

**GENDER IN ASSESSING  
AGRICULTURAL PROJECTS  
IN NSELENI DISTRICT,  
KWAZULU – NATAL**

**G. C. Zulu**

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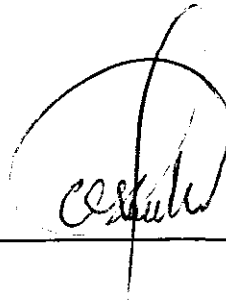
By  
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**Submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of  
Master of Arts in Community Work**

In the  
**Department of Social Work  
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**DECLARATION**

I, ***Gugu Cynthia Zulu***, declare that the work, Gender in Assessing Agricultural Projects, is my own work, and that all sources quoted have been acknowledged by complete references.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Gugu Cynthia Zulu', is written over a horizontal line. The signature is stylized and cursive.

**G. C. Zulu**

## **DEDICATION**

This study is dedicated to my **mother Khanjisiwe** and my children **Sabelo** and **Mvelo**.

## ACKNOWLEDEMENTS

There are many people who helped me accomplish this work. I wish to pass my sincere gratitude to the following people.

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## **CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter includes, among other things, the discussion of the following concepts: gender and gender roles as they manifest themselves in agriculture. Gender division of labour involving reproductive, productive and community management roles are analysed.

Women's access to resources such as land and credit is discussed as this is related to women's work. Household women's labour in agriculture as a sector and the interplay with other gender roles particularly with regard to community organisations, women organisations, income generating project is then analysed as it impacts upon women's rights and their access to necessary resources.

A wide range of development projects and programmes involving women has been implemented in recent decades. These programs have culminated in development models portraying women as active actors as opposed to being victims and pressure objects. Various approaches in relation to women and development have been thus far been applied with little success. It has thus surfaced that, if projects are to improve women positions, it is essential to have the different needs and interests of women and men, and the power relations

between them to be taken into account in the planning phase (Gianotten, Groverman, van Walsum & Zuidberg (1994; 11).

Despite many activities in the government and the private sector to redress the question of gender equality, development plans for rural areas are still failing to fully recognise the role women play in the development process and the impact it has on their daily lives. In the economic growth of rural households, women contribute 80% and also represent the majority of the population in these areas, but their neglect has left untapped a potentially large economic contribution (Marcus, Eales and Wildschut, 1996; 10)

Economic growth and social justice call for increased attention to the integration of women in the development process. Women carry and manage about one third of household work and still do farm work. Women constitute 53% of the world's population and perform two thirds of the world's work, but earn only one tenth of the worlds' wages (Walker, 1994; 13). This is the kind of discrimination, which has had the greatest implication in the lowest paid jobs like in the area of agriculture. Now, in most rural areas of KwaZulu-Natal, like Nseleni, even agricultural projects that are designed specifically to help women, women are put on the lower end of the ladder in their planning and management.

## 1.2. MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

Females are heads of families in many households of rural communities of Nseleni. This is attributed to the fact that most males are working in remote urban areas of the country. Many of these females are fully engaged in different agricultural projects. When it comes to the administration of these projects, women are relegated to the bottom of the ladder as regards positions. Nseleni is under a tribal authority, which is composed of six different amaKhosi. In all these tribal authorities, the second in charge, the Izinduna, are all males. This has had a negative effect on the role of women in terms of getting access to farming land, where they have to get a male guarantor. Looking at extension officers, particularly from the government, most of them are males. This imbalance in the government employees has also influenced decisions taken to favour males. This is contrary to the 2020 vision of the Department of Agriculture which is to unlock agricultural development and to improve service delivery in KwaZulu-Natal without any gender discrimination. This vision is aiming to use participatory methodologies in involving communities at large in agricultural development.

### **1.3. RESEARCH PROBLEM**

The research will try to address the following question:

1. What is the level of involvement and contribution of women in agricultural development projects in the Nseleni Magisterial District?

### **1.4. ASSUMPTIONS**

The assumptions are as follows:

1. Women in rural areas practise subsistence agriculture. Women are the proponents of agricultural development projects, or alternatively,
2. Agricultural development projects are initiated because of women's efforts, dedication and cheap, hard labour they provide for their households. Therefore, the government and the private sector provide a helping hand to help them with new technologies, credit and access to more arable land in the form of development projects.
3. Whenever these projects are to be implemented, women are not involved in the process of their planning and management.

### **1.5. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The purpose of this study is to identify the role played by women in the agricultural development projects that are managed and worked by women in the

Nseleni district of KwaZulu-Natal. The other purpose of this study is to establish the impact that these projects have.

The objectives of the study will be to look at the following:

1. The involvement of women in the formulation of basic rules.
2. The composition of group members in terms of gender.
3. Task and time allocation of each member of the group, divide between inter-household labour and agricultural responsibilities for each member of the group.
4. Allocation and access to resources and credits.
5. The distribution of power in the agricultural project and management groups.

## **1.6. METHODOLOGY**

### **1.6.1. RESEARCH DESIGN METHOD**

The researcher used a survey method, systematically questioning large numbers of people, about their opinions, attitudes and behaviour to find out how they think, feel and act (Popenoe, 1995; 37).

This method is explained through discussing of the steps followed in a typical survey research process (Popenoe, 1995; 37).

### **1.6.2. SAMPLING PROCEDURES**

Designing the research instruments, the Researcher has developed the questionnaires, for interviews which are more specific and open questionnaires.

Closed response questionnaires present the respondent with a range of alternative answers which are more specific (Popenoe, 1995;37).

Open-ended questions do not include response categories and allows respondent to answer in their own words (Popenoe, 1995;37).

Permission to conduct research in the area was obtained from the Regional Council and Inkosi of the Nseleni area. A pilot study was conducted to gain access to women involved in agricultural projects and to assess the feasibility of the study. Respondents were selected through non-probability sampling technique (purposive methods). The response by the participants in the research led to the other important role players in the management of agricultural projects by women such as senior officials from the donor organisations.

### **1.6.3. SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE STUDY AREA**

The researcher collects data from Nseleni districts or Lower Umfolozi which has ten tribal authorities or wards, viz. Bhejane, Mbonambi, Obuka, Obizo, Mhlfana,

Yanguye, Madlebe, Sokhulu, Ntembeni and Somopho. All these Tribal Authorities fall under Uthungulu Regional Council, of KwaZulu-Natal province.

The researcher has attached maps for Africa, KwaZulu-Natal, Uthungulu Regional Council and all the tribal wards.

The researcher wanted to sample from these ten different tribal authorities in order to ensure the reliability and viability of her study.

The tribal authorities were chosen because of their difference in rurality. Obuka, Mhlana and Yanguye are deeply rural. Bhejane, Ntembeni, Obizo and Sokhulu are rural and Somopho, Madlebe and Mbonambi are semi-rural.

Residents from Nseleni districts are Zulu speaking. They belong to various religious groupings, viz. Zoinists, Shembe, Anglicans, Lutherans, Methodists and Catholics.

#### **1.6.4. Data analysis**

Data was analysed using Microsoft Excel Office 97 spreadsheet. This spreadsheet was used to construct the graphics, tables and other statistical data presentation diagrams.

## **1.7. VALUE OF THE RESEARCH**

The study will be useful in targeting programs that involve women in the management of agricultural projects. This will contribute to the policies of land tenure systems, agriculture development policies and the year 2020 Vision of the Minister of Agriculture to promote agricultural projects.

The study is significant for many reasons. Its objective is to show the impact of gender in an agricultural project that hinders sustainable rural development. It will also try to reveal how women are affected by traditional gender roles, access to credit access to resources and access to land. It is significant also as it aims to reveal the manner in which an agricultural project development is seen and received and, the involvement of women in development. It will also be useful in targeting programs that will involve women in the management of agricultural projects.

## **1.8. ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY**

This study is organised as follows:

Chapter 1. Introduction

Chapter 2. Literature review

Chapter 3. Administration and Implementation

Chapter 4. Results



Chapter 5. Conclusion

Bibliography

Definition of terms

Appendices

## **CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1. INTRODUCTION**

Using gender in assessing agricultural projects analysis is recognised world wide as an important aspect in the designing implementation and evaluation of development projects, which can promote sustainable rural development in agricultural production. This chapter includes among other things a discussion of gender roles; division of labour e. g. reproductive role, access to resources e.g. capital, land and credit; community management and women organisations and their projects.

### **2.2. WHAT IS GENDER?**

In the context of the Social Sciences, the term gender refer to differences between women and men without strictly biological connotations, but socially constructed differences between the two sexes although they are not caused by biological sexual differences. Gender relations are the rules, traditions and social relationships in societies and cultures, which together determine what is considered "feminine" and masculine; and how power is allocated between and used differently by women and men. Therefore, gender refers to a social construction of femininity masculinity, which varies over time and place and is

enacted through learned, rather than innate behaviour. Thus the struggle for women's equality with men and its naming as the struggle for gender equality is based on the recognition that gender inequality is caused by structural and institutional discrimination. Gender awareness therefore involves understanding the difference between sex roles and gender roles and understanding that sex roles, being socially and historically determined and constructed, can be changed. (Macdonald, Sprenges and Dubel, 1997,10).

### **2.3. DIVISION OF LABOUR**

In many African tribes, nearly all the tasks associated with food production continue to be left to women. The findings of Boserup (1970) show that the high rate of participation of women in agricultural work is characterised by long working hours. Thus the available quantitative information about work input by sex differentiation seems to indicate that even today village production in Africa continues to be predominantly female farming. Women generally do the most exhausting and boring tasks while the performance of the men is sometimes limited simply to being present in the field supervise the work of the women (Boserup, 1970, 22). The community development programmes and extension services vary widely in different countries both in their emphases and a lack of emphases on agricultural training for women (Boserup, 1970, 222). The African small holder in agriculture uses a labour intensive mode of production. In most cases, field operation and concomitant activities are carried out manually,

requiring three to six months intensive field labour each year. Partial mechanisation e.g. cultivation with ox ploughs only shifts the problem as the resulting larger fields still require more labour for weed control and harvesting. The latter is done by women manually.

Most current farming systems have evolved from shifting cultivation that is the clearing and burning of vegetation to improve soil fertility. These changes have had unequal implications for female and male roles in agriculture. The need for cutting trees has greatly diminished but field preparation and weeding have become much more labour work in addition to growing food crops under more difficult conditions of cash crop. This has considerably increased women's workload although there are societies where men and women share agricultural tasks fairly equitably.

