42.9%	2 7.1%	5 4.0%	182 17.7%
	Total	64 100%	358 100%	29 100%	30 100%	341 100%	39 100%	14 100%	28 100%	124 100%	1027 100%
Female	Yes	2 100%	396 83.4%	3 33.3%	4 57.1%	424 94.2%	19 82.6%	7 100%	29 96.7%	159 97.5%	1043 89.5%
	No	0 0.0%	79 16.6%	6 66.7%	3 42.9	26 5.8%	4 17.4%	0 0.0%	1 3.3%	4 2.5%	123 10.5%
	Total	2 100%	475 100%	9 100%	7 100%	450 100%	23 100%	7 100%	30 100%	163 100%	1165 100%

5.15.2 *Horticulture*

Horticulture (flowers) is also a type of farming activity taking place on the land in South Africa. The general picture is that both male- and female-headed households, across the nine provinces, are not much involved in this type of activity as the trends show it. Table 15.2 revealed the findings from 2004 GHS data, showed across all provinces, a total of 1 % of female-headed households are reported to be involved in horticulture, while 99 % reported they are not involved in this activity. The Northern Cape has the highest proportion (9 %), followed by the Western Cape at 8 %, while Kwazulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape have 1 %. Among households headed by males, Gauteng with 21 % has the highest proportion, followed by Western Cape with 13 %, and Kwazulu-Natal with 9 %. Northern Cape, Northern West and Northern Province are shown not to be involved in horticulture.

However, the 2007 GHS indicated that men and women are also involved in horticulture as an activity taking place across provinces. Out of 97 female-headed households who responded they rely on horticulture as farming activity on the land, the highest proportion was observed in the Western Cape (78 %), followed by the Free State at 46 %. The findings suggest that women are less involved in horticulture because they do not have enough size of land for farming compared to men. Hence, the proportion of households involved in horticulture has increased among both male and female in 2007. Aside horticulture, livestock is another prominent farming activity carried out on the land as a means of rural livelihood in South Africa.

Table15.2: Distribution of farming activities on the land (Horticulture) and province by gender

Gender	Horticulture	Provinces (2004)									
		Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	Kwazulu Natal	Northern West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Northern Province	Total
Male	Yes	9 13.0%	8 1.3%	0 0.0%	2 3.4%	3 8.8%	0 0.0%	6 21.4%	1 2.2%	0 0.0%	30 1.9%
	No	60 87.0%	622 98.7%	24 100%	57 96.6%	31 91.0%	0 0.0%	22 78.6%	45 97.8%	268 100%	1539 98.1%
	Total	69 100%	630 100%	42 100%	59 100%	360 100%	67 100%	28 100%	46 100%	268 100%	1569 100%
Female	Yes	1 7.7%	6 0.8%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	5 0.9%	3 8.8%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	15 0.9%
	No	12 92.3%	754 99.2%	2 100%	14 100%	554 99.1%	31 91.2%	0 0.0%	35 100%	290 100%	1692 99.1%
	Total	13 100%	760 100%	2 100%	14 100%	559 100%	34 100%	0 0.0%	35 100%	290 100%	1707 100%
Province (2007)											
Male	Yes	18 23.4%	24 6.4%	4 12.5%	10 26.3%	39 10.7%	10 22.2%	12 54.5%	14 34.1%	1 0.8%	132 11.8%
	No	59 76.6%	349 93.6%	28 87.5%	28 73.7%	327 89.3%	35 77.8%	10 45.5%	27 65.9%	121 99.2%	984 88.2%
	Total	77 100%	373 100%	32 100%	38 100%	366 100%	45 100%	22 100%	41 100%	122 100%	1116 100%
Female	Yes	7 77.8%	24 4.9%	3 25.0%	6 46.2%	40 8.4%	8 25.8%	2 22.2%	6 16.7%	1 0.6%	97 7.8%
	No	2 22.2%	467 95.1%	9 75.0%	7 53.8%	438 91.6%	23 74.2%	7 77.8%	30 83.3%	160 99.4%	1143 92.2%
	Total	9 100%	491 100%	12 100%	13 100%	478 100%	31 100%	9 100%	36 100%	161 100%	1240 100%

5.15.3 *Livestock*

The age-long tradition of herding survived in black rural areas where most blacks still tried to keep cattle and other animals. However, the increasing shortage of land and the rising frequency of stock theft in these areas make it very difficult to keep animals (except small animals like goats, chickens, which are usually kept to supplement basic income; very little of these are used for trading). Thus, activities taking place on the land particularly livestock was controlled by means of province and gender to measure which province has high proportion of households involved in livestock

farming, and comparison was drawn between 2004 and 2007. The results obtained from female household's involvement in livestock reveal that in 2004, the Free State and the Northern Cape have higher proportion of households involved in livestock farming at 50 %; while in Gauteng, livestock farming was never carried out. In fact, females are not much involved in livestock compared to males, probably because it requires much input that they cannot afford, and also it requires bigger size of land which they do not have.

The 2007 data, however, showed in female-headed households that the Western Cape (86 %) has the highest proportion of households, followed by the Northern Cape (83%). Overall, there is no much variation among the rest of the provinces except Gauteng which do not have any female-headed households involved in grazing. The reason for this absence is not apparent from the information at hand. Compared to male households, the findings suggest that males are more involved in livestock farming since the total number of male-headed households outnumbers the total female-headed households involved in grazing for both 2004 and 2007; even though the rate is higher in 2004 but decrease in 2007. More so, in both years, Gauteng females are not involved in livestock farming but males were. Above all, the results confirmed what have been found in earlier analysis where women were only able to access small size of the land which is not enough for farming and support their households' food needs.

Table 15.3: Distribution of farming activities on the land (Livestock) and province by gender

Gender	Livestock	Provinces (2004)									
		Wester Cape	Eastern Cape	Norther Cape	Free State	Kwazu-Natal	Norther West	Gauteng	Mpuma Langa	Northern Province	Total
Male	Yes	43 47.8%	129 20.4%	29 69.0%	41 68.3%	27 7.5%	25 37.3%	9 32.1%	15 32.6%	12 9.5%	320 20.4%
	No	36 52.2%	502 79.6%	13 31.0%	19 31.7%	333 92.5%	42 62.7%	19 67.4%	31 67.4%	256 95.5%	1251 79.6%
	Total	69 100%	631 100%	42 100%	60 100%	360 100%	67 100%	28 100%	46 100%	268 100%	1571 100%
Female	Yes	2 15.4%	117 15.4%	1 50.0%	7 50.0%	33 5.9%	6 17.6%	0 0.0%	8 22.9%	1 0.3%	175 10.2%
	No	11 84.6%	643 84.6%	1 50.0%	7 50.0%	527 94.1%	28 82.4%	0 0.0%	27 77.1%	289 99.7%	1533 89.8%
	Total	13 100%	760 100%	2 100%	14 100%	560 100%	34 100%	0 0.0%	35 100%	290 100%	1708 100%
Provinces (2007)											
Male	Yes	42 59.2%	66 18.3%	20 64.5%	22 73.3%	71 21.0%	10 26.3%	5 38.5%	9 31.0%	9 7.4%	254 24.6%
	No	29 40.8%	294 81.7%	11 35.5%	8 26.7%	267 79.0%	28 73.7%	8 61.5%	20 69.0%	43 92.6%	778 75.4%
	Total	71 100%	360 100%	31 100%	30 100%	338 100%	38 100%	13 100%	29 100%	122 100%	1032 100%
Female	Yes	6 85.7%	57 11.8%	10 83.3%	2 28.6%	56 12.45	1 4.3%	0 0.0%	4 13.3%	4 2.5%	140 11.9%
	No	1 14.3%	425 88.2%	2 16.7%	5 71.4%	394 87.6%	22 95.7%	7 100%	26 86.7%	157 97.5%	1039 88.1%
	Total	7 100%	482 100%	12 100%	7 100%	450 100%	23 100%	7 100%	30 100%	161 100%	1179 100%

5.15.4 Poultry

Table 15.4 displays the findings on farming activities (poultry) taking place on acquired land according to gender and province. In 2004, of the total 1707 female-headed households, 202 reported that they are involved in poultry, while 1505 reported not being involved. The Free State shows the highest proportion of female households at 36%; followed by the Eastern Cape at 18%. However, in male-headed households, the Free State and Gauteng have the highest proportion at 29 %. The findings suggest there is no much difference between male and female household heads in terms of poultry.

From the 2007 GHS data, there is no substantial difference between male- and female-headed households in terms of participation in poultry as farming activity taking place on acquired land in South Africa. Nevertheless, out of nine provinces only three provinces have female households which are involved in poultry farming (Eastern Cape 12 %; Kwazulu-Natal 6 %; and Mpumalanga 7 %). The low proportion observed in poultry farming might be due to input for this type of farming which is hard to afford, and the large space of land required that some households do not have access to. Comparing the results of 2004 with that of 2007, it is obvious that the proportion has declined in 2007 particularly amongst female households. For example, the 2004 data showed Western Cape had 8 % of female-headed households involved in poultry; Free State had 36 %; while Mpumalanga had 12 % but in 2007, the findings showed none of these provinces reported any involvement in such activity. As shown in the literature, land deterioration in homelands increased the pressure on blacks to enter the cash economy and migrate to urban areas for work for cash income (Oosthuizen, 1993).

Table 15.4: Distribution of farming activities on the land (Poultry) and province by gender

Gender	Poultry	Provinces (2004)									
		Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	Kwazulu Natal	Northern West	Gauteng	Mpuma Langa	Northern Province	Total
Male	Yes	8 11.6%	107 17.0%	5 11.9%	17 28.8%	25 6.9%	14 20.9%	8 28.6%	6 13.0%	1 0.4%	191 12'2%
	No	61 88.4%	524 83.0%	37 88.1%	42 71.2%	335 93.1%	53 79.1%	20 71.4%	40 87.0%	267 99.6%	1379 87.8%
	Total	69 100%	631 100%	42 100%	59 100%	360 100%	67 100%	28 100%	46 100%	268 100%	1570 100%
Female	Yes	1 7.7%	138 18.2%	0 0.0%	5 35.7%	49 8.8%	4 11.8%	0 0.0%	5 14.3%	0 0.0%	202 11.8%
	No	12 92.3%	622 81.8%	2 100%	9 64.3%	510 91.2%	30 88.2%	0 0.0%	30 85.7%	290 100%	1505 88.2%
	Total	13 100%	760 100%	2 100%	14 100%	559 100%	34 100%	0 0.0%	35 100%	290 100%	1707 100%
Provinces (2007)											
Male	Yes	4 6.5%	46 12.8%	0 0.0%	2 6.7%	24 7.1%	3 7.9%	4 30.8%	4 14.3%	1 0.8%	88 8.75%
	No	58 93.5%	312 87.2%	29 100%	28 93.3%	313 92.3%	35 92.1%	9 69.2%	24 85.7%	121 99.2%	929 91.3%
	Total	62 100%	358 100%	29 100%	30 100%	337 100%	38 100%	13 100%	28 100%	122 100%	1017 100%
Female	Yes	0 0.0%	57 12.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	26 5.8%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 6.7%	0 0.0%	85 7.3%
	No	2 100%	418 88.0%	9 100	7 100%	422 94.2%	23 100%	7 100%	28 93.3%	161 100%	1077 92.7%
	Total	2 100%	475 100%	9 100%	7 100	448 100%	23 100%	7 100%	30 100%	161 100%	1162 100%

5.15.5 Orchards

In South Africa, the plantation of fruits trees (orchards) is also another activity taking place on acquired land. According to the results provided in Table 15.5, the general picture portrayed for 2004 showed male households are more likely to participate in orchard than female households across the nine provinces of the country. Out of 1570 male household heads, 4 % reported to be involved in orchards plantation, whereas 96 % are not participating in that activity. However, out of 1707 female household

heads, only 2 % reported to participating in orchard. Free State has highest proportion of 50 %, whereas the rest of the provinces do not show substantial variation.

The 2007 results on the other hand revealed out of 36 female-headed households who admitted that orchards is their main farming activity, the Western Cape (20 %) remain the province with the highest proportion engaged in this type of activity. As the results show, female households do not rely much on orchards since the findings indicate low proportion of households are involved in it. It is not only for women that low participation is observed. Male-headed households also show low proportion of households involvement in orchards except in the Western Cape where the rate is a bit high (26 %) compared to other provinces; otherwise, provinces do not show much variation in terms of proportions. The reason of not being much involved in this farming activity might be that orchard is costly in terms of farming inputs, and also required large size of land to plant those fruit trees. Above all, there is no much variation between 2004 and 2007 in terms of proportions.

Table 15.5: Distribution of farming activities on the land (Orchards) and provinces by gender

Gender	Orchards	Provinces (2004)									
		Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	Kwazulu Natal	Northern West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Northern Province	Total
Male	Yes	17	12	2	8	4	2	4	1	15	65
		24.6%	1.9%	4.8%	13.6%	1.1%	3.0%	14.3%	2.2%	5.6%	4.1%
	No	52	619	40	51	356	65	24	45	253	1505
		75.4%	98.1%	95.2%	86.4%	98.9%	97.0%	85.7%	97.8%	94.4%	95.9%
	Total	69	631	42	59	360	67	28	46	268	1570
		100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Female	Yes	0	12	0	7	4	2	0	2	3	30
		0.0%	1.6%	0.0%	50.0%	0.7%	5.9%	0.0%	5.7%	1.0%	1.8%
	No	13	748	2	7	555	32	0	33	287	1677
		100%	98.4%	100%	50.0%	99.3%	94.1%	0.0%	94.3%	99.0%	98.2%
	Total	13	760	2	14	559	34	0	35	290	1707
		100%	100%	100%	100%	1005	100%	0.0%	100%	100%	100%
Province (2007)											
Male	Yes	19	11	1	1	16	3	2	2	2	57
		25.7%	3.0%	3.1%	2.6%	4.4%	6.7%	9.1%	5.7%	1.6%	5.2%
	No	55	360	31	37	349	42	20	33	120	1047
		74.3%	97.0%	96.9%	97.4%	95.6%	93.3%	90.9%	94.3%	98.4%	94.8%
	Total	74	371	32	38	365	45	22	35	122	1104
		100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Female	Yes	2	9	1	0	17	3	0	2	2	36
		20.0%	1.8%	7.1%	0.0%	3.6%	9.4%	0.0%	5.7%	1.2%	2.9%
	No	3	481	13	12	460	29	9	33	159	1199
		60.0%	98.2%	92.9%	100%	96.4%	90.6%	100%	94.3%	98.8%	97.1%
	Total	5	490	14	12	477	32	9	35	161	1235
		100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100	100%

5.15.6. *Other farming activities*

Besides field crops, horticulture, livestock, poultry, and orchards, people are involved in other activities on the land. Table 15.6 indicates other unspecified farming activities carried out on acquired land. Obviously, in 2004 the proportion was higher among the male households with 3 % than in females with 1 % who reported of being involved in other farming activities on the land. In 2007, male-headed households reported about 5 %, while females reported 2 % of households are engaged in other activities.