There are of course, a few instances where women hardly cultivate at all on the whole crop production. Predominantly men have not responded to the shifting balance in agriculture by doing more farm work. Frequently they are engaged in other activities such as trade and marketing of cash crops. The modern elements associated with these activities such as ox ploughs, fertilisers and pesticides are normally extended to the women's fields. On the contrary the weeding and harvesting of the ploughed fields make a heavier demand on women labour (Bryceson, 1995, 115).

In KwaZulu Natal an estimated 65% of small cane growers are women with a significant proportion are widows. Widows grow cane in their own rights. Their position compares with women who as wives are legal minors. The latter's economic independence is inhibited by the refusal of their husbands to allow them to sign contracts to join small growers schemes. Whenever they are allowed they are robbed of the benefits of their labours because men sign contracts with intention to take the money while women do all the work (Rogers, 1980; 15).

When talking of division of labour between women and men in different societies we are talking almost exclusively of gender roles rather than biological differences. Virtually all human behaviour, including even such 'physical' activities as copulation, child birth and parental care, without which children cannot survive, are learned behaviours that vary widely among different societies. They are quite distinct from those of the lower animals where activities are conducted, to a much greater degree, without prior experience or learning (Rogers, 1980; 15).

Gender roles, then, are determined to a relatively small extent by sexual characteristics. However, we have to account for the fact that the division of labour by gender differentiation is a factor in most, if not all societies.

In some parts of Africa wealthier, women can even acquire wives to perform women's work in their own as well as their husband fields and compounds where they pay the bride price and go through normal marriage ceremony.

Among the Bamba of Zambia, men would normally sew, wash clothing and sometimes cook, but would have to take over all the women's tasks as well when the chiefs required tributary labour (Rogers, 1980;25). Women are classed as 'dependants' of their husbands, particularly for financial purposes and are treated in some ways like their children. For example, in many cases they need their husbands permission to obtain certain kinds of medical treatment, particular anything related to their fertility (Rogers, 1980;26).

Amongst rural African women, a baby is considered proof of female accomplishment rather than a burden. The image of the African women carrying a heavy load and a baby on her back may be somewhat disconcerting to Westerners, but carrying a baby and feeding it, while engaging in other activities is common place for rural African women. All peasant production systems require a high level of physical effort and it is not easy to draw a line between heavy work and the detrimental effect of too much work (Bryceson, 1985; 67).

In community organisations in which these two activities overlap, especially in societies where men and women can work alongside each other, women most frequently make up the rank and file voluntary membership and men tend to be

involved in positions of direct authority and often work in paid capacity. The fact is that the male leaders are frequently paid, and that their work is legitimised by employed women who are expected to be selfless and pure. Their participation is justified in their gender roles of being good mothers, working to improve living conditions for their families. The issue of paid men's and unpaid women's voluntary work at the community level has been extensively reinforced by governments, international agencies and Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) alike. For an example, urban basic service programmes, such as those of UNICEF in India, are often designed to provide paid employment for men in official positions. Their successful implementation also requires the unpaid work of women in the community. Equally, when rural water-pump-maintenance programmes, relying on local government employees, failed, they were redesigned to use local women to maintain the pump but in an unpaid capacity (Moser, 1993; 15)

The subordination of women is completely related to a number of factors. Patterns of growth and distribution that systematically produce social inequality are just one element. Just as important is the social construction of gender and gender relations based on patriarchal structures and ideology. Although class and gender can be separated analytically, in practice they are difficult to distinguish for they are articulate in all instances of social life. Women's subordination is also integrated to other relations of domination such as race, ethnicity, and age. As a result, class and gender have to be treated

simultaneously as part of the struggle to change both the model of development and women's subordination (Leon and Deere, 1987; 262).

The additional work burden and the constraints placed on the women due to their domestic responsibilities will be accommodated and ameliorated in the design and delivery of services and infrastructure to resource poor farmers. Malnutrition is a problem to many rural households. Addressing malnutrition will require addressing the following three issues, namely household food security, care of children and environment, and health care. In many rural households all of these are responsibilities of women, who are also required to ensure household food and income security. It is essential therefore, that departmental services designed to support productive activities should, as far as possible, be provided to women at times that do not conflict with other activities. They should also reduce the labour burden in production, rather than increasing it (White Paper for Agriculture, 1996).

In some areas, the sexual division of labour may change and women's workload may be intensified. For example, Bukh (1979) shows how the concentration of men in commercial crops, and male migration to urban areas in search of work, have forced women in Ghana to take up additional tasks in subsistence agricultural production, lengthening and intensifying their work day. The pressure on women in these largely female-headed households is aggravated by increased school attendance among their children, which has induced changes



in the crops cultivated. For example, women have begun to substitute cassava production for labour intensive yam production, though cassava is less nutritious. They have also decreased vegetable production furthermore, as land becomes privately appropriated, common sources of water, fuel, are lost to poorer peasants and landless labourers, forcing women to spend more time and labour in finding, fetching and foraging (Leacock & Safa, 1986, 148).

#### **2.4. THE TRIPLE ROLE OF WOMEN**

According to Moser, (1993) there are three planning stereotypes that relate to gender division of labour within the households, namely the reproductive role, productive role and community management work. Reproductive work includes child bearing and rearing of the labour force. Productive work is often associated with income earners. In rural areas, this usually takes the form of agricultural work. In urban area, women frequently work in formal sectors, enterprises located either in home or neighbourhoods. Women also undertake community-managing work around the provision of items of collective consumption undertaken in local community in rural context (Moser, 1993; 32).

Rural women studies in Europe tried to offer an insight into these processes. Adoption of a scientific approach into the subject have seen agrarian scientists, government policy makers and agro-business persons continuing to advocate a

reorganisation of agriculture that stresses specialisation, intensification, scale-enlargement and integration into the industrial chain. This has led to the restricting of both the labour process and the social division of labour and has had particular implications for farm-women. Women had lost their own specific domains and tasks within the production process and have become increasingly integrated into masculine domains where they have lost their own specific domains, where they work in subordinate positions and give a helping hand. The former visibility and identity of women tasks is being replaced by a growing invisibility as their work is being restructured. Women are less in touch with the farm as they are less aware of how it functions as a productive unit, several studies have pointed out that, because of this, women become less involved in farm decision making on the farm (Moser, 1993,15).

Gender divisions of labour also continue to structure work relations in rural areas. Agricultural production in Africa is still characterised by the dichotomy of women work on subsistence food production while men produce cash crops. This stereotype has resulted in a high level of invisibility of work for rural women (Moser, 1993; 15).

Women work more than men and it appears that they work more than in previous times. According to Leupre, (1967) as quoted by Bryceson (1985), in Nza forest-dwelling women worked to give men enough free time to be able to control their work and their sexual life. This is a dark view corresponding to the situation

existing at the time. Game was become rare, even in the forest. Trading activities were waning along with all crafts, man smelting and weaving. No wonder women, who still had to provide the food, worked longer than men and resented men's idleness (Bryceson, 1985).

#### **2.4.1 REPRODUCTIVE ROLE**

The reproductive role of women comprises child bearing and rearing responsibilities and domestic tasks undertaken by women, required guarantee and the maintenance and reproduction of labour force. The reproductive role of women also includes not only biological reproduction but also the care and the maintenance of the workforce (infants and school going children) (Moser, 1993:29).

A crucial issue relating to women's reproductive work concerns the extent to which it is visible and valued. For despite its actual character, it is somehow also not real "work" and therefore invisible. This is most graphically illustrated around the issue of rest. When men finish work, be it from the farm or factory, they return home tired, and then rest. This takes the form of sleeping, drinking with other men or watching television. In contrast to this, domestic labour has no clear demarcations between work and leisure. Caring for younger children is without beginning or end. Because reproductive work is not real work, women very rarely rest except at night. Consequently in most societies women tend to

work longer hours than men. Not only are they the first to get up to prepare the household for the working day, but also last to go to sleep.

In the modern sector, the pattern of sex roles, with men doing the skilled and supervisory and women doing unskilled and subservient jobs, dominates the developing and industrialised countries alike. Both men and women often regard this pattern as natural.

In family production for subsistence, the general rule for the division of labour is for each sex to specialise in a particular type of goods and services, and to have children as helpers and young persons of the same sex as the adult person who is responsible for the production. Thus in communities where weaving is performed by men, they will be responsible for this work with the help of their young sons, while their wives will do other work, perhaps basket making with their daughters to help them. In communities where women are weavers, they will train their daughters while men and boys may be responsible for other crafts (Boserup, 1970; 40).

Women are particularly at risk of being poor in many of the industrialised nations and they are likely to be poorer than men (Mandell, 1995; 56). Traditional gender ideologies still encourage women to focus their energies on marriage and motherhood, even when engaging in paid employment. These norms suggest that women are primarily responsible for domestic labour and childcare.

This means that women must wrap the demands of the wage labour around their domestic responsibilities, inadequate childcare and parental leave policies. Constant juggling of domestic and wage labour demands lead women, often, to choose part-time, casual or contract employment or choose to spend time at home with their children (Mandell, 1995, 57). The reality of their lives especially the single-family headed household, demand that they work full-time to make a living.

Women are not only primarily responsible for children; they are also the main caregivers for the disabled and the elderly (Mandell, 1995,306). The combination of all this domestic work can literally make women sick. They have no time to look after their own health, to stay in bed or to visit the doctor. This is particularly so for the majority of women who have other jobs in the labour force (Mandell, 1995; 306). Some of the constraints on women's production are related to the sexual or gender division of labour according to the way cultural concepts and traditions define what work is and under what relationships is it performed and who does it.

The cultural basis of the gender division of labour suggests that like other social and economic relations it be subject to change. The form these changes take, as the rural production systems, which undergo economic transformation, gender related factors that are causing low agricultural production among the women (Ostergaard, 1992; 41).

The main focus of criticism of the labour-saving project approach is the narrow range of devices being disseminated. Numerous tools and organisational improvements (Carr *et al.* 1984; Bryceson 1985) could facilitate women's work. The range of devices presently being promoted only begins to address the reality of women's high physical mobility amidst continual multi-tasking and childcare responsibilities. A much more comprehensive array of devices is required. For, example, various time saving and lightweight kitchen utensils using ideal materials are needed to reduce the time women spend preparing food. Multi-purpose tools could be designed to save female energy on agricultural tasks and load carrying. Technological innovations to alleviate the difficulties posed by both the cumbersome size and weights of the multi-item loads women carry, are a precondition for introduction of many other labour saving innovations (Bryceson, 1995, 207).

#### **2.4.2 PRODUCTION ROLE**

The productive role comprises work done by both men and women for payment in cash or kind. This includes both market production with an exchange value, and subsistence/home production with an actual use-value but also a potential exchange value. For women in agricultural production, this includes work as independent farmers, peasant's wives and wage-workers (Moser 1993; 31).

Other studies have found that women with high self-esteem hold less traditional attitudes than those with lower self-esteem. Perhaps women who are low in self-esteem lack the confidence that is necessary to adopt non-traditional roles in society or to advocate them for other women. Indigenous women and men, however, whose sex role identity agrees with gender stereotypes tend to hold more traditional attitudes (Powell, 1988,110).

The decision to work is seldom made without consideration being given to the economic needs of the household. Women's decisions to work are also influenced by non-economic factors of the various personal factors considered. Education has the most positive effect on women's decisions to work. Situational factors pertaining to husband and children affect their decisions to work attitudes acquired early in life, such as the attitude toward female employment in general, may also affect those decisions. In contrast men typically do not consider whether to work, but when to retire (Powell, 1988, 87).

The various kinds of non-farm work carried out by women are clearly essential to subsistence in terms of providing water, edible food and other basic terms. Lack of energy and time with which to carry out the various tasks will often mean short cuts, which have a serious impact. In other words, women energy and time are important constraints on the delivery of basic needs. While the focus here has been on food and water, which in fact take up most of the energy and time available, there are other subsistence tasks carried out by women. These

include house building and repair, the production and sale of handicrafts and other manufactured goods, marketing, care of children which are essential to health welfare and the maintenance of the social structures on which a family subsistence is based. Not only is women labour input a major determinant of production in non-farm subsistence work but there is also some evidence that it is increasingly a constraint on the production of subsistence crops in terms of the fieldwork itself. In some studies, women labour input has been shown to be the critical constraint on subsistence crop production (Rogers, 1980,158).

In designing programmes for women, it is essential to understand their situations. It is often assumed incorrectly that women have free time to devote to additional activities. All too often, assistance is given to women to undertake new enterprises without due regard to the impact of the increased labour burden on their existing enterprises. No attempt is made to measure the opportunity cost for women of involvement in income generation schemes that do not directly improve the performance of their major economic venture. The result is the diffusion of energy and time that might have been utilised more profitably in other ways.

Unfortunately, to compound the problem, both agencies and women tend to concentrate on occupations such as sewing, handicrafts, raising chickens or guinea pigs, or vegetable gardening. These are often economically unpromising, characterised by low levels of profitability and poor market



prospects. When asked by aid workers about activities they think should be introduced, many women responded by starting with what they feel questioners wished to hear. Their answer may therefore reflect more what the women believe agencies want, and are willing to provide than the women's own perceived needs (Young, 1988; Slob, 1991). More often than not this project has a negative economic performance. This situation is frequently exacerbated by agencies that encourage women to act collectively when there is no economic or social justification for doing so. Collective action is not appropriate in all contexts, and yet many programmes that assume it is in some way automatically superior to individual initiative. Poorly conceived collective activities may merely accentuate women's labour burden, without providing financial compensation (Hilhorst T, Oppenoorth H. 1992; 55-57).

### **2.4.3 COMMUNITY MANAGING WORK**

The community-managing role comprises activities undertaken primarily at community level as extension of their respective role. This is to ensure provision and maintenance of scarce resources of collective consumption, such as water, health care and education. It is voluntary work, undertaken in free time. The community politics' role in contrast comprises activities undertaken by men at community level organisation, at the formal political level. These activities by men are usually paid work either directly or indirectly, through wages, increasing in their status and power (Moser, 1993).

It is important to note that men also work at the community level. However, gender division of labour are as important here as they are at household level. The spatial division between the public world of men and the private world of women, means that for women the neighbourhood is an extension of a domestic arena, while for men it is a public world of politics.

The move from household economy to wage labouring one, in which people were paid a wage for their produce, led to changes in family structure and relationships. Economic changes occur slowly and in stage as the production of goods such as cloths moved from household to factories, women and children still did some parts of the process such as spinning done in the home while men worked on other parts of the production. Pregnancy and child-care were seen as female tasks and responsibilities which made it difficult but not impossible to work outside their homes. Men unencumbered by domestic responsibilities were free to work in factories and gradually became associated with public wage.

Some highly skilled workers demanded a family wage larger enough to support a dependent wife and children, further restricted women access to decent paying work. The ideology of family wage entrenched both domestic and wage labour occupational segregation by sex (Mandell, 1995). In organisation in which these two activities overlap, especially in societies where men and women can work alongside each other, women mostly frequently make-up the rank and file

voluntary membership. Men tend to be involved in positions of direct authority at work and often their authority is legitimised by the cultural beliefs that a man is entitled to paid-up positions at work. Women are by contrast expected to be subordinates of the male figure, be dependent on him, selfless and pure. According to the Zulu idiom, a mother and her are subjects of the head of family, the father (a woman is classified together with children under a father figure). Their participation in agriculture ascribed the roles of being good mothers, working to improve the living standards for their families (Moser, 1993). This gender division at the community level between the paid men's work and unpaid women's work voluntary work has been extensively reinforced by government. The successful implementation of projects required the unpaid work of women in the community. Equally when rural water pump maintenance programme relying on local government employees failed, they were redesigned to use local women to maintain the pumps, but in unpaid capacity (Moser, 1993).

In most rural communities, community politics and local governance are still largely structured by an overreaching ideology and practice of male authority. Rarely do women participate in committees or traditional governance structures of community life. They are often deeply involved in community affairs and actively participate in social networks beyond the household (Marcus, Eales and Wildshut, 1996).

In spite of all the important roles played by women as mentioned above, in relation to agricultural projects, another aspect that needs to be discussed is access to resources by women.

## **2.5. ACCESS TO RESOURCES**

### **2.5.1. ACCESS TO CONTROL OF INCOME**

If women can have access to income and production tools, they can possibly be able to solve their problem of being inadequate as manifested in their being illiterate. Access to income and production tools would have to be accompanied by educational programmes concerning the use of production tools. However gaining more income from owning land may have negative effects on the relationship between men and women as will be mentioned in the discussion.

### **2.5.2. LAND**

The Land Reform Research Programme (LRRP) largely concentrated on the differential needs for land between men and women, with only a limited focus on the crucial question of the relations of power that determine women's participation in access to the control over land and other resources. Nevertheless, the LRRP yielded some interesting results. As a social category,

women are evidently interested in land. Their interest cuts across social strata, and is concentrated among the landless and micro producers. Women are also present in surplus commercialising and established commercial production and are only notably absent from the corporate sectors (Walker, 1994)

Most women see access to land as central to their role in social reproduction seeing all their family needs and the domestic economy. Their demand for land commonly centres on securing land to own, providing fuel and supplementing food for household consumption. Social reproduction is the common denominator underlying the demand by women for land (Walker, 1994).

Thus, land for agricultural purpose is one of a package of survival strategies in conditions of extremely constrained choices, which possibly for many women is, regarded the most rewarding in terms of income generation (Walker, 1994).

Land allocation is critical to traditional leaders because it is one of the few remaining actual power they have (Marcus *et al*, 1996). In order for farmers to feel that it is worth their while investing time and money in maintaining and building up the resources of their land (such as soil fertility, erosion control structure and trees), they need to feel confident that they or their families will benefit in the medium and long term from this effort. This does not necessarily mean that they have to own the land in a legal sense, but they need tenure

security over the land and the benefits flowing from their good husbandry within the region, land tenure (Rubin, 1995).

In many countries, there is dual responsibility for land allocation and administration between formal and informal systems (e.g. by local council or land boards and local chiefs). In many areas, tenure security of cropland, through traditional systems, provides considerable security, and surveys have shown that smallholder farmers feel their land rights are secure. However, there is also experience, particularly in areas with patriarchal inheritance patterns, to show that women do not feel they have security of tenure under traditional systems. They often lose their land on the divorce or death of their husband, particularly if they do not wish to remarry into their husband family. Traditional inheritance patterns are not static, however, evidence from Botswana and elsewhere suggests that inheritance may be becoming less discriminatory towards women. A number of local NGO's have been working on gender issues relating to land in both formal and traditional systems (Rubin, 1995).

Men and especially women, express an interest in getting and using land for cultivation. The principal motivation for most people to grow crops is their drive to supplement household food supply and, where possible, to supplement household income through the sale of surpluses (Marcus *et al*, 1996). Another problem is that men may reduce their contribution to the household budget when it becomes clear that women's income has increased. This does not only

restricts the capacity of women in their enterprise, but also leaves them with the sole responsibility of maintaining their dependants, when the men's contribution is more integrated into household production and family life (Stolen, 1991).

An effect of an increase in income for women can be that men feel threatened by a loss of status. Alternatively, men may fear that their partners will leave them once they have secured their independent source of income. Men may start to obstruct their partners' enterprises if the earnings become greater than their own. Women also gain status when they have sought to reduce their unpaid obligations to men in favour of their own work (Gianotten *et al*, 1994). Development programmes cannot ignore the problem of such violence.

Women have particularly pressing needs, which are not necessarily prioritised by local organisations dominated by men. Generally, women who head households are the poorest, and are most affected by lack of services and housing. Across the country, it is clear that most rural women remain outside the political process and do not participate much in local organisations or development committees. The studies highlight the fact that women have less access to public information than men do, and consequently are at a disadvantage in pressing their claims for subsidies, services and support.

As long as women are not represented and do not participate actively in decision-making structures, it is unlikely that their development needs' will be met.

Policy documents, programmes and schemes, which reflect this reorientation from agriculture to rural development, have been based on implicit assumptions about how rural economics operate and on unitary notions of the farm family.

The fact that farm women are unequally placed to take advantage of the opportunity afforded by rural development policies and programmes seems to largely escape attention of the policy makers and planners, although the fact of inequality is recognised in development planning in the third world. This can be attributed to factors ranging from the lack of information about women's actual or potential involvement in the rural development to the under-representation of women in rural development policy making and institutional structures at European and member state level. Rural development as an offshoot of agriculture has often inherited the same gender bias in both the content and staffing institutional arrangement for policy implementation. In this way, women's out-casting in agriculture is being replicated in rural development.