Table 15.6: Distribution of other farming activities taking place on the land and province by gender

Gender	Other activities	Province (2004)									
		Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	Kwazulu Natal	Northern West	Gauteng	Mpuma Langa	Northern Province	Total
Male	Yes	9 13.0%	23 3.6%	6 14.3%	2 3.4%	0 0.0%	2 3.0%	1 3.6%	2 4.3%	1 0.4%	46 2.9%
	No	60 87.0%	608 96.4%	36 85.7%	56 96.6%	358 100%	65 97.0%	27 96.4%	44 95.7%	267 99.6%	1521 97.1%
	Total	69 100%	631 100%	42 100%	58 100%	358 100%	67 100%	28 100	46 100%	268 100	1567 100%
Female	Yes	0 0.0%	20 2.6%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 2.9%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	21 1.2%
	No	13 100%	740 97.4%	2 100%	14 100	559 100%	33 97.1%	0 0.0%	35 100%	290 100%	1686 98,8%
	Total	13 100%	760 100%	2 100%	14 100%	559 100%	34 100%	0 0.0%	35 100%	290 100%	1707 100%
Province (2007)											
Male	Yes	13 20.3%	14 3.9%	4 13.3%	2 6.5%	10 3.0%	4 10.5%	0 0.0%	1 3.6%	2 1.6%	50 4.9%
	No	51 79.7%	344 96.1%	26 86.7%	29 93.5%	325 97.0%	34 89.5%	13 100%	27 96.4%	120 98.4%	969 95.1%
	Total	64 100%	358 100%	30 100%	31 100%	335 100%	38 100	13 100%	28 100	122 100%	1019 100%
Female	Yes	0 0.0%	15 3.2%	0 0.0%	1 14.3%	1 14.3%	1 4.3%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 1.2%	28 2.4%
	No	3 100%	457 96.8%	9 100%	6 85.7%	6 85.7%	22 95.7%	7 100%	30 100%	159 98.8%	1129 97.6%
	Total	3 100%	472 100%	9 100%	7 100%	7 100%	23 100%	30 100%	30 100%	161 100%	1157 100%

5.15.7 Field crops and highest level of education by gender

Education is taken up in this section because of knowledge about farming options. Along the same line, education is a typical demographic component which shows how its level plays a significant role in farming activities on the land (field crops). The table displayed in Appendix 5a showed that in 2004, out of 262 male household heads with no schooling, 230 (36 %) are reported to be involved in field crops and only 32 (27 %) are reported of not being involved. Among those male respondents who have Grade R/0 and primary school, this proportion increases amongst them until it peaked

for those who had Grade 7 at 16 %. More so, in the same year among female-headed households with no schooling, out of 287 respondents 264 (34 %) reported being involved in field crops while only 23 (29 %) do not participate in field crops. For those who have grade R/0 level to primary school (Grade 7), the trend shown resembles almost the same as seen for males.

Among those who have high school (from Grade 8 to Grade 12/matric), the proportion of those who are involved in field crops in 2004 is higher among male-headed households at 24 %, and there is an increase among those who have Grade 12 level (28 %). More so, female respondents who have Grade 8 returned a proportion of 19 %, whereas the proportion increase in those who have Grade 10 level (23 %), and a further increment among those with Grade 12 at 31 %. The 2004 data further showed among male-headed households with diploma and certificates, the highest proportion was observed among those respondents having diploma with Grade 12/Standard 10 at 50 %, followed by those who have certificates with Grade 12/Standard 10 at 18 %. Among female-headed households, the highest proportion was observed in those who have diploma with Grade 12/Standard 10 at 62 %. However, a remarkable increase was observed among female respondents who have certificates with less than Grade 12/ Standard 10 to those having diploma with Grade 12/Standard 10.

More so, among male-headed households with degrees, the highest proportion of those involved in field crops are observed among those with Masters/Doctorate degrees (100 %). Conversely, the highest proportion among females with tertiary education was seen among those with bachelor degree holders at 64 %. In general, the distributions of farming activities on acquired land (field crops) by level of education and gender show those without schooling are involved in field crops at a reasonable

level for both males and females. The reason might likely be that head of those households with no tangible qualification and skills are more likely to rely more on field crops.

According to the 2007 data, the findings indicate that the proportion of male and female households who attained only primary school are less involved in field crops than head of households who attained high school and matric. However, there is little variation between 2004 and 2007 among households with high school and matric holders. However, the proportions increases among head of households with high qualifications such as those with secondary schools, certificates, and degree holders compared to head of household with primary schools. The reason might be that those with high schools have better chance to access land than those with primary school only. Furthermore, female-headed households with bachelor degrees are much more involved in farming activities (64 %) than other female-headed households with different qualifications. The probable reason might be that educated women-headed households have many options of acquiring land to cultivate and they can also afford the necessary agricultural input for farming.

5.16 Differentials in land access and main source of income by gender

In order to control what other sources of income other than farming are available to respondents, an analysis was carried out according to gender. Thus, land access was measured by means of main source of income according to gender. Table 16 outlines the various household income sources and the contribution of each total household income. The greatest contributor to household income across gender between year 2004 and 2007 remain sale of farm products.

In 2004, results showed out of 1712 female-farming households, 7 % earn their income from salaries and wages; 22 % from remittances; 25 % from pension and grants; 35 % from sale of farm products; and 13 % from other non-farm income, but another 7 % rely do not earn any extra income. However, out of 8783 non-farming female households; 93 % rely on salaries and wages; 78 % on remittances; 75 % on old-age pension and grants; 65 % on sale of farm products; and 87 % on other non-farm income; but 93 % do not earn any income. More so, male-farming households' shows high proportion of extra-income from sale of farm products about 67 % compared to female households, followed by pension and grants at 23 %; other non-farm income at 14 %; remittances at 13 %; but households with extra-income from salaries and wages amounted to 5 %. The findings confirmed, though income from agriculture is important for many female rural households, surplus income from different sources is far more significant for families' livelihoods. Even those households who earn income from farming are dependent heavily on cash income sources to survive.

Table 16 further shows also how surplus income was distributed among farming households in 2007. Out of 1168 female head of households, 7 % reported that they earn income from salaries and wages; 18 % from remittances; 19 % from pension and grants; 25 % from sales of farm products; 19 % from other non-farm income; and 6 % replied that they do not have any income at all. In male-headed households, majority of respondents earn supplementary income from sales of farm products (59 %) compared to other source of income. Males have higher proportion in income from sales of farm products than female because according to the literature, they have great control on farm products harvested, and do farming mostly for cash income compared to women.

Comparing 2004 and 2007 GHS data, results showed that income from pension and grants has declined in 2007. As reported in literature, all South Africans whose yearly income does not exceed a certain minimum amount, are entitled to a state pension when they reach retirement age at 60 for women and 65 for men. Until now, pensions constitutes major source of income for elderly people in the rural areas of South Africa. However, with the impending collapse of the current pension system in South Africa, it is unlikely that pensions will in future remain an important source of income for rural populations. Smaller pensions will most likely also to force thousands of elderly people out of rural and into urban areas where alternative support systems will have to be developed for them. More so, the proportion of household relying on remittances i.e. income from relatives working in the non-agricultural sector, have decreased among females in 2007 probably because nowadays, women are more likely to move from rural to urban areas for jobs seeking so that instead of waiting for remittances from relatives they make their own extra income. On the whole, the proportion of households among both genders which rely on surplus income only is far higher than households which combine farming and surplus income.

Table 16: Distribution of land access and main source of income by gender

Gender	Land access	Main source of income (2004)						
		Salaries/ Wages	Remittances	Pensions and grants	Sale of farm products	Other non-farm income	No income	Total
Male	Yes	498	187	614	136	126	12	1573
		4.9%	12.9%	23.1%	67.0%	13.9%	4.9%	10.0%
	No	9704	1258	2045	67	783	234	14091
		95.1%	87.1%	76.9	33.0%	86.1%	95.1%	90.0%
	Total	10202	1445	2659	203	909	246	15664
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Female	Yes	287	451	878	23	65	8	1712
		6.8%	21.9%	24.7%	34.8%	13.2%	6.9%	16.3%
	No	3931	1604	2670	43	427	108	8783
		93.2%	78.1%	75.3%	65.2%	86.8%	93.1%	83.7%
	Total	4218	2055	3548	66	492	116	10495
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Main source of income (2007)							
Male	Yes	345	114	429	101	34	10	1033
		4.6%	13.5%	18.6%	59.1%	12.1%	4.6%	9.2%
	No	7077	729	1883	70	246	209	10214
		95.4%	86.5%	81.4%	40.9%	87.9%	95.4%	90.8%
	Total	7422	843	2312	171	280	219	11247
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Female	Yes	225	237	640	17	42	7	1168
		6.6%	17.8%	18.8%	25.4%	19.4%	6.0%	13.6%
	No	3207	1098	2757	50	175	110	7397
		93.4%	82.2%	81.2%	74.6%	80.6%	94.0%	86.4%
	Total	3432	1335	3397	67	217	117	8565
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

5.17 Land access and relationship to the head of household by gender

Table 17 indicates the distribution of land accessibility according to intra-household relation and gender between 2004 and 2007. Referring to male-headed households in 2004, those who reported themselves as acting head or made head have access to land at 26 %, while those who have wives have access to land at 14 %. The high proportion of households that have access to land is found among household heads that have son, daughter, stepchildren and adopted children as relatives (39 %). Yet, household heads that have grand children and great children as relatives access land at 12 %. The least to have land access are head of household who live with their

mother/father as relatives. Among female households, females who are acting as head or made head in a family have access to land at 28 %. The head of household who has a husband access land for agriculture at 12 %, while those that have sons, daughters, stepchildren, and adopted children access land at 36 %. In the same vein, female heads who have grandchildren or great children access land at 26 %, while female head who have father or mother have access at 0.45%. However, those who have grand parents or great parent are less likely to have access to land for agriculture. The general idea is that household head who have son, daughter, stepchildren, and adopted children as relatives have high proportion in terms of land access for agriculture purpose because those households form intact families. In the case of widows for example, they are less likely to leave the family and go to marry outside.

The 2007 data revealed female head of households who are mark or act as head have high proportion of access to land at 42 % compared to the proportion reported for 2004 (26 %). Female respondents with sons/daughters/stepchildren/adopted children as relatives reported a proportion of 25 %, while women who were married or who live together as husband and wife show a proportion of 19 %. However, female head of households who have grandparents and great parents are the least to have access to land (1%); confirming what is said in literature that women-headed households with children have access to land than childless women. Comparing the data from 2004 and 2007, the proportions of head of households who act or are made mark head among both genders have increased in 2007. However, the head of households who have sons/daughters/stepchildren/and adopted child declined in 2007, as well as household head having grandchild and great child have dropped. The reason might be the increase in the use of contraceptives which over time decrease fertility.

Table 17: Distribution of land access by relationship to the head of household by gender

Gender	Relationship To the head	Land access (2004)			Land access (2007)		
		Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Male	Mark head/acting head	408 25.5%	3561 25.3%	3969 25.3%	430 41.5%	3963 38.7%	4393 38.9%
	Husband and wife	222 14.1%	1581 11.2%	1803 11.5%	201 19.4%	1847 18.0%	2048 18.1%
	Son/daughter/stepchild/ Adopted child	610 38.8%	5380 38.2%	5990 38.2%	244 21.6	2727 26.6%	2951 26.2%
	Brother/Sister	34 2.2%	313 2.2%	347 11.5%	45 4.3%	365 3.6%	410 3.6%
	Father/mother	12 0.8%	76 0.5%	88 0.6%	9 0.9%	61 0.6%	70 0.6%
	Grand parent/great parent	0 0.0%	3 0.0%	3 0.0%	5 0.5%	35 0.3%	40 0.4%
	Grand child/great child	192 12.2%	2156 15.3%	2348 15%	50 4.8%	508 5.0%	558 4.9%
	Other relationships(in-law, aunt, uncle	68 4.3%	866 6.1%	934 6.0%	47 4.5%	587 5.7%	634 5.6%
	No related person	28 1.8%	161 1.1%	189 1.2%	25 2.4%	155 1.5%	180 1.6%
	Total	1574 100%	14097 100%	15671 100%	1036 100%	10248 100%	11284 100%
Female	Mark head/acting head	478 27.9%	2283 26.0%	2761 26.3%	460 39.3%	2890 39.0%	3350 39.0%
	Husband and wife	211 12.3	1035 11.8%	1246 11.9%	220 18.8%	1277 17.2%	1497 17.4%
	Son/daughter/stepchild/ Adopted child	621 36.3%	3236 36.8%	3857 36.7%	297 25.4%	1988 26.8%	2285 26.6%
	Brother/Sister	55 3.2%	205 2.3%	260 2.5%	44 3.85	236 3.2%	280 3.3%
	Father/mother	6 0.4%	36 0.4%	42 0.4%	7 0.6%	53 0.7%	60 0.7%
	Grand parent/great parent	0 0.0%	1 0.0%	1 0.0%	3 0.3%	15 0.2%	18 0.2%
	Grand child/great child	215 25.6%	1328 15.1%	1543 14.7%	53 4.5%	405 5.5%	458 5.3%
	Other relationships(in-law, aunt, uncle	104 6.15	544 6.2%	648 6.25	59 5.0%	427 5.8%	486 5.35
	No related person	22 1.3%	116 1.3%	138 1.35	28 2.4%	127 1.7%	155 1.8%
	Total	1712 100%	8784 100%	10496 100%	1171 100%	7418 100%	8589 100%

5.18 Some differentials in land access and off-farm employment by gender

As shown in literature, off-farm work may also supplements on-farm productivity by increasing the household capacity to purchase farm inputs and/or make on-farm investment leading to improved yield and labour productivity. Hence, analysis was carried out to compare the structural changes observed between 2004 and 2007. From the 2004 data, out of 4090 female respondents, 382 households with female heads with access to land were also involved in off-farm employment, whereas 3708 female household heads are without access to land but involved in off-farm employment. The information on the types of off-farm activities which were undertaken is also provided. Appendix 6 (Table 18) indicated elementary work is the predominant off-farm activity at 31 %; followed by those female heads of households who undertake domestic work at 17 %. The least proportion of 3 % is found among those who work as clerks, senior officials and managers, and professionals.