Women in matriarchal villages have access to sufficient household labour. However, they are less disposed to becoming involved in gender-specific collaborative forms of production. This particularly applies to women whose family economic subsistence largely depends upon their food production. Family labour is the mainstay of women's productive capacity.



In the matrilineal context, at least for those women with enough land to be self-supporting individuals, production allows women to maintain a sense of autonomy. Because women usually have direct access to and control over land through her matrilineal rule, they feel a particular responsibility to use land wisely and to protect it for future generations. Their first priority then is to optimise production for their family benefit (Bryceson, 1995, 123).

In order for farmers to feel that it is worth their while investing time and money in maintaining and building up the resources of their land (such soil fertility, erosion control structures and trees) they need to feel confident that they or their families, will benefit in the medium and long term from this effort. This does not necessarily mean that they have to own the benefits flowing from their good husbandry. Within the region, land tenure is generally dualistic due to:

- i) Formal free hold /leasehold hold system applying to the large-scale commercial sector, and
- ii) Traditional use rights system applying to small holders in the communal sector within this, arable areas, are generally used in an individual or household level, while other resources, such as grazing tend to be common pool (shared but regulated) or open access (unregulated).

Land sales in communal areas are not allowed in most countries in the region, although there is growing evidence that they are, in fact, occurring, leading gradually to the development of a land market and ultimately to the privatisation

of communal land. The effect of an official and unofficial land market can have both positive and negative impacts on smallholders.

Traditional tenure systems are not static but are evolving, particularly as pressure for land increases. The direction of this evolution, and in particular how it affects issues of sustainability and access to the land by women, young people and the poorest households, need monitoring, and if necessary influencing. Those working with projects for small-holders to have access to land may need to make a strategic choice between fighting to maintain communal tenure, and accepting that privatisation is inevitable. They also need to ensure that poorer small holders get access to privatised land (Marcus, *et. al.*, 1996).

In some communal areas with incipient land shortage, well-connected households have had more land allocated to them than they can currently cultivate, which they seem to be holding for their children. While on the one hand this is a good example of an investment in sustainability, it also means that other households, who are currently desperately short of land, have to cultivate without fallow alongside this currently unused land. This phenomenon is probably new in that many traditional tenure systems have not had to operate in a situation of land shortage before. Custom and practice need to evolve to deal with these new realities, with the state and NGO's supporting communities to develop equitable and sustainable procedures (Marcus, *et. al.*, 1996)

There are various possible compromises in the current system of prohibiting land sales and a free market approach. One possibility is entitlement leasing, in which a household entitlement to land (or another resource such as grazing) is resented to others. There is evidence that cropland in communal areas throughout Southern Africa is being rented on a limited and informal basis (some times the payment is symbolic) and that such leasing seems to be increasing (Marcus, *et. al.*, 1996).

It is important to consider that the work of rural women and status is highly relevant to rural development so that both governments and international agencies are informed. Planning for rural development should allow for the social and technical improvements that are likely to benefit rural women and their own communities in developing countries. In the rural areas of developing countries the status, activities, employment and rights of women may be considered under the following terms:

1. Land ownership, and
2. Women's work in rural areas: agricultural work and household (Marcus, *et. al.*, 1996).

The lack of access to resources further conditions the willingness of women to do seasonal, casual or domestic work in the neighbouring farms. Therefore this subject them to dual patriarchies which operate domestically, by the father as

head of the family, and in the work place, by the male dominated managerial structure (Marcus, *et. al.*, 1996).

It is not surprising to find that many women do not perceive themselves as or aspire to be farmers on their own right. This does not mean that they are not land users and have no need for land (Marcus, *et. al.*, 1996). Rather, it suggests that the emphasis placed on commercialising farmers needs to be viewed in the light of women's needs and experiences; moreover, establishing some degree of economic independence for some women is only part of a process of very incomplete change in gender relations. Rarely does it translate into direct or explicit challenge of patriarchal authority and control (Marcus, *et. al.*, 1996).

In the most rural communities, an overreaching ideology and practice of male authority still largely structure community politics and local governance. Rarely do women participate in the committee or traditional governance structures of community affairs and actively participate in social networks beyond the household (Marcus, *et. al.*, 1996).

Where opportunities arise for women to make stronger claims, they are generally hesitant and doubtful of the legitimacy of their presence as women. They are held back by customary practices, prejudices and their own ambivalence about assuming different roles as much as by domestic

responsibilities and integration into distinctly female gender network of social interaction (Marcus, *et. al.*, 1996).

Nevertheless, there is a challenge implicit in the tension between acceptance of the ideology of official rural patriarchy and the practices of daily living, which often generate a strong sense among women that they are oppressed by men and the institutions around them (Marcus, *et. al.*, 1996).

Whether this challenge will become explicit depends on whether there is structural and institutional support to back it up. The only way it is likely to be translated from an individual to a collective and sustained review of patriarchal power is through directed incremental support, which is focused to address perceived needs but which simultaneously opens up space for women to redefine rights, roles and responsibilities (Marcus *et al*, 1996, 93-94).

It is important to note that household members who depend on subsistence agriculture for their livelihood tend to work together as a unit. Sometimes a producing unit will exchange labour with other to undertake specific tasks. If production is expanded and the family cannot fulfil labour requirements, workers may be hired seasonally, with remuneration paid in kind or in cash (Brun and Lantham, 1990).

Many changes in the agricultural sector also occur in response to government policy, which may redefine land use patterns, alter limits on land holding ceilings, change the conditions necessary to gain access to agricultural credit, or shift for export commodities. For example, a shift in policy from a subsidy for deep tube wells to help a group of farmers with contiguous holding irrigate their land, to the sale of non-subsidised irrigation pumps to individual farmers, would make it more difficult for small scale producers to secure irrigation water, which is what allows them to effectively compete with other producers. Government policy that increases the ceiling on landholding may also adversely affect small holders if their competitive position visa versa larger producers are undermined because of economies of scale. In this context, land prices may rise as might the costs of inputs, and larger farmers may be able to purchase both labour and new technology to produce goods more cheaply than smaller producers. At the household level, changes in agricultural policy may result in the loss of land for some producers and its concentration in the hands of others (Brun and Latham, 1990).

As population densities increase and reach critical level in many rural areas of Africa, and as communal system of land tenure give way under international pressures for African governments to sanction a market in land, the extensive usufruct land rights for women are unlikely to be replaced at anywhere near party levels. It is apparent that women's right will have to be defended at regional and national levels, as well as local level. The South Asian model of

localised struggle between large landowners and poor farmers is not strictly applicable in the sub-Saharan African context.

### 2.5.3. CREDIT

Intra-household analyses reveals that while women within the low income household contribute to household livelihood strategies, they are disadvantaged in the distribution of resources within the household and also face even less favourable terms of access to financial resources. Rather than seeking to meet household basic needs directly through, for instance target feeding programs, it is decided that more sustainable option would be to improve the productivity of the poor and their ability to purchase the direct means for meeting their basic needs through the provision of credit. It is quite clear that conventional financial institutions have failed to deliver credit to the poor in general and to poor women in particular. Macdonald *et al.*, (1993) cites three alternative responses as being possible;

1. to create financial intermediaries who are able to carry out the outreach work that conventional institutions find it difficult.
2. to provide the backing for the poor to build up their own resources; Community Development Foundation (Samakhya) in Hyderabad, for instance, seeks to build thrift and credit co-operation for men and women from low-income household. And thirdly,

3. to create alternative financial institution, which sought to compensate for the exclusionary implication of conventional banking practice by a new set of rules and procedure, which addresses the specific constraints which women in poverty face (Macdonald *et al.*, 1993; 93).

This first stage of policy design is thus identifying problems and devising appropriate responses. However, there is a further dimension in the design of policy interventions, which relates to ensuring its effectiveness. Such a dimension is relevant, regardless of the original rationale for (in this case ensuring women's access to credit. such access could be part of a gender neutral analysis, women as well as men, contribute to household income and hence women, as men should be given access to credit. It could be part of a gender-specific analysis (Macdonald, 1994; 93).

Women are more disadvantaged than men in the distribution of credit and hence special mechanisms have to be devised ensure their access. However, if gender-relations are analysed in terms of inequality rather than just difference, it becomes clear that access does not guarantee control. It could well be the while credit is successfully delivered to women, intra-household power relationships mean that men appropriate these resources, leaving women with the responsibility for repaying loans. The unequal gender determined the distribution of resources has been left intact and may even been exacerbated. Thus, even at the simplest level of successful credit delivery, a transformative



component will help to ensure that the policy achieves its aims. We talked earlier of the distinction between practical gender based needs and strategic gender interests (Macdonald, 1994; 93).

Here we see that the two become linked once the power dimension of gender-relations is taken into account. While women may have practical need for credit, deriving from survival and security consideration policies that go beyond a concern with simple delivery mechanisms to considering ways of increasing women's ability to control resources are beginning to address their strategic gender-interests (Macdonald *et al*, 1993, 93-94).

The delivery system of many banks is not conducive to conducting business with women. Administrative procedures are often complicated and the volume of documentation is intimidating. Many women have received little formal education and as a result have low levels of literacy and numerate. Bank documents are often difficult to understand and are seldom available in local languages. Banks opening hours are particularly inconvenient for women, and staff is often prejudiced, having little understanding of the problems faced by their poorer female clients. Internal bank rules and national legislation further discrimination against women (Angeles, 1991).

The results that poor women generally find they must pay several visits to banks to arrange a loan and may find it difficult top obtain funds to pay for bank

commissions, legal costs, bribes and travel. The real transaction costs to the borrower can be so high that it is cheaper to seek a loan from a moneylender. The difficulties of approaching banks also lead many women to delegate financial transactions to male partners. This reinforces both their dependence on male relatives and the popular perception that they lack firmness and assertiveness (Angeles, 1991).

People's bank have shown that it is possible to make delivery systems more accessible to women procedures are simplified; they are quick and require little documentation. Staff is locally recruited and their training has equipped them to deal with women's financial needs (Hilhorst and Oppenoorth, 1992; 73-75).

One problem with a large number of income generation programmes is their use of welfare techniques that effectively impede sustainable economics development among women. Thus while purposing to create genuine income or employment opportunities, in practice they rely heavily on subsidies from external donors. Wages paid to participants are divorced from either the real worth of their labour or the value of their production. In food for work and street cleaning schemes and in subsidised craft production, for example, there is little intrinsic value in the work.

Women are in practice receiving welfare payments not wages in exchange for their labour. It would perhaps be more honest, and certainly more cost effective;

to provide cash handouts, rather than to mislead participants and allow them to think they are involved in an economically viable occupation. Any economic intervention aimed at lasting assistance for poor women must be designed to be economically sustainable and not to rely on external funds.

A second factor, which leads to the collapse of many initiatives, is the tendency of agencies to see economic interventions as an effective entry point for working with a particular group of people.

Thus the programme is used as a way of facilitating contact within and gaining the trust of women. This approach is misguided because it takes the women's prime objective (to increase income) as only the secondary objective of the programme. The focus by agency staff on goals such as advocacy or organisational development that may not be apparent to the participants leads to the neglect and ultimate demise of the income element.

Often, a tension arises between agency staff and programme beneficiaries, the latter becoming gradually disenchanted by the failure of the former to deliver promised economic improvements. Confusion concerning programme goals may also cause participants to lose confidence in them as entrepreneurs and in the whole ideal of income generation. Moreover, economic failure reinforces the popular perception that women are poor at business.

In many cases, the power bearer is the multi-tiered government rather than a rich, private monopolist. Action aimed at improving women's resource access in the rural African countries will often have to confront national laws which overlook women or in the case of more sensitive laws, make rural women aware of their rights. Despite the diversity of approach found in the three types of projects under review, two features remain common to all. The objective of project intervention is to raise women's status vis-à-vis men. Secondly projects are geographically localised and of limited duration. Their direct effect is usually restricted to relatively small numbers of women, whereas their indirect effect is difficult to measure. Limited in time and space, their impact tends to be ephemeral. Specific project may register marked success in their project area, but disappear virtually without trace at the completion of the formal project, having achieved little or no influence in a broader geographical sense. In theory, projects are high-minded and status conscious about women, while practically they are small and in need of status raising themselves (Bryceron, 1995, 207-208).

## **2.6. WOMEN ORGANISATIONS AND COMMUNITY PROJECTS**

Income-generating projects have received substantial critical scrutiny (Buvinic, 1986). Women's heavy workday is the main obstacle to the successful adoption of income generating projects in rural areas. Women with the spare time to

participate in such projects tend to be older or wealthier women, who, it could be argued, are the least needy of cash amongst the female population (Bryceson and Krimbai 1980).

The limited time and erratic participation of younger women, i.e. mothers with heavy childcare and household provisioning responsibilities, usually yields insufficient individual benefits to warrant their project involvement. Income generating projects tend to offer relatively restricted horizon for participants. Normally traditional female skills, such as sewing and cooking, are called upon rather than developing less gender defined skills.

Project is commonly launched before sufficient market research has been undertaken. In extremely competitive or non-existent market situation, women participants have difficulty selling their labour-intensive products. In other cases, disillusionment is related to participants' dissatisfaction with their project leader's financial management. Often leaders fail to appreciate the importance of timely distribution of project proceeds to motivate participants (Bryceson 1995). If and when participants get reasonable earnings from projects, there is no certainty that women's increased income will change gender relation in the household. Detailed case study evidence provides no proof of a positive correlation between female earnings and a more sexual division of labour within the household (Bryceson, 1995; 206). Women in the subsistence economy controlled items of subsistence: food, cloth, pots, etc. men controlled the most

valuable products of the farm particularly those that helped to generate capital (Leacock & Safa, 1986; 132).

Difficulties related to men at the organisational level (within ibis and partners) arise chiefly from lack of knowledge. Men often do not know enough about the specificities of women's situation to be able to assess women's needs (let alone their interests) accurately. They may also lack the necessary motivation to adopt appropriate methods to get women on to an equal footing with men, such as training and appropriate technology.

At community level, men tend to feel threatened when women are brought into the project-design process. Constraints may spring from men's fear to having to surrender their disproportionate portion share of the advantages of project. They may resent the amount of resources directed to women, and may try to co-opt project resources for themselves. Often, men in the community express a lack of trust in women's physical and mental capabilities to carry out tasks, for instance to earn a salary in an agricultural co-operative and they fear losing authority in the community.

Similar emotions come into play at the household level, where men fear losing authority as heads of the household. They will argue that if women are involved actively in development projects they will no longer be able (i.e. willing) to look after the house. They will bring to bear moralistic argument about the disruption

of family life entailed in women's even partial absence from the house and commitments outside the close family circle. They may express jealousy of other men (for example, project colleagues of the women) if their own control over the women of the household is weakened (Macdonald *et al.*, 1993, 116).

Income generating projects may be regarded as a special form of multiple service programmes, with a credit component that target only women. Unfortunately, the performance of many such programmes has been disappointing, especially given the desperate needs of poor women. As a result of the many failures in this field, the majority of development workers now view income or employment generation projects for women with scepticism. Many of the remarks about credit funds apply in this area as well. Here, additional performance problems specific to income generating projects will be covered, to assess why these undertakings, which should be central to any strategy to assist poor women, have become anathema to so many.

## **CHAPTER III: IMPLEMENTATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE RESEARCH**

### **3.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter explains how the researcher has administered her research work.

### **3.2. NEGOTIATING ENTRY.**

The researcher gained entry by first going to the local office of agriculture and to head of the districts. She was introduced to agricultural technicians who work under the Nseleni Districts. The researcher also went to the chairman of Regional authority to ask for permission to conduct research in the tribal wards. The chairman introduced the researcher to various Amakhosi to Regional authority and he asked permission from amaKhosi and various izinduna to work hand in hand with the researcher in conducting the survey.

The researcher went back to the agricultural office to identify the existing projects pertaining to agriculture.



### **3.3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This section includes a discussion of the research design, population, the sample, and data collection, data analysis as well as the validity and reliability of the methods utilised in collecting data.

### **3.4. RESEARCH DESIGN**

The study used the survey method collecting data through face to face interviews. The researcher used ten different tribal or wards to sample respondents for conduct the interviews. She only concentrated on umbrella committee members as well as members of the projects who were not members of the committee. The researcher also used the agricultural technicians as key informants to ask some questions, which were the same as those asked from others.

Using open ended questions in the interviews enabled the researcher to understand the meaning of feelings express by the respondents their feelings in the assessment of gender with open-ended questions.

### **3.5. THE SAMPLE**

The population of this study consists of the tribal wards and the key informants, who are various technicians that work in various wards, members of Development committee from the umbrella body of each and every tribal ward, and available members who were around during interviews, from each and every ward.

Four committee members were interviewed from each and every development committee of each ward. Therefore, there were forty development committee members that participated. The researcher also chose six community members from each ward who were participating in various agricultural projects. The projects were chosen from cookery club, catering club, community gardens etc. The total number of representatives from each ward was five and this comprises of the total of 100 in all.

### **3.6. DATA COLLECTION**

Firstly, interviews were held with key informants to establish what they understand about Gender and to help identify the community organisations and agricultural projects in the area under study.

Secondly the interviews were carried out with committee members of the umbrella body of the development committee.

Thirdly, interviews were carried out with various members who affiliated in agricultural projects in different tribal wards.

### **3.7. VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY.**

The researcher used triangulation techniques where she used key informants who are knowledgeable technicians as regards, who knows the community in question, who have already conducted needed analysis about the area. The researcher also interviewed committee members who come from different projects and who know what is really happening to their projects. The researcher also used members who were affiliated in different agricultural projects from each ward. To ensure internal validity of her findings, the researcher used ten different communities, which have different geographical aspects in connection with deep rural, semi-rural, and rural areas, where she compared the level of involvement of women in different agricultural projects.

### 3.8. LIMITATIONS

One factor that was a major inadequate infrastructure manifested in poor roads on which the researcher had to travel long distances without a vehicle. This resulted in the researcher having difficulty in researching some people.

## **CHAPTER IV: RESULTS AND FINDINGS**

### **4.1. INTRODUCTION**

Gender analysis studies the way male and female roles interact with the project targets and how they influence the results. The objective of gender analysis is to focus on the effectiveness of development activities rather than on the equivalence of men and women, though the latter aspect is not less important. Through gender analysis project planners can better understand changes taking place in agricultural projects, looking at the role of family members in performing the household and farm task, access to markets, access to land and making decisions about other resources. Given such information both, women and men's concerns are considered, and resources are directed towards individual and common development needs and opportunities.

### **4.2. AGE DISTRIBUTION**

#### **4.2.1. THE YOUTH**

Respondents were categorised according to age. All respondents were those actively involved in projects. The youth was in the category of 16 – 31 years of age. According to figure 1 and 2, youth comprised the average of 14% of the active people in the district. The most active areas were Mbonambi (37%), Mhlane and