With respect to gender breakdown of off-farm employment, the number of female involved in elementary work is far high than for males, while the number of female domestic workers triple that of males. The number of female engaged as service workers/shop and market sales workers are higher than the proportion returned for males engaged in same activity. More so, the number of male skilled agriculture and fishery workers double that of females employed in the same industry. In summary, the findings prove that women who have access to land are also more active in off-farm income earning activities but at a lesser extent compared to their male counterparts.

Furthermore, the 2007 data indicated both male and female respondents besides farming are involved in off-farm activities which help them to earn supplementary income. More so, female household heads who have access to land are also involved in elementary occupation at 26 %; followed by those involved in craft and related trades, and service/shop workers at 14 %. The number of these women who work as domestic workers reduced from 17 % in 2004 to 9 % in 2007.

In summary, women-headed households who have access to land are mostly seen to work in subordinate positions and are also more likely to be involved in unskilled jobs. More so, the proportion of male legislators, senior officials and managers who were involved in farming in 2004 declined in 2007 from 16 % to 7 %. Nevertheless, household heads who combine on-farm and off-farm employment are fewer than those who are involved in non-farm activities. This implies that the majority of South Africans have very little access to farm assets and product markets. As pointed out in the literature, the art of cultivating land profitably disappeared among black people in South Africa at least a century ago because of the history of dispossession of their land under the following Acts: the Native Land Act (No 27 of 1913), the Native Act (No 21 of 1923), the Native Trust and Land Act (No 18 of 1936), the Group Areas Act (No 41 of 1950) and the Black Communities Act (No 4 of 1984). These Acts left the Whites with about 87 % of the total land in South Africa and the blacks with about 13 %. Hence, majority of the blacks became landless tenants on white owned land (Oosthuizen, 1993).

5.19 Land access by Income category and gender

According to 2004 and 2007 October General Household Survey, some male and female heading households who have plots of land to cultivate also had income from off-farm activities. In order to measure the prevalence of land access and income earned from off-farm activities, land access as a variable was controlled by income category and gender as shown in Appendix 7. Comparing results for year 2004 with that of 2007, female household heads with no income was higher than observed for the males. The highest rate of female household heads who had access to land was observed among those who earn nothing; followed by those who earned income located under [R116-R231]W [R501-R1000]M [6001-R12000]A income category in 2004. Moreover, it is obvious that high proportions of women heading households are found under low income categories. Otherwise, the proportion of female who have access to land decrease as high income category increases. This means that women are generally poorer than men and their source and manner of gaining access to income are significantly different. It also confirmed results obtained in Table 18 where it was observed that women are held in subordinate position and they almost do unskilled jobs.

The 2007 data revealed the highest proportion of female heading household involved in agriculture is found under [R1040-R1386] W [R4501-R6000] M [54001-R72000]A income category. This is probably due to an increased awareness of women empowerment theory where it was stated that men and women must be treated equally in workplaces.

5.20 EXPLORATION OF SOME BIVARIATE STATISTICAL RELATIONSHIPS

By means of statistical testing, association which is a component of relationship testing was controlled by means of bivariate analysis by displaying variables into ways table (Table 20). This is to justify why cross-tabulation was used to display data in bivariate analysis to reflect variations. Table 20 depicts inferential statistic of variables by moving from sample to the total population. Dealing with nominal variables, Pearson chi-square was used to test significance, while Lambda and Goodman-Kruskal Tau, Phi and Cramer's V were used to remedy the weakness found with Pearson Chi-square and to assess the strength of relationship between variables due to sensitivity of chi-square to large data.

5.20.1 Land access and age group by gender

Starting by assessing relationship between land access and age group by gender, Pearson Chi-square revealed that for 2004 data, there is a significance relationship between variables ($p=.000<0.05$). Lambda and Goodman-Kruskal Tau, Phi and Cramer's V show that there is a strong relationship between land access and age group among rural women. This confirm the hypothesis that age is a facilitating feature that helps women to access land especially when a woman is in old age. For instance, it was stated that younger women are more likely to remarry whereas old widows with children are less likely to remarry, but remain intact in the family where they inherit land of the deceased through their children. However, chi-square do not show significant relationship for 2007 data ($p=.602>0.05$).

5.20.2 Land access and marital status and gender

By testing relationship between land access and marital status, Chi-square was used for association. The findings suggest that there is a relationship between land access

and marital status (p=.011<0.05). Lambda, Goodman-Kruskal Tau, Phi and Cramer's V test also showed there is a strong relationship between land access and marital status among rural women. This implied marital status is related to land access as women differ in terms of their location within the household structure as wives, divorced, widows or single daughters, in order to use their land to develop livelihoods and earn income for themselves and their families (Cross & Hornby, 2002). However, the 2007 data indicated there is no relationship between land access and marital status. Here, the spuriousness of this result may be of consideration. Several situations come to play here: an unmarried women as head of household may resort to land for income generation or livelihood.

5.20.3 Methods of land acquisition and marital status by gender

By means of statistical test, analysis was performed to assess relationship between methods of land acquisition and marital status by gender. The results from chi-square indicated there is no relationship between methods of land acquisition and marital status of South African women. This means that methods of land acquisitions are not associated with marital status of South African women. This hypothesis was rejected since p=.523>0.05. This is due to the finding from test statistics which did not support this hypothesis.

5.20.4 Land size and population group by gender

Land size and population group by gender were tested, chi-square was used to test association and results showed there is a significant relationship between land size and population group among women (P=.000<0.05). The implication is that land size in hectare is associated with population group of women. Hence, further test (Cramer's V and Phi; Lambda and Goodman-kruskal Tau) was done in order to test the strength of the association. The findings suggest that population group in which

women affiliates is a contributing factor to the number of hectares that women possess. Therefore, being African/Black, Coloured, Indian/Asian, and White indicate that there is strong relationship between sizes of land women may have access to. Furthermore, the 2007 data also showed there is a strong association between variables because it has been observed that P=0.000<0.05.

5.20.5 Land access and off-farm activities by gender

In order to test association between land access and off-farm activities, Pearson chi-square was computed and the findings indicated a significant relationship between land access and main occupation amongst South African women exist. The statistical relationship was significant at p=0.000<0.05. This supports the hypothesis that besides farming, rural women are involved in other income-generating activities. The implication is that in line with livelihood theory, the capability to diversify income is critical for the survival capabilities of the rural poor particularly women, due to their vulnerability to seasonal and risk factors than better-off households. More so, it could be due to the fact that poor households lack assets, they may be landless or near landless, and possess few or no livestock. Without the capability to produce enough food on own account, the poor have to diversify income sources in order to survive (Ellis, 1998).

5.20.6 Land access and main source of incomes by gender

Given that farming constitutes the basic means of survival for rural women, results suggests rural women gain supplementary income from other sources such as salaries/wages, remittances, pension and grants, sale of farm products. To test this hypothesis, chi-square used to control association. A significant relationship between land access and main source of income was evident (p=0.000<0.05). By means of Lambda, Goodman-Kruskal Tau, Phi and Cramer's V, further analysis was carried out

to measure strength and results showed there is a strong association between land access and main source of income. Furthermore, the same test was performed on the 2007 data; chi-square test showed there is a significant relationship between land access for agriculture and other main sources of incomes. More so, strong association was also observed between those two variables by means of Lambda, Goodman-Kruskal Tau, Phi and Cramer's V test. This clearly showed the operation of diversification in order to fight against vulnerability and shocks.

5.20.7 Land access and highest level of education by gender

As it has been hypothesized, education is a contributing factor that helps women to access land. In order to test this hypothesis, chi-square was used to test association between land access and highest level of education. The findings suggest education is significantly related to land access ($p=0.009<0.05$). This is in support of the literature where it was stated that lack of education can be a limiting factor in terms of women's land access. Furthermore, lack of education, information and communication are the main obstacles for female-headed households to be aware of their rights (Erickson, 1999). However, the 2007 data did not show any association when the same test was computed ($p=0.357>0.05$), which might be due to spuriousness of other variables that may interfere.

Table 20: Summary of the exploration of relationships

Bivariate relationship	Variable of control	Test statistics – Value and significance 2004					Test statistics – Value of significance 2007				
		Chi-square	Lambda	Goodm ruskal	Phi	Cramer's V	Chi-square	Lamba	Goodm Kruskal	Phi	Cramer's V
Land access & age group	Gender	V=80.60 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.002 P=.383 P>0.05	V=.008 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.88 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.0.88 P=.000 P<0.05	V=12.047 P=.602 P>0.05	V=.000 P=- P>0.05	V=.001 P=.603 P>0.05	V=.037 P=602 P>0.05	V=.037 P=.602 P>0.05
Land access & marital S		V=11.21 P=.011 P<0.05	V=.000 P=-	V=.001 P=.011 P<0.05	V=.033 P=.011 P<0.05	V=.033 P=.011 P<0.05	V=5.158 P=.000 P>0.05	V=.001 P=-	V=.001 P=.273 P>0.05	V=.025 P=.271 P>0.05	V=.025 P=.271 P>0.05
Methods of land acquis& marital S		V=8.107 P=.523 P>0.05	V=.000 P=-	V=.003 P=.078 P>0.05	V=.70 P=.523 P>0.05	V=.40 P=.523 P>0.05	V=7.114 P=.971 P>0.05	V=.000 P=-	V=.001 P=.980 P>0.05	V=.077 P=.971 P>0.05	V=.038 P=.971 P>0.05
Land size & population		V=5.525 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.003 P=.564 P>0.05	V=.010 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.570 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.329 P=.000 P<0.05	V=2.708 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.011 P=.131 P>0.05	V=.014 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.467 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.269 P=.000 P<0.05
Land access&source of income		V=541.014 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.074 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.026 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.227 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.227 P=.000 P<0.05	V=2.631 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.066 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.031 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.175 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.171 P=.000 P<0.05
Land access &off-farm activities		V=358.543 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.000 P=-	V=.034 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.185 P=.000 P<0.05	V=.088 P=.000 P<0.05	V=12.193 P=.203 P>0.05	V=.000 P=-	V=.004 P=.203 P>0.05	V=.061 P=.203 P>0.05	V=.061 P=.203 P>0.05
Land access &level of education		V=46.083 P=.009 P<0.05	V=.000 P=-	V=.004 P=.009 P<0.05	V=.066 P=.009 P<0.05	V=.066 P=.009 P<0.05	V=28.029 P=.357 P>0.05	V=.000 P=- P>0.05	V=.003 P=.357 P>0.05	V=.057 P=.350 P>0.05	V=.057 P=.357 P>0.05

Statistical tests: Chi-square, Lambda, Goodman Kruskal tau, Phi, Cramer's V.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

In this chapter, the findings obtained from the analysis are discussed and interpreted. This exercise is undertaken to understand in depth the results reflecting on women's access to land for farming in South Africa, from a socio-demographic perspective. The discussion section has covered three sub-sections. First, the major procedure followed in the research design has been highlighted. Second, new facts contributing to improvement of knowledge about women's access to land issues investigated are highlighted. Third, an insightful incursion is made into recommendation in a section to come. The recommendation will help in policy formulation.

6.1 The main procedures followed the in research design.

This study of women's access to land is quantitative as it makes use of variables, hypothesis testing, and random sampling. The specific type of research design follows the lines of a cross-sectional study, where a sample survey is conducted by means of a personal interview using a household questionnaire. The latter was used to get information concerning people's past experiences regarding access to land, and this information was obtained by merging the house file, workers' file, and personal file. This study used GHS 2004 and 2007 secondary data, obtained from Statistics South Africa, because it provides coherent and reliable information.

The theoretical framework of the study was constructed around the sustainable livelihood framework. Along the lines proposed by this framework, women engagement in small-scale farming is viewed as part of livelihoods diversification. From a statistical perspective, the study postulated that little is known about the

demographic profile of women who access land, how land is accessed, the methods of land acquisition used, what farming activities on land as a means of rural livelihood, which off-farming activities generate incomes and in what income category, and what other main sources of income. The study has focused on rural and urban women, and the household was used as unit of analysis. The study was based on demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, literacy (ability to read and ability to write), highest level of education, and relationship to the head of household, province of residence and population groups. Bringing together the demographic variables and land related variables, the study has provided some structural changes occurred between 2004 and 2007 as far as women's access to land is concerned.

However, as the interest of the study focuses on the profile of women who access land across nine provinces, cross tabulation by using demographic variables and land related variables was performed in attempt to provide answers to research questions, and hypothesis testing also was used to test association between variables of interest. The study has provided the researcher with the differentials in terms of land access, land use, and different types of activities taking place on land, and the study has also indicated in which provinces women access land easily. Statistically, the study has captured the structural changes by comparing the results of GHS data from 2004 and 2007.

6.2 Discussion of findings around the issues of women's access to land.

6.2.1 Women and household headship in South Africa.

The rate of women's household headship was calculated by taking the total number of households headed by females divided by the total number of households headed by males and females multiplied by a hundred. The purpose was to check the magnitude

of household headed by female across nine provinces of South Africa. According to the findings pertaining to household headship, the rates in table 1 indicate that the total number of households headed by women rose from 40% in 2004 to 43% in 2007. This means that in three years the rate of households headed by women has grown up to 3%.

This is an indication that women assume significant responsibility in households and in the whole country at large. According to the findings, the provinces which are predominantly rural such as Northern Province, Kwazulu-Natal, Eastern Cape, North West, and Mpumalanga have a high rate of households headed by women. Those findings confirm the literature which indicates that men in rural areas are more likely to move to town to look for jobs in order to generate cash income for their living, and consequently women are left behind taking care of household members (Oosthuizen, 1993). However, Kongolo & Bamgose (2002), stress that this situation resulting from past practices of relegating women to an inferior position in a society cannot be allowed to continue. As part of some development forums goals, there ought to be specific policies geared to the promotion of women's participation in local planning in most rural areas in order to contribute to overall welfare in society. According to Kongolo & Bamgose (2002), women have been found to be much more open than men, therefore, if development in rural areas does not include women it would be creating a recipe for failure.

6.2.2 Land access by gender

By means of cross tabulation, land access was controlled by gender in order to assess the distribution of male and female headed household that have access to land for small-scale farming in South Africa. The findings for the 2004 GHS data revealed

that, compared to male households, female households have a high proportion of access to land for small-scale farming in South Africa at 16%, while male headed households constitute only 10%. In 2007, the proportion of women headed households that had access to land decreased amongst both male and female heads of households but was still higher among female headed households (9% for male and 14% for female). A possible reason to explain why the proportion of households has declined over time might be, according to the literature that the world is becoming increasingly urbanised, and agriculture is changing profoundly, and in many parts of the world it plays a far less important role in women's livelihood strategies than it once did (Oosthuizen). In the South African context of South Africa, income from small-scale farming is no longer sufficient for rural household livelihoods. In such situation people are more likely to turn to other activities to generate household income. Nevertheless, access to land can greatly strengthen women's bargaining position in the domestic sphere and provide the opportunity to secure other social and economic rights, while also enhancing food security and nutrition for the family (Palmer, 2002).

6.2.3 Land access and stratum (rural and urban) by gender

It was hypothesized that women living in rural areas rely heavily on farming for their living. In order to assess this hypothesis, an analysis was performed by means of cross tabulation of land access and stratum by gender for 2004 GHS data, while 2007 GHS data did not use this variable. The results show clearly that women in rural areas have access to land and rely more heavily on land for small-scale farming for food production and consumption than women living in urban areas. The findings suggest that in rural Eastern Cape, females have the highest proportion of households that have access to land, about 66%, whereas in urban areas it is only 12%. This is

followed by Kwazulu-Natal with 49% in rural areas, and 1% in urban areas; Northern Province has 24% in rural areas and 2% in urban areas; North West has 6% in rural whereas in urban areas its people do not rely on land. Compared to men, rural women have a high proportion of households that have access to land. The reason might be that in rural areas land provides the basic resources of day-to-day living and women do not have much alternatives of where to derive income for living, and women have few alternatives to derive income for living other than from farming. Nevertheless, the findings support the literature which reveals that women in rural areas need land in order to stabilise and improve their lives since they are responsible for rural households, and for providing food for their families (Derman, Odgaard, Sjaastad (2007). With regard with urban agriculture, the country is increasingly becoming urbanised where men and women are involved in non-farming activities for cash income in order to survive.

6.2.4 Land access and province by gender

An attempt was made to answer research question: In which province women do access land most easily? Thus, by cross tabulating the land access variable and the province by the gender of head of the household, the findings suggest that Eastern Cape had the highest proportion of women headed households that have access to land for agriculture purposes. This is due to the history of South Africa during apartheid era when majority of the population was forced to move from theirs land to live in the home land. The rural areas became populated and poorer due to high population density without enough size and efficient land to cultivate. Moreover, this province is mostly rural and poorer, and privatisation is prevailing. Therefore, women turn to small-scale farming as a means of subsistence.

Though, the Eastern Cape shows a high proportion of female headed households that have access to land, the findings also indicate that in all provinces which are predominantly rural, land still plays a crucial role in rural livelihoods. Gauteng is the province where women are least likely to have access to land (1%). Land is central to all aspects of social reproduction, it is the basic resource for food production and consumption and other needs. Therefore, rural women's demand for land revolves primarily around improving their homestead and the production of food, particularly as a supplement to household consumption ((Derman, Odgaard, & Sjaastad, 2007).

Comparing male and female households in terms of land access, the Eastern Cape shows a high proportion of households that have access to land for both male and female, but female households have a higher proportion than male households in terms of land access. Furthermore, the proportion of males and females that have access to land has declined slightly from 10% for males and 16% for females in 2004, to 9% for males and about 14% for females in 2007.

6.2.5 Differentials in land access and population group by gender

A specific research question was asked; what the profile of women who access land in South Africa? Results of the question on issue related to this point were obtained through analysis by controlling land access and population group by gender in order to measure the variation of land access amongst population group (African/Black, Coloured, Indian/Asian, and White) based on the gender of the head of household. After cross tabulating those three variables, the results reveal that both 2004 and 2007 GHS data, African/Black females had the highest proportion of households with access to land for agricultural purpose, followed by White, Coloured, and Indian/Asian. In regard to male households, a high proportion was also found amongst

African/Black, followed by White, Coloured, and Indian/Asian but to a lesser extent compared to female households.

Amongst male households, the 2007 GHS data indicates that whites have a high proportion of households that have access to land (for commercial farming) in 2004 compared to African/Black males. Though, the analysis in the study shows that African/Black women have a high proportion of land access, but the issue highlighted by Izugbara (1998), is that women have only access to small size, inefficient, and remote plots of land which may not be desired by men. All this show that gender inequality against women in terms of access to scarce resources such as land is still prevailing in the society. Hence, with regard to historical background, women are still experiencing issues of inequality in terms of land access due to some coercive policy which do not take women into account. In general, the overall picture is that women's access to land has declined slightly across all population groups from 2004 and 2007.

6.2.6 Land access and age group by gender

It has been clamed that age is a factor that constrains women from accessing land. In order to test this hypothesis, land access was first cross tabulated with age group by gender to control the relationship between variables. The findings indicated that there is a significant relationship between land access and age of women. It has been observed that older women have greater access to land than young women because the high proportion of female-headed households with access to land was found between 60-74 and 75-80 and above at 21%. However, so-called young and middle-aged women have less access to land with women between 15-29, 30-44, and 45-59 age groups having access to land at 15% and 14%, and 16% respectively.

Further statistical tests such as Chi-square to test association, Lambda, Cramer's V, and Kruskal tau to check strength were performed. The findings provided by Chi-square test suggested that there is an association between land access and age of women since p=.000<0.05. The results from Lambda, Cramer's V, and Kruskal tau tests indicate that there is a strong association between these two variables. The findings confirm the study of Chapton, Jyne, & Mason (2007) which says that older women seem to have some protection against loss of land compared to younger widows. In fact, younger women are more likely to remarry and gain access to the new husband's land. In contrast, older women are considered less likely to remarry and might have more social capital in the community that protects them from losing rights to land, and hence making them more likely to retain most of the land formerly controlled by the deceased husband. The overall picture is that the proportion of women that have access to land aged between 60-74 that have access to land was 21% in 2004, but it has decreased at 15% in 2007. In addition, the proportion of women who aged between75-80 and above increased from 21% in 2004 to 22% in 2007. The explanation might be that women aged between 60-74 are getting involved in other activities such as the cooperatives and other associations other than farming to generate incomes.

6.2.7 Land access and marital status by gender

In attempting to analyse the profile of women qualified for land access, land access variable was controlled with marital status by gender to check the association, and the results are provided. Chi-square test shows that there is association between the two variables since p=.011<0.05. Lambda, Cramer's V, and Kruskal Tau tests all indicate that there is a strong association between those variables.

Furthermore, the findings reveal that women whether married; living together as husband and wife, widow, divorced or separated, have access to land for agricultural purposes but at different levels**.**

The most categories of women headed households who dominate in terms of land access are women living together as husband and wife, and separated or divorced women headed households at 23% for 2004 and this has dropped at 16% in 2007**.** The reason might be that, in South Africa, divorce and separation constitute a significant prevalence. In addition, this category of women have high proportion of land access because it is assumed to be independent in terms of methods of land acquisition (leasing, pledge, and sharecropping) whereas married women are not fully independent to purchase their own land due to tradition and cultural norms, where husbands are scared of loosing labour and respect from their wives when they have their own land (Izugbara, 1998).

The study has also found that widows have little access to land. The HIV/AIDS pandemic may be a causal factor for the increasing rate of female-headed households in South Africa and their lack of access to land.Virus carryng widows are generally dispossessed of their land due to the stigma associated with HIV/AIDS. Widows are frequently blamed for causing the deaths of their husbands. The spread of HIV/AIDS and the stigma associated with the disease have only made women's land rights more precarious. Widows of men who die from the disease have often been accused of bringing the malady into the family, possibly leading to the confiscation of their land and other property (Kimani, 2008). Many narratives and qualitative studies have highlighted gender inequalities in property rights and the difficulties that widows face

in retaining access to land after the death of their husbands. It therefore clear that HIV/AIDS has undoubtedly exacerbated such problem (Chapoto, Jayne & Mason, 2007)

Davison (1998), points out that women's direct access to land is often limited in traditional societies, because women have indirect access to land in terms of use rights acquired through kinship relationships and their status as wives, mothers, sisters or daughters. This shows that in 2007 the proportion of female heading household that have access to land has slightly declined and the findings do not show much variation among the trends. In general, marital status is a very good indicator of women's access to land as women differ in many ways.

6.2.8 Land access by highest level of education and gender

It has been hypothesized that education is a factor that constrain women from land access. In this regard, first cross tabulation between these variables was performed in order to control how closely education is related to land access according to gender. Furthermore, Chi-square test was also used to check association. In so doing, Lambda, Cramer's V, and Kruskal tau were used to control the strength of the association. The results, thus, support the hypothesis that the more a woman is educated, the more chances she has to access land for agriculture purposes. It has been found that education is a major facilitator of livelihood diversification. Lack of education was found to be a critical constraint to land access for a woman. But this applies to men as well. For example, the results from analysis indicate that male and female with no schooling have reasonable proportion in terms of land access, yet it is not it should be if they were educated. Comparing respondents in a study who have primary school, secondary school, diploma and tertiary education; the results show that the higher education attained, the greater the chance to access land. However, this does not mean

that the educated head of household is the one who do the farming activities. She or he may use another person who may be a member of the household or pay somebody else to cultivate the land on his or her behalf in order to supplement household income.

Household head respondents with grade seven levels have a higher proportion of households that have access to land than those with lower grades. However, respondents with a secondary school level education show more chances of having access to land, especially those with matric and particularly females (29% for male and 31% for female households). Furthermore, the findings also reveal that respondents holders of grade twelve diplomas; the proportion is higher amongst female (61%) than male (57%). The findings also suggest that for respondents who reported of having primary school level education show a lower proportion of land access compared to those with high school and those with matric. Furthermore, the participants who reported having bachelor, honours, masters and PhD degrees show a slightly higher proportion of land access (62% for bachelor's degree holders, 17% for honours, and 11% for masters and PhD). In summary, the study concludes that education is closely related to land access. In addition, land access has slightly declined from 2004 to 2007 for many reasons which may be land degradation which led to migration.

6.2.9. Land access and literacy (Ability to read and ability to write) by gender

It has been clamed that literacy is a contributing feature to land access. In order to measure this relationship, cross tabulation between those two variables was performed. The findings regarding land access by literacy measured through ability to read and ability to write suggest that female households that have access to land for

farming at 17% are literate (do know how to read), and 15% are illiterate (do not know how to read). Among female headed households who do not have access to land, some of them are literate (83%), and others are illiterate (85%). Furthermore, the findings from the analysis of GHS data suggest that the proportion of female households who know how to read and who have access to land has dropped in 2007 at 14%. Those who do not have access to land for agriculture but are literate comprise 86%. One can, therefore conclude that, though literacy is a facilitating factor for women to gain access to land, it does not mean that being literate automatically grants access to land because the study has demonstrated that a high proportion of female headed households is literate but lacks access to land (86%). Literacy can empower women's participation in the development process. Literacy is a mechanism by which women are awakened to opportunities, and amongst those opportunities, land access is vital given that women are the people who produce almost 80% of the food consumed in most of Africa's rural areas (hunger project, 1999).

6.2.10. Methods of land acquisition and stratum (rural and urban) by gender

In order to attempt the information regarding methods of land acquisition and stratum, it has been asked "on what basis the household have access to land for agricultural purpose"? Further analysis was carried out to control the relationship between methods of land acquisition by stratum and gender of heads of households (table appendix 3). This was done by means of cross tabulation between methods of land acquisition and stratum (rural and urban). The findings reveal that across all provinces female headed households living in rural areas of each province acquire land through tribal authority at 63%, followed by land titling or land ownership at 35%.