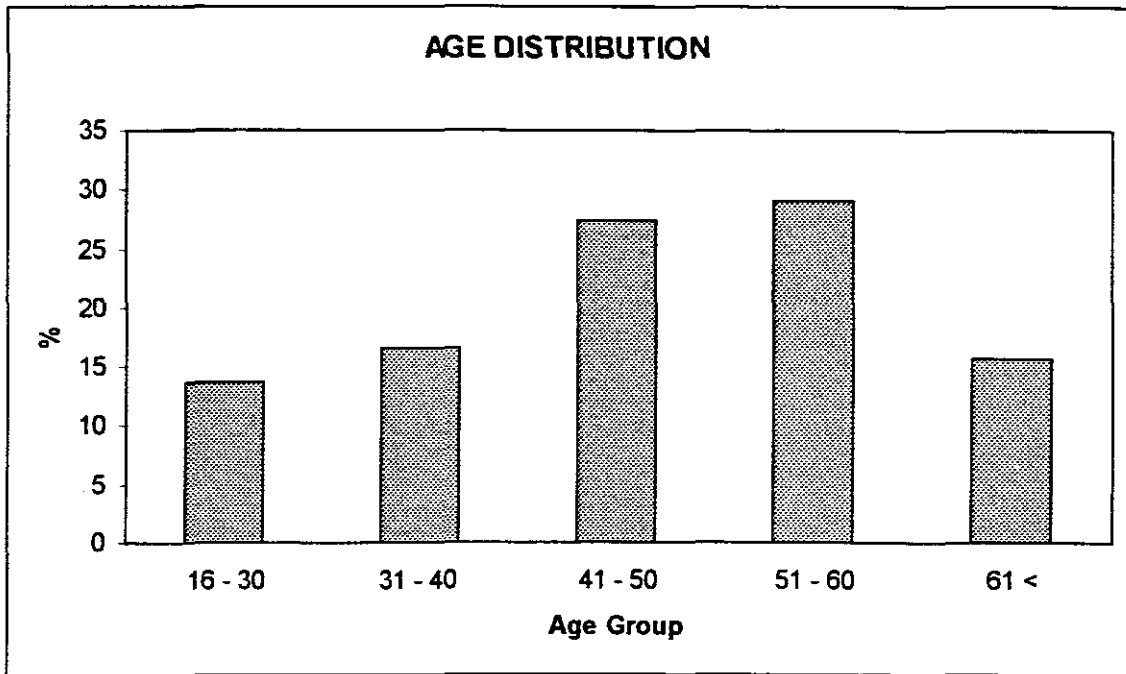


Figure 1: Overall Age Distribution

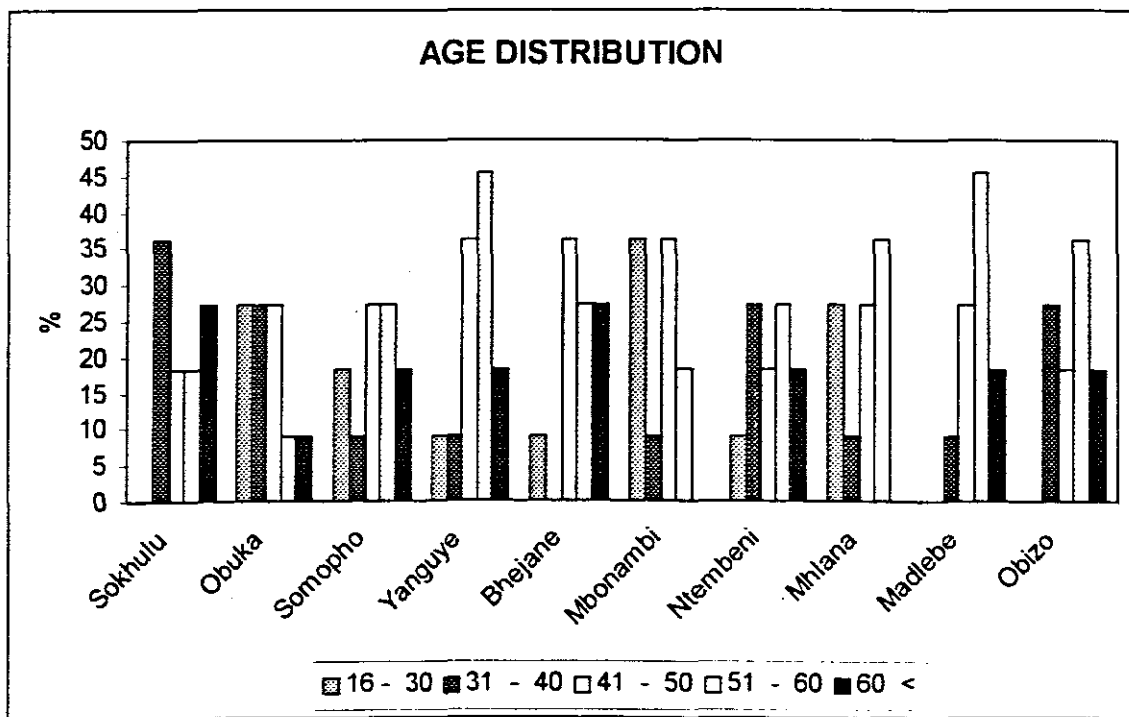


Figure 2: Age Distribution per ward

Obuka (27%). Mbonambi, a semi-rural area and Mhlane and Obuka, deep rural areas, have projects for the youth in which the youth is exposed to various skills of development. All other areas have youth actively involved, but this constitutes less than 25%.

This means that project planners must address the problem of gender from the youth level when implementing agricultural projects so that there will be equal participation.

#### **4.2.2. YOUNG ADULTS (31 – 40)**

The second category of actively involved people comprised of early adults with an average of 16% in the district. Sokhulu, Obizo and Obuka have 27% of young adults involved in projects. Other areas have less than 25% of the active people. This is important for project planners to consider, since it can have an impact to the viability and sustainability of the project. People must be lively and energetic for the projects to be efficient.

#### **4.2.3. MIDDLE AGED ADULTS (41 – 50 YEARS)**

This age category comprises the average of 27% of the active people in the district. Figure 2 shows that this age category is to be found in the following areas: Yanguye and Mbonambi (37%), Somopho, Mhlane and Madlebe (27%).

This is the age category, which comprises the highest percentage of active people in many areas of the district.

#### **4.2.4. LATE MIDDLE AGED ADULTHOOD (51 – 60 YEARS)**

The average of this category is 29% of the district. The areas involved are Yanguye and Madlebe (45%), Obizo (35%), Somopho and Bhejane (27%). The number of people actively involved in this category may be high but cannot be relied on when planning the project due to the age factor. This calls for another task of reviving and grooming the youth into active participation in agricultural projects.

#### **4.2.5. ELDERS (61 AND ABOVE YEARS)**

The highest number of elders was found in Sokhulu and Obizo. These are the people who can be used to oversee the running of the project and to maintain order and discipline among the young participants. People in the rural areas are still respectful of the elders of the community.

This graph shows that the highest percentage of participants is that one of the late adults with age between fifty one and sixty, followed by woman middle age adulthood between the age of forty one and fifty. These are women who need to



be empowered with different skills in order to have sustainable contribution to agricultural projects.

The above age distribution is a representation of all ages in the Nseleni district, that are involved in agricultural projects. Therefore gender issues must be addressed in all age categories as indicated by age distribution graphs.

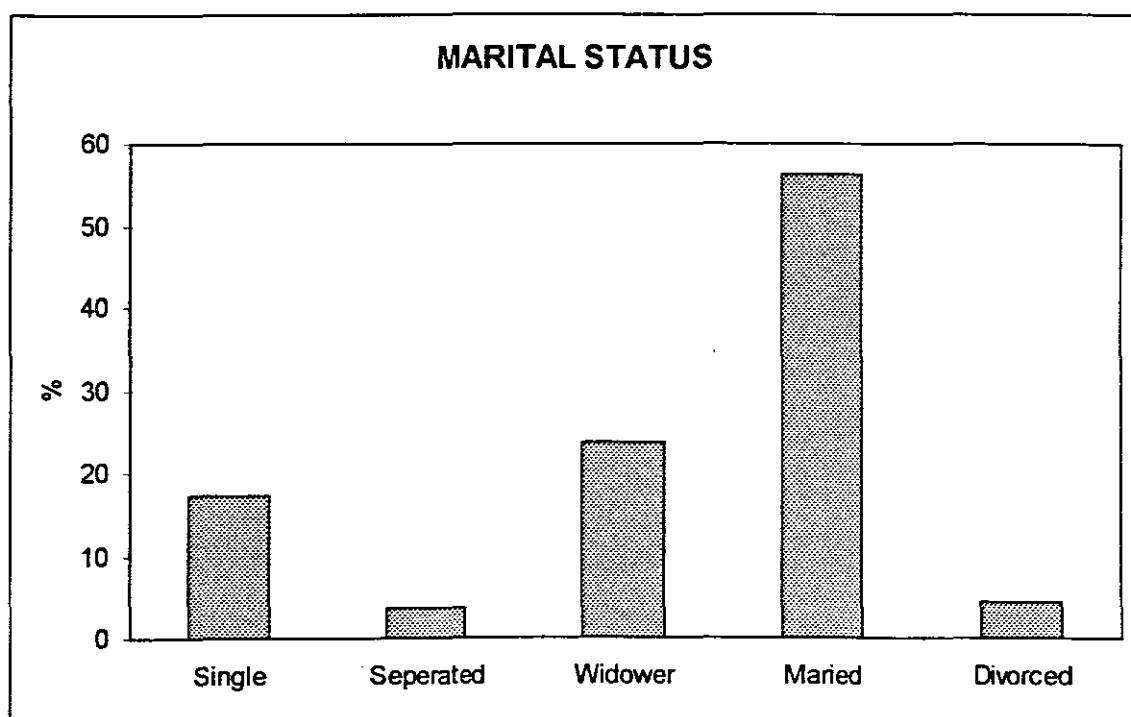


Figure 3: Overall Marital Status

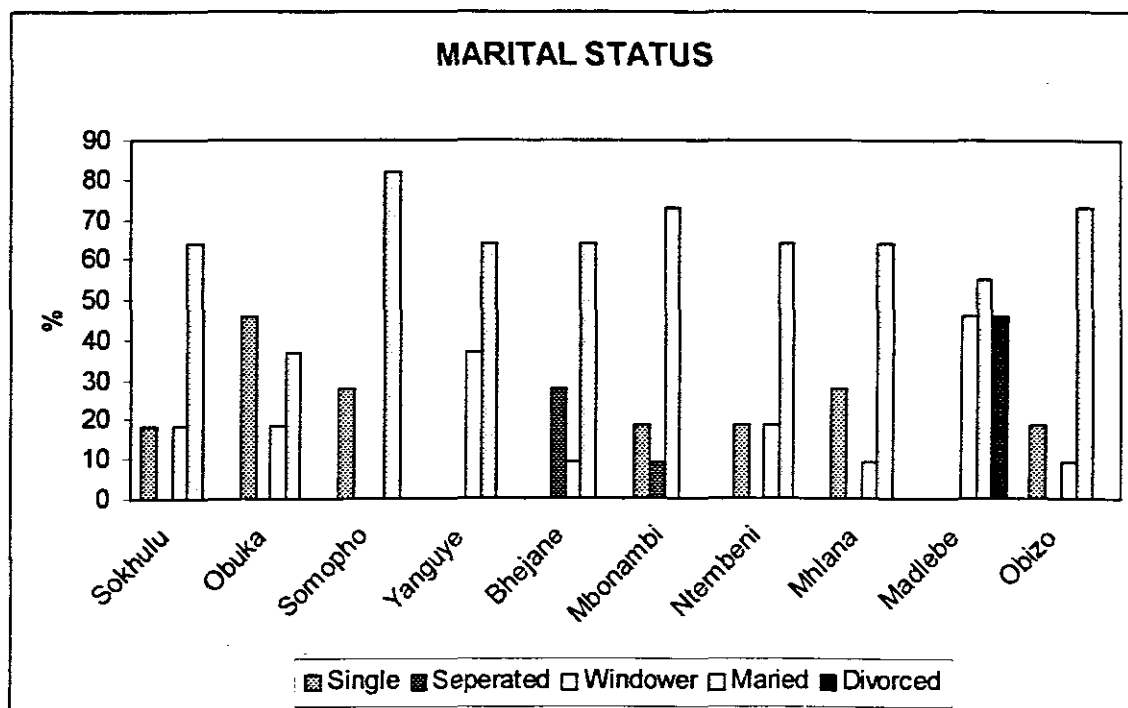


Figure 4: Marital Status per ward

#### 4.3. MARITAL STATUS

Marital status plays a role in assessing the viability and effectiveness of the project. This has to do with the amount of time participants in the project can spend in project duties between those who are married and those who are not married. This has to do with some other duties a mother or a father has to do for the family. Marital status can be influenced by the age distribution of the population in the area.