The study suggest that place of residence (rural or urban) maybe a contributing factor for rural women to have access to land as land constitutes a basic resource for livelihood in rural areas. As a clear example, the findings indicate that in the Eastern Cape the majority of women living in rural areas rely heavily on land due to privation of many development projects, and also due to high level of poverty persisting in the province which is assumed to be mostly rural. Furthermore, analysis shows that throughout all provinces, tribal authority is ranked first as the method that helps rural South African women to obtain land for agricultural purpose, followed by land ownership. However, sharecropping and renting contribute little to land access due to women's financial limitations.

6.2.11 Methods of land acquisition and population group and gender

The research question was asked "In which ways do women access land for their livelihoods? This question was asked to identify possible methods used to acquire land. The findings suggest that African/Black, Coloured, Asian/Indian women acquire land mainly through renting, sharecropping, tribal authority, ownership, and tribal authority. When methods are cross tabulated with population group by gender, the out come indicates that, across all population groups, female households acquire land through tribal authority about 62%, followed by land ownership at 35%% in 2004. In 2007, the proportion of female households who obtain land through tribal authority dropped from 62% to 50%, whereas females who own land increased from 35% to 43%. Hence, white and Coloured female households are the most likely to own land compared to the rest of female population groups because it is easier for them to get land entitlement. More African/Black women households obtain land through tribal authority than other female population groups because most of them live in rural areas where land is allocated through male kin. This supports the literature which says that

land is almost always allocated to heads of households who are men, and women are seen as having secondary rights and being subordinate to men (Meer, 1997). Renting and sharecropping are the least used methods for women to acquire land across all population groups in South Africa due to lack of financial support.

6.2.12 Methods of land acquisition by marital status and gender

In this study, it was hypothesized that inheritance is an important way through which women acquire land for agricultural purpose. The findings indicate that married or living together as husband and wife, widowed, divorced or separated and never married women acquire land through renting, sharecropping, tribal authority, and ownership. However, married women or living together as husband and wife acquire land mostly through tribal authority. This means that the hypothesis stated above was supported by the findings. Comparing 2004 and 2007 data, 2004 GHS data suggests that married women or living together as husband and wife households obtain land mostly through tribal authority (65%), whereas in 2007 divorced or separated female headed households dominate (54). However, when Chi-square test used to control association, the results did not show association between those variables ($p=.523>0.05$) because of the spuriousness in the data. As it has also been stressed by Palmer (2002), the only issue may arise under this method of land acquisition might be women's indirect access to land compared to men their counterparts. Married women are more likely to have secondary rights, but these secondary rights are also becoming increasingly vulnerable, as the institution of marriage becomes more unstable, and as demographic pressures on land intensify and land acquires greater value.

6.2.13 Methods of land acquisition and literacy (ability to read and write) by gender

In this study it was stressed on how female literate and illiterate headed households acquire land. The findings provided by cross tabulation suggest that female households who know how to read and to write show high proportion in terms of land acquisition through different methods, compared to illiterate female households namely: ownership, renting, sharecropping, and tribal authority. The analysis, thus, concludes that tribal authority provide a better way of accessing land to female literate compared to the rest of the methods used to obtain land that could be used for agriculture purpose. In fact, literate women are more informed on their rights and manner regarding land access through reading news papers, magazines, journals, and books. In so doing, they become open minded, they stand firm and confident when it comes to fight for their rights especially access to resources such as land. Thus, literacy plays a crucial role in the way women obtain land; it awakens in them a sense of power bargaining with their male counterparts. Further analysis indicates that 2004 GHS data shows a lower proportion of female headed households entitled to land (35%) compared to 2007 GHS data (43%). Furthermore, 2004 and 2007 results confirm that most female headed households who are literate acquire land through tribal authority.

6.2.14 Land size and population group by gender

In this section an attempt has been made to assess how many hectares women headed households have access to that could be used for agriculture. The purpose was to control if the size of the land that women have access to, is enough to sustain themselves. By means of cross tabulation between land size and population group by gender, the findings indicate that there is a relationship between land access and

population groups. Furthermore, Chi-square was also used to test association between these two variables. The findings reveal that there is an association between size of land and population groups because p=.000<0.05. Further statistical test such as Cramer's V and Phi; Lambda and Goodman Kruskal tau indicate that there is a strong association between land size and population groups. Therefore, population group is a contributing factor of women's size of land that they have access to.

The findings suggest that African/Black and Coloured female households have access to small portion of land compared to the rest of the population groups (Asian/Indian and white). A very small proportion of the African/Black and Coloured population has access to larger portion of land (20ha or more).Whites have access to larger portion of land in general, and male households in particular. Further analysis also reveals that the data of 2007 GHS shows that male Indian/Asian households have access to different sizes of land. The patterns show that women's land holdings are in most cases of smaller sizes, suggesting a minor representation amongst land holdings. Allendorf (2007), reports that worldwide women own only 1-2% of land, while Kongoro & Bamgose (2002) reported that in South Africa, rural women are typically allocated small piece of land, usually about 1000 to 5000 square metres, which is used to produce food crops such as vegetables, chickpeas and groundnuts for home consumption and, to a very limited extent, for sale. If women were allocated enough size and efficient land that could be used for agriculture, this would bring positive impact on women's wellbeing and sustainable livelihood of the household in general.

6.2.15 Type of farming activities on land and provinces by gender

6.2.15.1 Field crops

An attempting was made to answer the research question "what type of activities is taking place on the land". The expectation was that a predominance of women will be involved in agriculture for household subsistence. Therefore, association between field crops and province by gender was first explored, using simple cross-tabulation**.** Findings reveal that across all provinces of South Africa, most female headed households are involved in field crops. Female households living in provinces assumed to be predominantly rural namely: Northern Province, Kwazulu-Natal, and Mpumalanga show a high proportion of being involved in field crops. The 2004 GHS data do not show female households involved in field crops in Gauteng, but the 2007 HGS results reveal that female households are 100% (7 female headed households) involved in field crops. Nevertheless, female involvement in field crops did not decrease drastically because it is only from 91% in 2004 to 90% in 2007. Based on the pattern showing female involvement in field crops, this study reveals that rural women, though they might have other off-farm income and other main sources of income, rely heavily on small-scale farming for food production and consumption as means of livelihood strategy. This implies that if women were given enough size of land, and if they had access to credit and other scarce resources, no dough they would have used it productively and effectively in order to sustain their household livelihoods.

6.2.15.2 Horticulture

Horticulture is a type of farming activity (flowers) that women engage in which generate cash income in the lives of farming communities. Findings on horticulture reveal that males and females households are involved in horticulture, across all nine

provinces of South Africa. However, findings also indicate that horticulture is most practiced in provinces that are assumed to be urbanised such as Gauteng and Western Cape. Further analysis indicates that female households are less likely to be involved in this farming activity, probably because of lack of technology, farm inputs and the small size of the land in their possession. The study reveals that the proportion of males and females involved in horticulture has slightly increased from 1% in 2004 to 8% in 2007.

6.2.15.3 Livestock or grazing

Further analysis regarding livestock or grazing (cattle, goats, sheep, pig and so on) reveals that, in 2004, Free State and Northern Cape indicated the highest proportion of female household involved in grazing at 50%, followed by Mpumalanga at 23%. However, the 2007 GHS data suggests that the proportion of females involved in grazing has slightly increased. Western Cape shows the highest proportion of females involved in grazing at about 87%, followed by Northern Cape at 83%, and the Free State at 29%. The proportion of female households involved in grazing almost doubled in 2007 in Northern Cape from 50% in 2004 to 83%, but it has declined in Free State from 50% in 2004 to 29% in 2007. Thus, Gauteng is the province where the fewest female households are represented in grazing. Comparing male and female households, the study suggests that male households are much more in grazing than female households. The reasons for this might be lack of enough land to accommodate a large number of herds, lack of access to credit, labour cost and lack of knowledge concerning new technology.

6.2.15 Poultry

Further analysis indicates that poultry which is a type of birds, such as chickens that are bred for their eggs and meat, is also a farming activity taking place on the land

across all provinces. Comparing GHS 2004 and 2007 results, the findings suggest that there is little variation, in terms of proportion, between male and female household involvement in poultry. Male households are highly involved in poultry, though it dropped from 12% in 2004 to 9% in 2007. Moreover, the findings indicate that female households involved in poultry has also dropped in 2007 from about 12% in 2004 to 7% in 2007. Only three provinces (Eastern Cape, Kwazulu-Natal, and Mpumalanga) represent female household's involvement in poultry. As was shown earlier in this chapter, the reasons might be a lack of enough land to accommodate a large number of birds, lack of access to credit, labour costs and lack of knowledge concerning new technology.

6.2.15.5 Orchards

Orchards (plantations of fruit trees) are one of the farming activities taking place on the land among both male and female households. The findings in the study indicate that male households are more likely to be involved in orchard activity at 4% in 2004 and about 5% in 2007, than female households at about 2% in 2004, and about 3% in 2007. For both male and female households, the findings indicate that the proportion has increased gradually from 2004 to 2007. The Free State was highly dominated by orchards among females in 2004, whereas it does not show any proportion in 2007. The Western Cape was highly dominated by orchards at 26% in 2004 among males as compared to the rest of provinces. However, further analysis suggests other unspecified farming activities taking place on the land other than field crops, horticulture, livestock (grazing), poultry, and orchards.

6.2.15.6 Field crops by level of education and gender

It has been claimed that lack of education is a factor that constrains women from farming (field crops). According to this claim, the expectation was to see at what

extent educated women are engaged in field crops. In this regard, cross tabulation was performed to control relationship between field crops and highest level of education by gender of the head of household. The findings suggest that males and females heading households with no schooling rely heavily on subsistence farming (field crops) for food production at an equal degree (36%). However, male and female headed households with school attainment are also involved in field crops. For those who attained high school, the proportion is higher among those who attained grade seven (16% for male, and 15% for female households). Moreover, the proportion increases, particularly among Matric holders, but female heading households indicate high involvement in field crops. Further analysis reveals that female headed-households with diplomas show also high involvement in field crops at 62% compared to male households at 50%. It is surprising that the findings reveal that male and female heading households with degrees (bachelors, honours, masters and PhD) are involved in field crops. This is an indication of how education is a contributing tool for farming, because the more a woman is educated, the greater chances of using land productively even if it is a small portion.

6.2.16 Land access by main source of income and gender

The question on what main source of income was asked to the head of households to assess the source of supplementary income. It was expected that households derive income from wages/salaries, remittances, pension and grants, sale of farm products, and other non-farm income. This hypothesis was tested first by a cross tabulation between land access and main sources of income by gender and the results show that main sources of income contribute significantly to land access. The findings provided by Chi-square test suggest that there is a significant relationship between land access and main source of income because the P value was less than the 0.05 ($P=.000<0.05$).

Further statistical test such as Phi, Cramer V, Lambda, and Kruskal tau show strong association between those two variables. This implies that though income from farming plays an important role in rural subsistence, income from wages and salaries, pension and grants, remittances, sale of farm products, and non-farm income supplement significantly the income from farming.

However, income from the sale of farm products constitutes a high proportion among male households that have access to land at 67%. In regard with female households, income from the sale of farm products contributes at 35% which is lower than male households. This explains how males tend to control most of the farm products, though women do almost all the farm work. Further analysis shows that income from remittances decreased in 2007 probably because of job scarcity and the economic recession where many people lost their jobs.

Ellis (1998) makes the point that remittances are interesting determinants of livelihood diversification obtained often from literature on migration, where migrants maintain a flow of remittances to their families. Empirical studies generally show that the majority of migrants do indeed send remittances home, although the proportion of income sent and its frequency display wide variation across individual migrants. This flow of remittances sent back home have a positive impact on risk reduction that is conferred by having diverse income sources. Therefore, more attention needs to be given to the barriers that reduce people's mobility, discourage them from taking a broad view of opportunities and make it difficult for them to deal with spatially dispersed transactions (Ellis, 2001).

6.2.17 Land access by relationship to the head of household and gender

A question on what is the relationship to the head was asked. Intra-household relation is a variable that provides information regarding how women head of households are allocated land in regard with household composition and family dynamic**.** A simple cross tabulation was performed in order to control relationship between land access and intra-household composition in the study. The findings in the study indicate that households headed by a mother of children (son, daughter, stepchildren, or adopted children) constitute a high proportion of heads of households that have access to land at 36%. This headship shows the magnitude of responsibility placed upon women who have dependents as family members, and it is considered as an important household headship which is not supposed to be ignored. Further analysis indicates that female head of household whose family members include grandchildren or great grandchildren have access to land at 26%.

Furthermore, the results show that the proportion of female acting heads or nominated heads on behalf of someone else (e.g. husband) is equal to 28%. This implies that those women assume many responsibilities as providers and breadwinners in the family. These patterns indicate that the value of women headed household with children is far more different from the value given to childless women headed households in terms of land allocation. Households composed of those dependents are assumed to be largely intact. Literature confirms that single, widows, divorced or separated women head of households with grown children are less likely to leave and to remarry outside (Meer, 1997).

However, comparing the 2004 and 2007 GHS data, the findings reveal that the proportion of female households acting head or mark head has slightly increased from 28% in 2004 to 42% in 2007. But the proportion of female households composed by children (son, daughter, stepchildren, and adopted children) has dropped from 36% in 2004 to 25% in 2007. The reason might be the contraceptive use which has decreased the population growth. Moreover, migration of children might also account for this decrease. In general, little variation among the trends has been observed amongst female and male households, but some variations among the trends have been seen between 2004 and 2007.

6.2.18 Land access by off-farm employment

In light of off-farm activities, research question "what are other activities generating income besides farming" was asked**.** As it has been hypothesized that," besides farming, women are engaged in other activities that generate income", this hypothesis was tested to check the association between land access and off-farm employment by gender. First, a cross tabulation was made and test statistics followed, by means of chi-square, Lambda and Cremer's V, Phi and Kruskal Tau. The results from chi-square test indicated that there is an association between land access and off-farm activities amongst male and female households where P value is less than 0.05 (P= .000<0.05). Therefore, male and female households are more likely to have access to different income sources, and consequently, participation in these sources will have different impact on income distribution and on poverty.

The study found that, besides farming, South African women are also involved in off-farm activities to supplement income derived from on-farm activities; including elementary work, domestic work, service work, shop and market sales work, craft and

related trade work, technical and associate professionals, senior officials and managers and professionals, clerking. This study suggests that livelihood diversification strategy plays a crucial role among both male and female households, but the conjunction between on-farm and off-farm activities constitute a lower proportion at 13%, compared to households involved in off-farm activities only (87%). The reason might be that some households diversify income using different strategies other than farming. Hence, inequality has been observed against female headed households who diversify income. The findings in this study reveal that women are held in a subordinate position where they do unskilled jobs and get low pay.

From Ellis (1999) work which emphasized the link between Rural Livelihoods, Diversity and Poverty Reduction Policies, a conclusion emerged that agriculture on its own often cannot provide the means of escaping poverty for the majority of rural poor including women. Women are prone to diversify income sources in order to cope with risk, seasonality and other adverse factors in agriculture. In fact, this is a notion of sustainable livelihoods where livelihoods refers to both economic and non-economic activities that households and members engage in to increase income, reduce vulnerability and improve the quality of life. It entails how people exploit resources and use assets and capacities. Livelihoods are regarded as assets, activities and entitlements that people use to make a living.

6.2.19 Land access by income category and gender

A question on “what is your income category” was asked to investigate the range of income that women head of households earn. After cross tabulation, the findings suggest that majority of female households earn low income that range between R1-

46 and R6000-12000. It further suggests that the proportion of male and female households that have land for agriculture and who earn income from off-farm employment is lower than the proportion of males and females who rely only on income from off-farm employment for both GHS 2004 and 2007. Linking these findings on sustainable livelihood framework, these head of households who rely only on off-farm income are not secured enough since diversification is lacking in their livelihoods. These results support the literature where land scarcity and land deterioration in homelands increased the pressure on blacks to enter the cash economy and migrate to urban areas for work (Osthuizen, 1993). Both the political and economic life of blacks changed radically. Therefore, the agricultural output of the black areas became insignificant (Oosthuizen, 1993). Moreover, the study found that large number of female heading households earn little income that cannot allow them to survive on that little. To caution the risks, they go for subsistence farming to prevent hard times.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The main focus of this study was on Some Demographic Aspects of Women's Access to Land for Farming in South Africa. The aim of the study was to explore the profile and status of women in relation to land access. The profile was investigated through variables such as gender, age, population groups, marital status, and place of residence, household composition and educational level. Land-related issues were investigated through variables such as land access, methods of land acquisition, and land size, and type of activities taking place on land. The study has explored the differentials that may exist in the context of land access and land acquisition and closely related issues in general and women headed households in particular. The overall objective was to explore land access, methods of land acquisition and land use. Different farming activities on land have been discussed. The other alternatives which can contribute to household livelihoods (off-farm activities and main source of income) have been discussed. By comparing the results from analysis of the 2004 GHS and that of the 2007 data, the variations have been presented.

The theoretical framework was drawn from the literature on livelihoods sustainable framework. The study first examined the magnitude of women's household headship in South Africa and their relation to land for farming. It was found that in 2004 the rate of women headed households was 40%, and this has increased to 43% in 2007. The highest proportion of women headed households was found in Northern Province followed by Eastern Cape and Kwazulu-Natal, due to the fact that those provinces are predominantly rural where men are likely to migrate to towns to seek jobs in order to earn households supplementary income. The study concludes that women play a crucial role in heading households though they have limited access and control of

household scarce resources such as land for farming. Thereafter, some bivariate relationships were explored.

This study found that the proportion of female headed households using land for small-scale farming is higher than those of males headed households. As the literature says, it is true that neither traditional nor reformed landholding systems have much increased women's share of farmland because, amongst what they have access to, they only own the few due to the patriarchy system which does not allow them equal ownership. This means that though more women than men depend on agriculture, many fewer own land. In addition, the proportion of males and females that have access to land has declined from 2004 to 2007. This explains that small-scale farming which used to be a basic source of livelihood is no longer sufficient for rural households to sustain themselves.

The study revealed that most of households that have access to land (headed by males or females) are found in rural areas rather than in urban areas. Eastern Cape is an example of that where 66% represent rural and 12% urban, followed by rural Kwazulu-Natal at 39%, and 1% for urban. These findings support the literature that rural households rely more heavily on land for food production than urban household do. With regard to provinces, the study has revealed that Eastern Cape and Kwazulu-Natal have a high proportion of female headed households that have access to land where, besides diversification of income, women rely heavily on small-scale farming for food production. Hence, in 2004 African/black female households show a higher proportion in terms of land access than other categories of women, but in 2007 white males were representing a high proportion.

This study found that age of women was strongly associated with land access. It has been observed that women aged between the 60-74 and 75-80 age groups represent a high proportion of household that have access to land. Moreover, older women have little exposure to off-farm employment and this is the reason they are much involved in farming. They also live on their own, having experienced the migration of their children. The proportion of land access decreases amongst young women aged between 15-29 and 30-44 age groups. The findings also suggest that divorced or separated female households are more likely to have access to land at 23% followed by married women about 17%, otherwise little variation was observed amongst the trends in 2004. However, the proportion of divorced or separated female households that have access to land has dropped in 2004 at 23% to 12% in 2007.

Furthermore, the findings on land access and literacy suggest that literacy (ability to read and write) may be a factor that helps women in a manner of having access to land. Those who are literate without access to land may choose to do so because they are involved in other activities generating income. Women's level of education was associated with land access. It was surprising to see female heads of households who are degree holders and at the same time engaged in small-scale farming. Looking at married women living in rural areas, tribal authority was found to be a better way of having access to land in South Africa. Hence, the study indicates that most of African/black women have access to smallholdings of land for agricultural purpose (5.000-9.999m²), and white women have access to large plots of land (20ha and more). The study has indicated that some educated women are involved in different activities in land especially in field crops for food production and consumption. In this case someone else in the household may be used to cultivate the land on their behalf.

South African women derive supplementary income from different main sources such as wages or salaries, remittances, pensions and grants, and sales of farm products. Source of cash income was associated with land access. Sales of farm products are the greatest and key source of supplementary income. For the non-farming households, the key source of income is wages and salaries. Female households composed of children such as sons, daughters, stepchildren and adopted children as dependents are more likely to have access to land because they are assumed to be vulnerable. Besides farming, women are involved in many off-farm activities to sustain livelihoods. The study has found that the proportion of non-farming households is high, probably because few households have access to enough size of land. In addition, they may not want to be involved in agriculture because they are already engaged in many other activities generating income. For women households that derive income from different employments, the majority are held in subordinate positions and end up by earning low salaries compared to men their counterparts.

In summary, developmental, planners should address these issues by strengthening women's education given that education was found to be a contributing factor of women's access to land. Policy makers and rural planners should see how important women's involvement in development. The fact that most land is accessed by old women is already a problem. Bringing in the issue of migration, this implies that most young people are more likely to migrate to towns for job seeking and cash income, given that farming income only is no longer sufficient for rural livelihood. Old women are assumed to use small holding land effectively. As they remain behind, they receive income in the form of remittances from their children working in cities, pensions and grants, wages and from the sale of farm products.

This study found that women living in provinces known to be predominantly rural rely heavily on smallholding of land for farming. Most Black women rely heavily on small-scale farming for food production and consumption. Though divorced or separated women are not supported, but they find support on their own as entrepreneurial through diverse activities. The rate of rural women with no schooling still higher, this may constrain women from being aware of their rights regarding land access, which may be a barrier from being involved in development process of the society. Nevertheless, Livelihood Sustainable Framework was not well elaborated in the previous literature. It has been found that rural women receive inflow of cash income from different sources and from different off-farm activities generating income to supplement income from farming. The study found that women headed households have the capability to diversify income except issue of inequality that still persisting in accessing land. Therefore, careful analysis is required for policy makers to take into account this vulnerable group in South Africa in particular and the whole world at large.

The aspect of migration does not fall within the scope of the study. The focus was only on women found in households and their relation to land and the way in which they use it as an asset. Therefore, female migrants could not be captured. Although some women opt for migration, others choose to use land as a livelihood strategy. Land may be used in conjunction with other incomes. In this case women stay at home and rely on remittances from their children or husband to develop the land.

In general, some issues which need careful attention are the following: women in rural areas are accessing land, but only small plots of land are allocated to them and the main source of income may not sustain the living. Black/African single women

heading households are still having problem of being allocated a plot of land to cultivate. In addition, issue of data was encountered where the data were not the same for 2004 and 2007, variables such as stratum was not there for 2007, and highest level of education was not answered in the same way as for 2007. The overall findings suggest that the household is really a production unit where all economic decisions are taken. Therefore, land is very central to the portfolio of household assets because it can protect highly vulnerable households, as those headed by women, against poverty.

7.1. Some recommendations

Some recommendations have been given along the line with this work. Traditional authority must recognise the importance of women in food productivity for the wellbeing of a household. Given that women are carrying the responsibilities and burdens in households without effective and sufficient social and economic resources, policy makers and implementers should take into consideration the single women in order to challenge many of the social barriers rural women face such as traditional restrictions on women's independent land access and control. The inequality regarding women's access to and control over land that may impact on small-scale farming specifically on loans and credits, and production of food crops is an area which needs special attention by policy makers and planners. Land related policy should take into account rural women in regard to opportunities within their physical environment as they rely heavily on agriculture for food production and consumption as means of livelihood subsistence. Policy formulation and implementation should take into account women's social characteristics as they differ in terms of age, level of education, race, and place of residence, occupation and income earning.

Policy regarding women's education should be strengthened since education is a contributing factor for women's participation in development. All developmental planners and decision making should involve women and their voices must be heard. As many use to say, any development which excludes women acts as a bottleneck to the active participation of women in development in South Africa.Women heading households should be strengthened by ensuring them full access to household's assets such as land**.** As has been mentioned in policy section of this work**,** affirmative action should be warranted to increase women's access to land in order to promote their wellbeing. Making space for women to put forward their needs, and make decisions about resources and management of their resources, should be premised on their recognition as full residents. More commitment to gender equality by the current government and NGOs in regard to women's security in land is needed. Further implementation of policy in regard to the use, transfer, administration and control of land and benefit of the same rights of men with respect to inheritance is recommended. More though, and more carefully selected actions, are needed to address female disadvantage in land access effectively

7.2 Future research direction

There is a room for future research to better understand the issue of women's access to land for small-scale farming and how it affects the wellbeing of the household members. Further research should emphasize how household size and religion predispose women's access to land as those variables were not in the questionnaire used in GHS 2004 and 2007**.**

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Distribution of land access by province (Rural and Urban) for 2004

STATRUM																				
Gender	Land access	Western Cape		Eastern Cape		Northern Cape		Free State		Kwazulu Natal		NorthernWest		Gauteng		Mpumalenga		Northern Province		TOTAL
		Urb	Non urb	Urb	Non Urb	Urb	Non Urb	Urb	Non Urb	Urb	Non Urb	Urb	No Urb	Urb	Non Urb	Urb	Non Urb	Urb	Non Urb	
Male	Yes	11	58	108	525	12	30	15	45	8	353	2	65	16	12	5	41	5	263	1574
	%	0.8	11.1	11.1	62.3	2.4	9.0	1.8	6.6	0.6	35.1	0.3	7.2	0.6	13.2	0.7	5.8	1.1	25.2	10.0
	No	1314	464	865	318	492	304	842	638	1363	654	667	844	2706	79	663	668	440	781	14102
	%	99.2	88.9	88.9	37.7	97.6	91.0	98.2	93.4	99.4	64.9	99.7	92.8	99.4	86.8	99.3	94.2	98.9	74.8	90.0
	Total	1325	522	793	843	504	334	857	683	1371	1007	669	909	2722	91	668	709	445	1044	15676
	%	100.	100.	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Female	Yes	4	9	89	673	1	1	3	11	13	548	0	34	0	0	1	35	8	282	1712
	%	0.5	7.2	12.4	66.2	0.3	1.2	0.6	5.6	1.4	48.7	0.0	6.2	0.0	0.0	0.2	6.8	2.3	23.5	16.3
	No	724	116	631	343	326	84	530	184	901	578	445	513	1225	35	416	476	346	916	8789
	%	99.5	92.8	87.6	33.8	99.7	98.8	99.4	94.4	98.6	51.3	100	93.8	100	100	99.8	93.2	97.7	76.5	83.7
	Total	728	125	720	1016	327	85	533	195	914	1126	445	547	1225	35	417	511	354	1198	10501
	%	100.	100.	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Generated by researcher from GHS 2004

Appendix 2a: Distribution of land access by level of education and gender (Primary school)