Figures 3 and 4 show marital status of women in different areas. The analysis was for singles, married, widowed, separated and divorced. Obuka shows the

average of 45% singles, which correspond with its highest population of the youth (27%). Mbonambi, Mhlane and Somopho also have twenty seven percent singles which corresponds with the youth population as well (twenty seven percent). It is therefore interesting to note that most of the youth who were actively involved in agricultural projects, were not married. Marital status must be considered when planning projects in order to evaluate the flexibility of the participants in attending meetings and other activities related to projects.

Being a married woman in the rural areas of Kwazulu Natal can mean some restrictions in getting involved in matters outside your family e.g. complete involvement in the family.

Separated, divorced and widowed women can be grouped as singles compared to married respondents in terms of flexibility when it comes to matters outside their families. It is important to note the influence of factors that can disturb normal family life e.g. divorce. Madlebe has the highest number of divorced participants (48%) and widows. It is assumed that such cases are influenced by a semi-rural nature of the area and its closeness to the Empangeni town. The history of violence in that area may have contributed to its many widows (thirty seven percent). It will be interesting to further look at the impact these factors of divorce and widowhood will have in agricultural projects.

Analysis of the marital status shows that married women are actively involved in projects more than single women. They are overloaded with work due to their traditional triple gender roles. They are participating in various projects not because it is their choice. They are the ones who are left at home, and must feed the children, pay schools fees, and maintain their homes. Singles are not involved in the projects because some of them do not have dependants, whereas married people are obligated to be involved in projects.

Analysis of the marital status also contribute in planning projects that involve families and individuals of different categories and status in the community, in a balanced level.

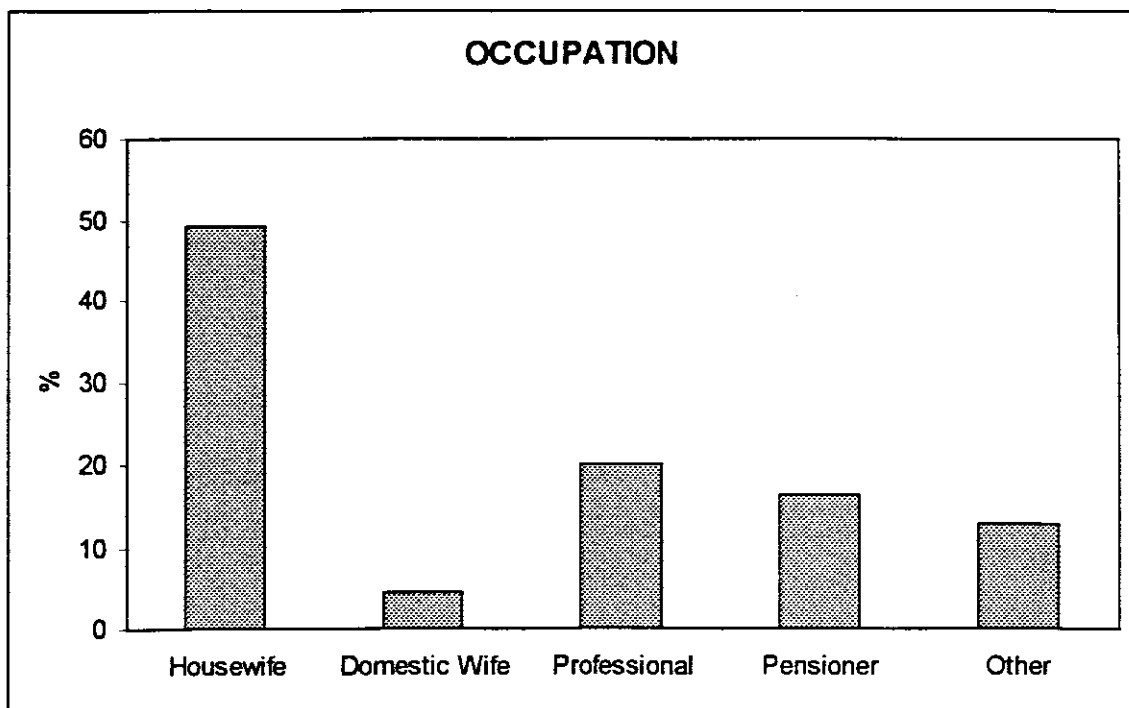


Figure 5: Overall Occupational Status

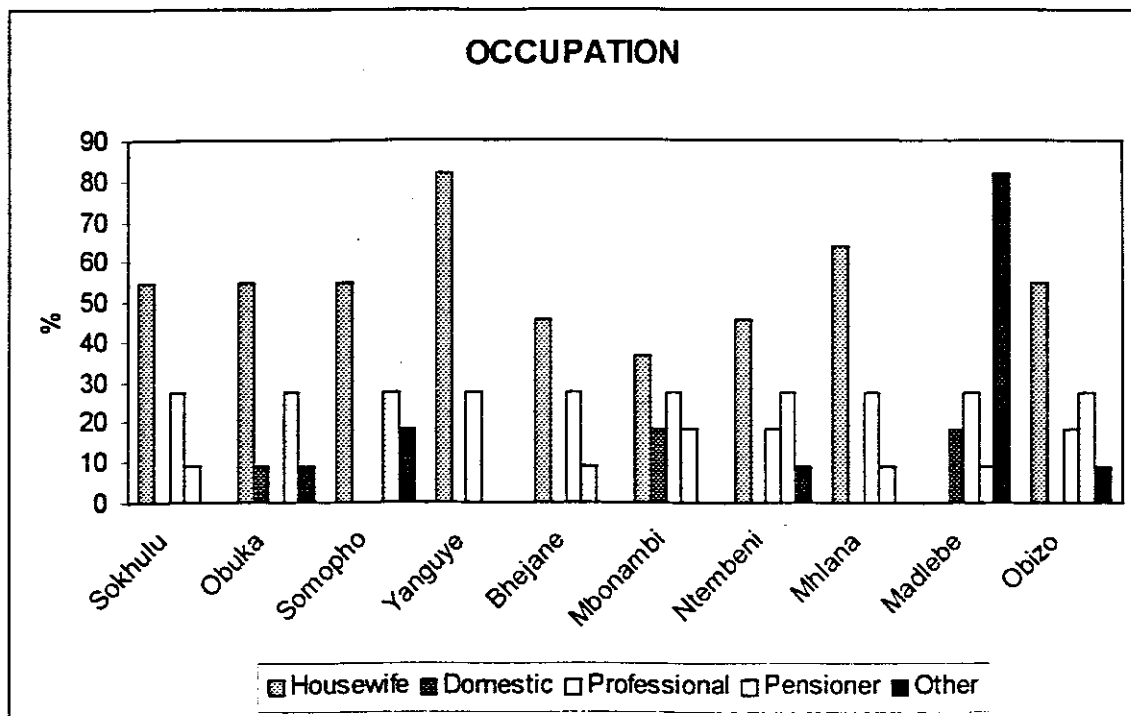


Figure 6: Occupational Status per ward

#### 4.4. OCCUPATION

Occupation by the respondents other than those involved in agricultural project was considered an important factor in analysing the composition of active people in projects. These were categorised into housewives, domestic workers, professionals, and pensioners. Figure 6 shows the distribution of these occupational categories in different areas. Figure 5 shows the averages in the entire Nseleni district. Areas close to towns show a small number of housewives and the highest number of domestic workers. Madlebe, which is 10km away from Empangeni town, has 82% domestic workers, and Yanguye about 60km away from the same town has 82% housewives. Pensioners made an average of 15% in the district.

Women's commitments within the family are often seen as primarily responsible for their subordinate position in the occupation levels. This can help policy makers to design programmes that will empower women with skills to start projects that will provide jobs for their families and generate income for the communities.

The highest percentage from this graph shows that the occupation of participants is housewives. It means thus participants are influenced by the traditional gender roles for even if they are outside their families they are doing domestic work rather than other professional jobs like mechanics. Ill health may

result in a women doing one and the same job at home and at work which is boring to their life, unlike men who are doing challenging jobs different from home. There were complaints that missionaries of all kinds taught girls more domestic skills encouraging a stay at home policy (Rogers, 1980, 38).