Gender	Level of education	Land access (2004)			Land access (2007)		
		Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Male	No schooling	262 34.0%	2537 31.8%	2799 32.0%	91 23.8%	769 21.3%	860 21.5%
	Grade 0	48 6.2%	473 5.9%	521 6.0%	3 0.8%	31 0.9%	34 0.9%
	Sub A/ Grade 1	38 4.9%	458 5.7%	496 5.7%	11 2.9%	96 2.7%	107 2.7%
	Sub B/ Grade 2	40 5.2%	477 6.0%	517 5.9%	15 3.9%	143 4.0%	158 4.0%
	Grade 3/ Standard 1	46 6.0%	642 8.0%	688 7.9%	24 6.3%	255 6.2%	249 6.2%
	Grade 4/ Standard 2	51 6.6%	649 8.1%	700 8.0%	33 8.6%	339 9.4%	372 9.3%
	Grade 5/ Standard 3	72 9%	707 8.9%	799 8.9%	42 11.0%	444 12.3%	486 12.2%
	Grade 6/ Standard 4	92 11.9%	936 11.7%	1028 11.8%	72 18.8%	666 18.4%	738 18.5%
	Grade 7/ Standard 5	122 15.8%	1097 13.8%	1219 13.9%	92 24.0%	898 24.9%	990 24.8%
	Total	771 100.0%	7976 100.0%	8749 100.0%	383 100.0%	3611 100.0%	3994 100.0%
Female	No schooling	288 33.1%	1542 31.4%	1830 31.6%	88 19.9%	596 22.4%	684 22%
	Grade 0	49 5.6%	315 6.4%	364 6.3%	2 0.5%	21 0.8%	23 0.7%
	Sub A/ Grade 1	52 6.0%	278 5.7%	330 5.7%	11 2.5%	75 2.8%	86 2.8%
	Sub B/ Grade 2	47 5.4%	310 6.3%	357 6.2%	8 1.8%	93 3.5%	101 3.3%
	Grade 3/ Standard	50 5.7%	357 7.3%	407 7.0%	23 5.2%	145 5.4%	168 5.3%
	Grade 4/ Standard 2	63 7,2%	436 8.9%	499 8.6%	35 7.9%	238 8.9%	273 8.8%
	Grade 5/ Standard 3	91 10.5%	428 8.7%	519 9.0%	57 12.9%	328 12.3%	385 12.4%
	Grade 6/ Standard 4	93 10.7%	578 11.8%	671 11.6%	77 17.4%	464 17.4%	541 17.4%
	Grade 7/ Standard 5	137 15.7%	674 13.7%	811 14.0%	141 31.9%	703 26.4%	844 27.2%
	Total	870 100.0%	4918 100.0%	5788 100.0%	442 100.0%	2663 100.0%	3105 100.0%

Appendix 2b: Distribution of land access by level of education and gender (High school)

Gender	Level of education	Land access 2004			Land access 2007		
		Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Male	Grade 8/ Standard 6/ Form 1	168	1130	1298	118	1141	1259
		24.3%	21.5%	21.8%	20.8%	19.7%	19.8%
	Grade 9/ Standard 7/ Form 2	127	965	1092	100	1064	1164
		18.4%	18.4%	18.4%	17.5%	18.4%	18.3%
	Grade 10/ Standard 8/Form 3	133	1024	1157	126	1085	1211
		19.2%	19.5%	19.5%	22.0%	18.7%	19.0%
	Grade 11/ Standard 9/ Form4	71	622	693	73	813	886
		10.3%	11.8%	11.7%	12.8%	14.0%	13.9%
	Grade 12/ Standard 10/ Form 5/ Matric	192	1515	1707	155	1689	1844
		27.8%	28.8%	28.7%	27.1%	29.2%	29.0%
	Total	691	5256	5947	572	5792	6364
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Female	Grade 8/ Standard 6/ Form 1	142	752	894	134	821	955
		19.5%	22.3%	21.4%	20.6%	19.9%	20.0%
	Grade 9/ Standard 7/ Form 2	115	592	707	122	716	838
		15.8%	17.6%	17.2%	18.8%	17.4%	17.6%
	Grade 10/ Standard 8/Form 3	165	658	823	116	807	923
		22.7%	19.5%	20.1%	17.9%	19.6%	19.4%
	Grade 11/ Standard 9/ Form 4	82	389	471	82	593	675
		11.5%	11.5%	11.5%	12.6%	14.4%	14.2%
	Grade 12/ Standard 10/ Form 5/ Matric	980	980	1204	195	1183	1378
		29.1%	29.1%	29.4%	30.0%	28.7%	28.9%
	Total	3371	3371	4099	649	4120	4769
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Appendix 2c: Distribution of land access by level of education and gender (Certificates) (2004)

Gender	Level of education	Land access (2004)		
		Yes	No	Total
Male	NTC I	3 4.5%	21 4.4%	24 4.4%
	NTC II	2 3.0%	12 2.5%	14 2.6%
	NTC III	6 9.0%	31 6.5%	37 6.8%
	Certificates with less than Grade 12/Std 10	3 4.5%	23 4.8%	26 4.8%
	Diploma/ Certificate with less than Grade 12/Std 10	5 7.5%	50 10.4%	55 10.1%
	Certificate with Grade 12/Std 10	10 14.9%	78 16.3%	88 16.1%
	Diploma with Grade 12/Std 10	38 56.7%	264 55.1%	302 55.3%
	Total	67 100.0%	479 100.0%	536 100.0%
Female	NTC I	2 2.8%	11 3.9%	13 3.7%
	NTC II	1 1.4%	6 2.1%	7 2.0%
	NTC III	4 5.6%	20 7.1%	24 6.8%
	Certificates with less than Grade 12/Std 10	4 5.6%	7 2.5%	11 3.1%
	Diploma/ Certificate with less than Grade 12/Std 10	6 8.3%	22 7.8%	28 7.9%
	Certificate with Grade 12/Std 10	11 15.3%	43 15.2%	54 15.2%
	Diploma with Grade 12/Std 10	44 61.1%	174 61.5%	218 61.4%
	Total	72 100.0%	283 100.0%	355 100.0%

Appendix 2d: Distribution of land access by level of education and gender (University)

Gender	Level of education	Land access (2004)		
		Yes	No	Total
Male	Bachelor degree	21 60.0%	132 47.0%	153 48.4%
	Bachelor degree or diploma	4 11.4%	56 19.9%	60 19.0%
	Honours degree	6 17.1%	37 13.2%	43 13.6%
	Highest degree (masters, doctorate)	4 11.4%	56 19.9%	60 19.0%
	Total	35 100.0%	281 100.0%	316 100.0%
Female	Bachelor degree	18 2.1%	77 45.0%	95 47.5%
	Bachelor degree or diploma	3 10.3%	38 22.2%	41 20.5%
	Honours degree	5 17.2%	26 15.2%	31 15.5%
	Highest degree (masters, doctorate)	3 10.3%	30 17.5%	33 16.5%
	Total	29 100.0%	171 100.0%	200 100.0%

Appendix 3: Methods of land acquisition and stratum by gender (2004)

STATRUM																				
Gender	Methods Of land acquisition	Western Cape		Eastern Cape		NorthernCape		Free State		Kwazulu Natal		NorthernWest		Gauteng		Mpumalenga		Northern Province		TOTAL
		Urb	Non urb	Urb	Non Urb	Urb	Non Urb	Urb	Non Urb	Urb	Non Urb	Urb	No Urb	Urb	Non Urb	Urb	Non Urb	Urb	Non Urb	
Male	Own the land	10	35	92	97	10	23	13	31	6	165	2	55	13	9	3	29	1	97	691
	%	100	83.3	91.1	19.1	83.3	85.2	86.7	79.5	75.0	47.8	100	85.9	86.7	90.0	100	76.3	25.0	40.9	46.7
	Rent the land	0	6	8	3	2	3	2	7	2	5	0	1	0	1	0	3	0	2	45
	%	0.0	14.3	7.9	0.6	16.7	11.1	13.3	17.3	25.0	1.4	0.0	1.6	0.0	10.0	0.0	7.9	0.0	0.8	3.0
	Sharecropping	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3	12
	%	0.0	2.4	0.0	0.2	0.0	3.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.6	25.0	1.3	0.8
	Tribal auth	0	0	1	407	0	0	0	1	0	171	0	8	2	0	0	5	2	135	732
	%	0.0	0.0	1.0	80.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.6	0.0	49.6	0.0	12.5	13.3	0.0	0.0	13.2	50.0	57.0	49.5
	Total	10	42	101	508	12	27	15	39	8	345	2	64	15	10	10	38	4	237	1480
	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Female	Own the land	3	6	78	89	1	0	2	9	11	238		26			0	28	4	91	586
	%	100	100	89.7	13.4	100	0.0	100	100	100	43.9		76.5			0.0	82.4	50.0	34.6	35.2
	Rent the land	0	0	4	2	0	0	0	0	0	7		0			0	0	0	2	15
	%	0.0	0.0	4.6	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.3		0.0			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.9
	Sharecropping	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	0	0	3		0			1	0	0	3	11
	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	100	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6		0.0			100	0.0	0.0	1.1	0.7
	Tribal autho	0	0	5	569	0	0	0	0	0	294		8			0	6	4	167	1053
	%	0.0	0.0	5.7	85.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	54.2		23.5			0.0	17.6	50.0	63.5	63.2
	Total	3	6	87	663	1	1	2	9	11	542		34			1	34	8	263	1665
	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100		100			100	100	100	100	100

Appendix 4: Distribution of land acquisition by literacy (Ability to write) and gender

Gender	Methods of land acquisition	Ability to write (2004)			Ability to write (2007)		
		Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Male	Owns the land	519	172	691	482	75	557
		44.7%	43.7%	44.5%	51.5%	55.6%	52.0%
	Rents the land	28	17	45	37	7	44
		2.4%	4.3%	2.9%	4.0%	5.2%	4.1%
	Sharecropping	8	4	12	20	4	24
		0.7%	1.0%	0.8%	2.1%	3.0%	2.2%
	Tribal authority	544	188	732	366	46	412
		46.9%	47.7%	47.1%	39.1%	34.1%	38.5%
	Total	1099	381	1480	905	132	1037
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Female	Owns the land	429	157	586	448	70	518
		34.1%	36.4%	34.7%	42.2%	48.6%	43.0%
	Rents the land	10	5	15	32	4	30
		0.8%	1.2%	0.9%	3.0%	2.8%	2.5%
	Sharecropping	7	4	11	28	2	30
		0.6%	0.9%	0.7%	2.6%	1.4%	2.5%
	Tribal authority	793	260	1053	538	67	605
		63.0%	60.3%	62.3%	50.7%	46.5%	50.2%
	Total	1239	426	1665	1046	143	1183
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Appendix 5a: Distribution of activities on the land (field crops) by level of education and gender (Primary school)

Gender	Level of education	Field crops (2004)			Field crops (2007)		
		Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Male	No schooling	230 35.5%	32 26.7%	262 34.1%	80 24.5%	10 19.6%	90 23.8%
	Grade 0	36 5.6%	12 10.0%	48 6.2%	2 0.6%	1 2.0%	3 0.8%
	Sub A/ Grade 1	29 4.5%	9 7.5%	38 4.9%	9 2.8%	2 3.9%	11 2.9%
	Sub B/ Grade 2	34 5.2%	6 5.0%	40 5.2%	13 4.0%	2 3.9%	15 4.0%
	Grade 3/ Standard 1	35 5.4%	10 8.3%	45 5.9%	17 5.2%	7 13.7%	24 6.3%
	Grade 4/ Standard 2	43 6.6%	8 6.7%	51 6.6%	30 9.2%	3 5.95	33 8.7%
	Grade 5/ Standard 3	62 9.6%	10 8.3%	72 9.4%	36 11.0%	5 9.8%	41 10.8%
	Grade 6/ Standard 4	75 11.6%	15 12.5%	90 11.7%	61 18.7%	8 15.7%	69 18.3%
	Grade 7/ Standard 5	104 16.0%	18 15.0%	122 15.9%	79 24.2%	13 25.5%	92 24.3%
	Total	648 100.0%	120 100.0%	768 100.0%	327 100.0%	51 100.0%	378 100.0%
Female	No schooling	264 33.5%	23 29.5%	287 33.1%	81 20.0%	7 19.4%	88 20.0%
	Grade 0	46 5.8%	3 3.8%	49 5.7%	2 0.5%	0 0.0%	2 0.5%
	Sub A/ Grade 1	47 6.0%	5 6.4%	52 6.0%	12 3.0%	0 0.0%	12 2.7%
	Sub B/ Grade 2	41 5.2%	5 6.4%	46 5.3%	8 2.0%	1 2.8%	9 2.0%
	Grade 3/ Standard	44 5.6%	6 7.7%	50 5.8%	21 5.2%	2 5.6%	23 5.2%
	Grade 4/ Standard 2	59 7.5%	4 5.1%	63 7.3%	33 8.1%	2 5.6%	35 7.9%
	Grade 5/ Standard 3	83 10.5%	7 9.0%	90 10.4%	51 12.6%	6 16.7%	57 12.9%
	Grade 6/ Standard 4	87 11.0%	6 7.7%	93 10.7%	69 17.0%	6 16.7%	75 17.0%
	Grade 7/ Standard 5	118 15.0%	19 24.4%	137 15.8%	128 31.6%	12 33.3%	140 31.7%
	Total	789 100.0%	78 100.0%	867 100.0%	405 100.0%	36 100.0%	441 100.0%

Appendix 5b: Distribution of activities on the land (Field crops) by level of education and gender (High school)

Gender	Level of education	Field crops (2004)			Field crops (2007)		
		Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Male	Grade 8/ Standard 6/ Form 1	143 24.4%	25 23.6%	168 24.3%	102 22.7%	17 14.4%	119 21.0%
	Grade 9/ Standard 7/ Form 2	108 18.1%	21 19.8%	127 18.4%	81 18.0%	17 14.4%	98 17.3%
	Grade 10/ Standard 8/Form 3	109 18.6%	24 22.6%	133 19.2%	96 21.4%	30 25.4%	126 22.2%
	Grade 11/ Standard 9/ Form4	62 10.6%	9 8.5%	71 10.3%	53 11.8%	18 15.3%	71 12.5%
	Grade 12/ Standard 10/ Form 5/ Matric	165 28.2%	27 25.5%	192 27.8%	117 26.1%	36 30.5%	153 27.0%
	Total	585 100.0%	106 100.0%	691 100.0%	449 100.0%	118 100.0%	567 100.0%
Female	Grade 8/ Standard 6/ Form 1	127 19.1%	15 24.6%	142 19.5%	121 21.2%	14 18.7%	135 20.9%
	Grade 9/ Standard 7/ Form 2	107 16.1%	7 11.5%	114 15.7%	99 17.4%	21 28.0%	120 18.6%
	Grade 10/ Standard 8/Form 3	152 22.8%	13 21.3%	165 22.7%	105 18.4%	9 12.0%	114 17.7%
	Grade 11/ Standard 9/ Form 4	75 11.3%	7 11.5%	82 11.3%	75 13.2%	7 9.3%	82 12.7%
	Grade 12/ Standard 10/ Form 5/ Matric	205 30.8%	19 31.1%	224 30.8%	170 29.8%	24 32.0%	194 30.1%
	Total	666 100.0%	61 100.0%	727 100.0%	570 100.0%	75 100.0%	645 100.0%

Appendix 5c: Distribution of activities on the land (Field crops) by level of education and gender (High certificates and diploma)

Gender	Level of education	Field crops (2004)		
		Yes	No	Total
Male	NTC I	3 5.4%	0 0.0%	3 4.5%
	NTC II	2 3.6%	0 0.0%	2 3.0%
	NTC III	6 10.7%	0 0.0%	6 9.0%
	Certificates with less than Grade 12/Std 10	3 5.4%	0 0.0%	3 4.5%
	Diploma/ Certificate with less than Grade 12/Std 10	4 7.1%	1 9.1%	5 7.5%
	Certificate with Grade 12/Std 10	10 17.9%	0 0.0%	10 14.9%
	Diploma with Grade 12/Std 10	28 50.0%	10 90.9%	38 56.7%
	Total	56 100.0%	11 100.0%	67 100.0%
Female	NTC I	2 2.9%	0 0.0%	1 1.4%
	NTC II	1 1.5%	0 0.0%	1 1.4%
	NTC III	4 5.9%	0 0.0%	4 5.6%
	Certificates with less than Grade 12/Std 10	3 4.4%	1 25.0%	4 5.6%
	Diploma/ Certificate with less than Grade 12/Std 10	5 7.4%	1 25.0%	6 8.3%
	Certificate with Grade 12/Std 10	11 16.2%	0 0.0%	11 15.3%
	Diploma with Grade 12/Std 10	42 61.8%	2 50.0%	44 61.1%
	Total	68 100.0%	4 100.0%	72 100.0%

Appendix 5d: Distribution of farming activities on the land (Field crops) by level of education and gender (Tertiary education)

Gender	Level of education	Field crops (2004)		
		Yes	No	Total
Male	NTC I	3 5.4%	0 0.0%	3 4.5%
	NTC II	2 3.6%	0 0.0%	2 3.0%
	NTC III	6 10.7%	0 0.0%	6 9.0%
	Certificates with less than Grade 12/Std 10	3 5.4%	0 0.0%	3 4.5%
	Diploma/ Certificate with less than Grade 12/Std 10	4 7.1%	1 9.1%	5 7.5%
	Certificate with Grade 12/Std 10	10 17.9%	0 0.0%	10 14.9%
	Diploma with Grade 12/Std 10	28 50.0%	10 90.9%	38 56.7%
	Total	56 100.0%	11 100.0%	67 100.0%
Female	NTC I	2 2.9%	0 0.0%	1 1.4%
	NTC II	1 1.5%	0 0.0%	1 1.4%
	NTC III	4 5.9%	0 0.0%	4 5.6%
	Certificates with less than Grade 12/Std 10	3 4.4%	1 25.0%	4 5.6%
	Diploma/ Certificate with less than Grade 12/Std 10	5 7.4%	1 25.0%	6 8.3%
	Certificate with Grade 12/Std 10	11 16.2%	0 0.0%	11 15.3%
	Diploma with Grade 12/Std 10	42 61.8%	2 50.0%	44 61.1%
	Total	68 100.0%	4 100.0%	72 100.0%

Appendix 6: Some differentials in land access and off-farm employment

Gender	Main occupation	Land access (2004)			Land access (2007)		
		Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Male	Legislators, senior officials and managers	113 15.7%	833 8.9%	946 9.3%	27 6.7%	238 5.6%	265 5.7%
	Professionals	24 3.3%	424 4.5%	448 4.4%	21 5.1%	193 4.6%	214 4.6%
	Technical and associate professionals	44 6.1%	745 7.9%	789 7.8%	35 8.4%	295 7.0%	330 7.1%
	Clerks	5 0.7%	488 5.2%	493 4.9%	34 8.2%	375 8.9%	409 8.8%
	Service workers and Shop and market sales work	68 9.4%	1012 10.8%	1080 10.7%	47 11.3%	485 11.5%	532 11.4%
	Skilled agriculture and fishery workers	135 18.8%	97 1.0%	232 2.3%	14 3.4%	152 3.6%	166 3.6%
	Craft and related trades workers	104 14.4%	1699 18.1%	1803 17.8%	67 16.1%	503 11.9%	570 12.3%
	Plant and machine Operators and assemblers	65 9.0%	1671 17.8%	1736 17.2%	21 5.1%	361 8.5%	382 8.2%
	Elementary occupation	159 22.1%	2364 25.1%	2523 24.9%	115 27.7%	1268 100.0%	1383 29.8%
	Domestic workers	3 0.4%	67 0.7%	70 0.7%	34 8.2%	363 8.6%	397 8.5%
	Total	720 100.0%	9400 100.0%	10120 100.0%	415 100.0%	4233 100.0%	4648 100.0%
Female	Legislators, senior officials and managers	10 2.6%	93 2.5%	103 2.5%	21 5.0%	165 5.7%	186 5.7%
	Professionals	12 3.1%	165 4.4%	177 4.3%	12 2.8%	132 4.6%	144 4.4%
	Technical and associate professionals	39 10.2%	424 11.4%	463 11.3%	36 8.5%	243 8.5%	279 8.5%
	Clerks	11 2.9%	343 9.3%	354 8.7%	34 8.1%	254 8.9%	288 8.7%
	Service workers and Shop and market sales workers	52 13.6%	388 10.5%	440 10.8%	59 14.0%	335 11.7%	394 12.0%
	Skilled agriculture and fishery workers	33 8.6%	42 1.1%	75 1.8%	21 5.0%	97 3.4%	118 3.6%
	Craft and related trades workers	40 10.5%	144 3.9%	184 4.5%	59 14.0%	382 13.3%	441 13.4%
	Plant and machine Operators and assemblers	4 1.0%	107 2.9%	111 2.7%	38 9.0%	194 6.8%	232 7.0%
	Elementary occupation	118 30.9%	913 24.6%	1031 25.2%	111 26.3%	800 27.9%	911 27.7%
	Domestic workers	63 16.5%	1089 29.4%	1152 28.2%	31 7.3%	268 9.3%	299 9.1%
	Total	382 100.0%	3708 100.0%	4090 100.0%	442 100.0%	2870 100.0%	3292 100.0%

Appendix 7: Distribution of land access by income category and gender for 2004 and 2007

Gender	Income category	Land access 2004			Land access 2007		
		Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Male	None	57 23.9%	59 2.4%	116 4.3%	14 18.2%	89 9.5%	103 10.1%
	[R1 - R46]W [R1 - R200]M [R1 - 2400]An	7 2.9%	46 1.8%	53 1.9%	0 0.0%	13 1.4%	13 1.3%
	[R47 - R115]W [R201 - R500]M [R2401 - R6000]A	14 5.9%	78 3.1%	92 3.4%	0 0.0%	34 3.6%	34 3.3%
	[R116 - R231]W [R501 - R1000]M [R6001 - R12000]A	12 5.0%	134 5.4%	146 5.4%	4 5.2%	48 5.1%	52 5.1%
	[R232 - R346[W [R1001 - R1500]M [R12001 - R1800]A	13 5.5%	160 6.4%	173 6.3%	8 10.4%	87 9.2%	95 9.3%
	[R347 - R577]W [R1501 - R2500]M [R18001 - R30000]A	16 6.7%	248 10.0%	264 9.7%	3 3.9%	103 10.9%	106 10.4%
	[R578 - R808]W [R2501 - R3500]M [R30001 - R42000]A	14 5.9%	237 9.5%	251 9.2%	7 9.1%	98 10.4%	105 10.3%
	[R809 - R1039]W [R3501 - R4500]M [R42001 - R54000]A	16 6.7%	248 10.0%	264 9.7%	7 9.1%	80 8.5%	87 8.5%
	[R1040 - R1386]W [R4501 - R6000]M [R54001 - R72000]A	15 6.3%	318 12.8%	333 12.2%	10 13.0%	90 9.6%	100 9.8%
	[R1387 - R1848]W [R6001 - R8000]M [R72001 - R96000]A	18 7.6%	272 10.9%	290 10.6%	4 5.2%	89 9.5%	93 9.1%
	[R1849 - R2540]W [R8001 - R11000]M [R96001 - R132000]A	14 5.9%	287 11.5%	301 11.0%	11 14.3%	102 10.8%	113 11.1%
	[R2541 - R3695]W [R11001 - R16000]M [R132001 - R192000]A	12 5.0%	212 8.5%	224 8.2%	3 3.9%	64 6.8%	67 6.6%
	[R3696 - R6928]W [R16001 - R30000]M [R192001 - R360000]A	19 8.0%	137 5.5%	156 5.7%	4 5.2%	35 3.7%	39 3.8%
	[R6929 or more]W [R30001 or more]M [R360001 or more]A	11 4.6%	54 2.2%	65 2.4%	2 2.6%	9 1.0%	11 1.1%
	Total	238 100.0%	2490 100.0%	2728 100.0%	77 100.0%	941 100.0%	1018 100.0%
Female	None	37 31.4%	39 4.3%	76 7.4%	23 26.7%	64 10.3%	87 12.3%
	[R1 - R46]W [R1 - R200]M [R1 - 2400]An	13 11.0%	52 5.7%	65 6.3%	2 2.3%	17 2.7%	19 2.7%
	[R47 - R115]W [R201 - R500]M [R2401 - R6000]A	15 12.7%	70 7.7%	85 8.3%	0 0.0%	16 2.6%	16 2.3%
	[R116 - R231]W [R501 - R1000]M [R6001 - R12000]A	16 13.6%	100 11.0%	116 11.3%	2 2.3%	19 3.1%	21 3.0%
	[R232 - R346[W [R1001 - R1500]M [R12001 - R1800]A	9 7.6%	77 8.5%	86 8.4%	4 4.7%	35 5.6%	39 5.5%
	[R347 - R577]W [R1501 - R2500]M [R18001 - R30000]A	4 3.4%	95 10.5%	99 9.7%	4 4.7%	55 8.9%	59 8.3%
	[R578 - R808]W [R2501 - R3500]M [R30001 - R42000]A	3 2.5%	83 9.2%	86 8.4%	8 9.3%	62 10.0%	70 9.9%
	[R809 - R1039]W [R3501 - R4500]M [R42001 - R54000]A	3 2.5%	97 10.7%	100 9.8%	4 4.7%	65 10.5%	69 9.8%
	[R1040 - R1386]W [R4501 - R6000]M [R54001 - R72000]A	7 5.9%	103 11.4%	110 10.7%	14 16.3%	76 12.2%	90 12.7%
	[R1387 - R1848]W [R6001 - R8000]M [R72001 - R96000]A	6 5.1%	90 9.9%	96 9.4%	5 5.8%	61 9.8%	66 9.3%
	[R1849 - R2540]W [R8001 - R11000]M [R96001 - R132000]A	4 3.4%	60 6.6%	64 6.2%	9 10.5%	71 11.4%	80 11.3%
	[R2541 - R3695]W [R11001 - R16000]M [R132001 - R192000]A	1 0.8%	26 2.9%	27 2.6%	10 11.6	52 8.4%	62 8.8%
	[R3696 - R6928]W [R16001 - R30000]M [R192001 - R360000]A	0 0.0%	12 1.3%	12 1.2%	1 1.2%	22 3.5%	23 3.3%
	[R6929 or more]W [R30001 or more]M [R360001 or more]A	0 0.0%	2 0.2%	2 0.2%	0 0.0%	6 1.0%	6 0.8%
	Total	118 100.0%	906 100.0%	1024 100.0%	86 100.0%	621 100.0%	707 100.0%

Appendix 8: Working definitions

Patriarchy: From a gender perspective, patriarchy is defined as a set of social relationships which cause domination of men over women. Patriarchy is a social system and societal structure that institutionalize male physical, social and economic power over women. Men are regarded as the authority within the family and the community and power and possessions are passed on from father to son. Feminists define patriarchy as:

A set of social relations between men which have a material base and which, though hierarchical establish or create interdependence and solidarity among men that enable them to dominate women (Woldetensaye, 2007)

Tribal authority: is an authority of a social group of humans connected by a shared system of values and organized for mutual care, defense, sharing the same language, culture and history, especially those who live in towns or cities.

Homeland: (country of origin and native land) is the concept of the territory (cultural geography) to which an ethnic group holds a long history and a deep cultural association with the country in which a particular national identity began. **Bantustan**, black African homeland or simply homeland, was ? territory set aside for black inhabitants of South Africa and South-West Africa (now Namibia), as part of the policy of apartheid

Village: a community of people smaller than a town. It is also defined as a group of houses and other buildings, such as a church, a school and some shops, which is smaller than a town, usually in the countryside.

Rural area: (also referred to as the country or the countryside) is large and isolated area of a country, often with a low population.

Urban area: relating to or concerned with a city or densely populated area; urban sociology; urban development. Located in or characteristic of a city or city life; urban property owners; urban affairs and urban manners

Renting: is an agreement where a payment is made for the temporary use of a good or property owned by another person or company. The owner of the property may be referred to as the lessor and the party paying to use the property as the lessee or renter.

Ownership: The state of having complete legal control of the status of something.

Women-headed households: It is defined as households headed by a female as a true head, recognized by all members in that position..

Reformed landholding: It is defined as an area of land improved or changed that someone owns or rents.