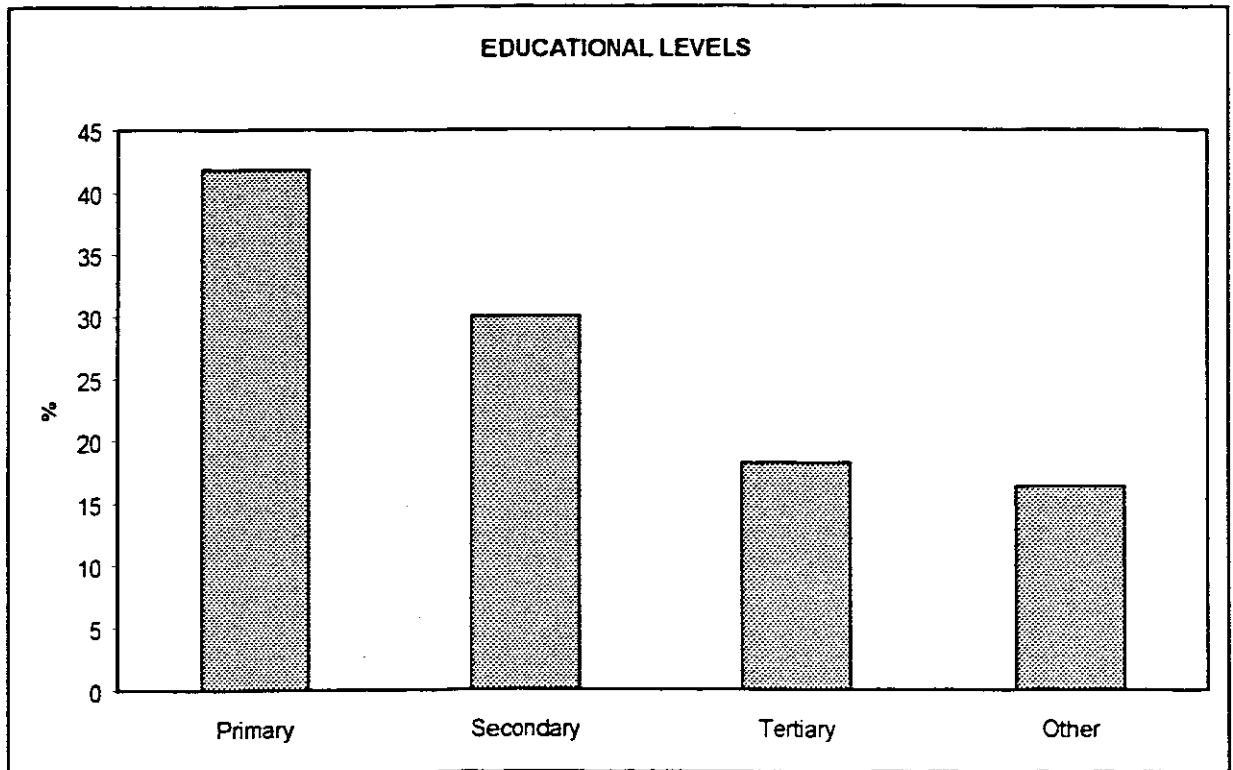


Figure 7: Overall Educational levels

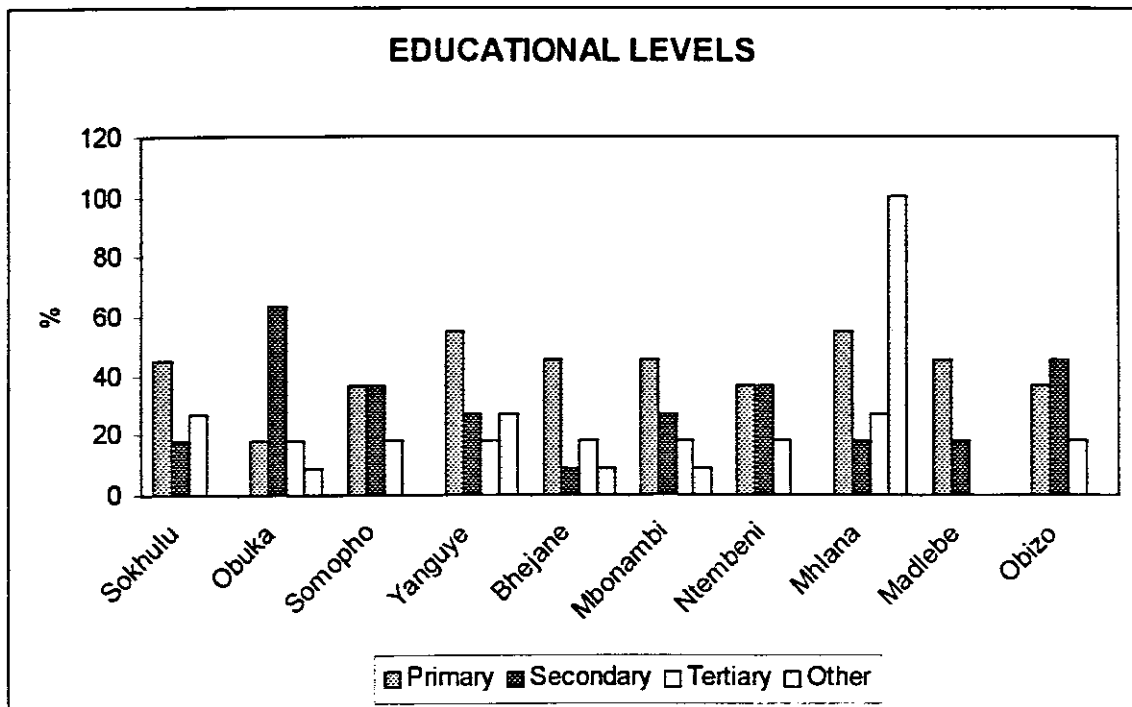


Figure 8: Educational levels per Ward

#### 4.5. EDUCATIONAL LEVELS

Educational level was divided into primary, secondary and tertiary education.

Figure seven & eight shows the distribution of educational levels in different areas.

This analysis shows that many people have primary education only. Higher educational levels will mean an improvement in women's access to employment. The highest number of housewives is an indication of lower level of education among women, particularly primary education. There is a belief that if women



have low education there is a problem of food insecurity. This resulted in social scientists hypothesising that the labour market for women is getting increasingly differentiated for different classes. Poor women find themselves squeezed out of jobs formerly available for them because they lack educational qualifications (Ostergraad, 1992, 70).

The domestication of women often build on or reinforce local gender segregation and division of labour between sexes, particularly through education, scouting for boys and needlework for girls (Rogers, 1980, 38). Education is human investment. The age analyses of the participants showed that most of the participants are between age 41 – 50 and 51 – 60 where in low educational level and it means eventually these participants were affected by laws and regulation of the apartheid era. They did not get a chance for education that is why a high percentage attained only primary education.

It also implies that this population needs a collaboration of empowerment, efforts, which include non-formal education to improve their level of contribution to agriculture. Improvement in the level of literacy among females in developing countries is critically needed to enhance women rights and sustain social welfare objectives, including adequate nutritional status for all. Educational levels attained, if taken as proxy for income, appears to substantially minimise rural poverty (Brun and Latham, 1990, 22)

Educational levels of women have also been positively correlated with nutritional status of children, which improves the family health. Formal and informal education provides women with greater confidence in making decision and improving the quality of rural life. Education is an investment in human capital and will have its greatest impact on income. Improving the economic lot of rural women will enhance their ability to purchase nutritious and healthy foods for the family.

#### **4.6. DIVISION OF LABOUR**

The respondents do all the production and reproductive work. Division of labour is between women and men in different societies. It is determined by culture rather than biology determinants. Virtually all human behaviour, including physical activities such as copulation, childbirth and the parental care without which children cannot survive is learned behaviour, and varies widely among different societies (Rogers, 1980, 12).

The division of labour is affected by socially constructed gender roles. The woman is involved in reproductive role e.g. child rearing, productive role and community management role.

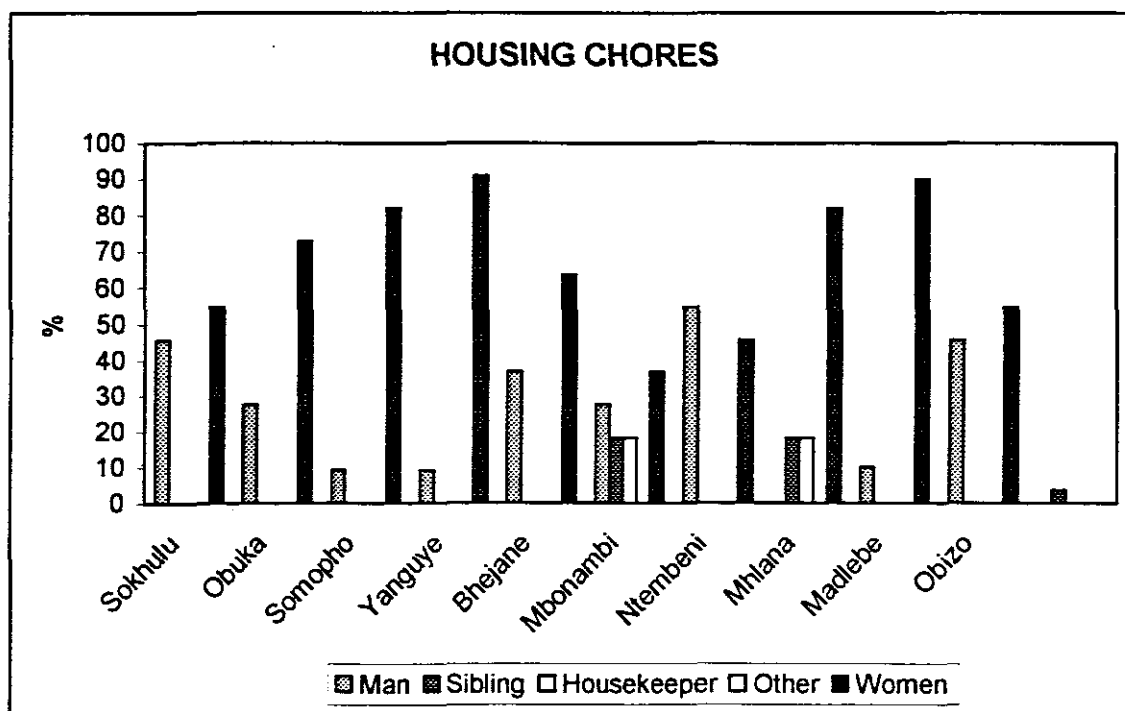


Figure 9: Housing Chores per ward

#### 4.7. HOUSING CHORES

Women participating in household chores make an average of 60%. It has been shown that these highest percentages of women participate in household chores like cleaning, cooking, fetching water, etc. Areas like Mbonambi and Ntembeni have also helping in household chores. Siblings also participate in most of the household chores. It can be seen from the Figures 9 & 10 that women are overloaded with work from the family. Most of the families have electricity. Few respondents do not have electricity. It means that participants have a source of energy in which people are planning programmes for them. They can access power, e.g. sewing machine which uses electricity because they reduce woman

workload rather than manual machines which need a lot of strength and take a lot of time to finish your garment.

Figure 9 & 10 is useful in understanding how women, men, siblings and workers divide their time between, cleaning the house, agricultural projects and leisure time. Gender division of labour clarifies who does what task and how it is distributed among other workers.

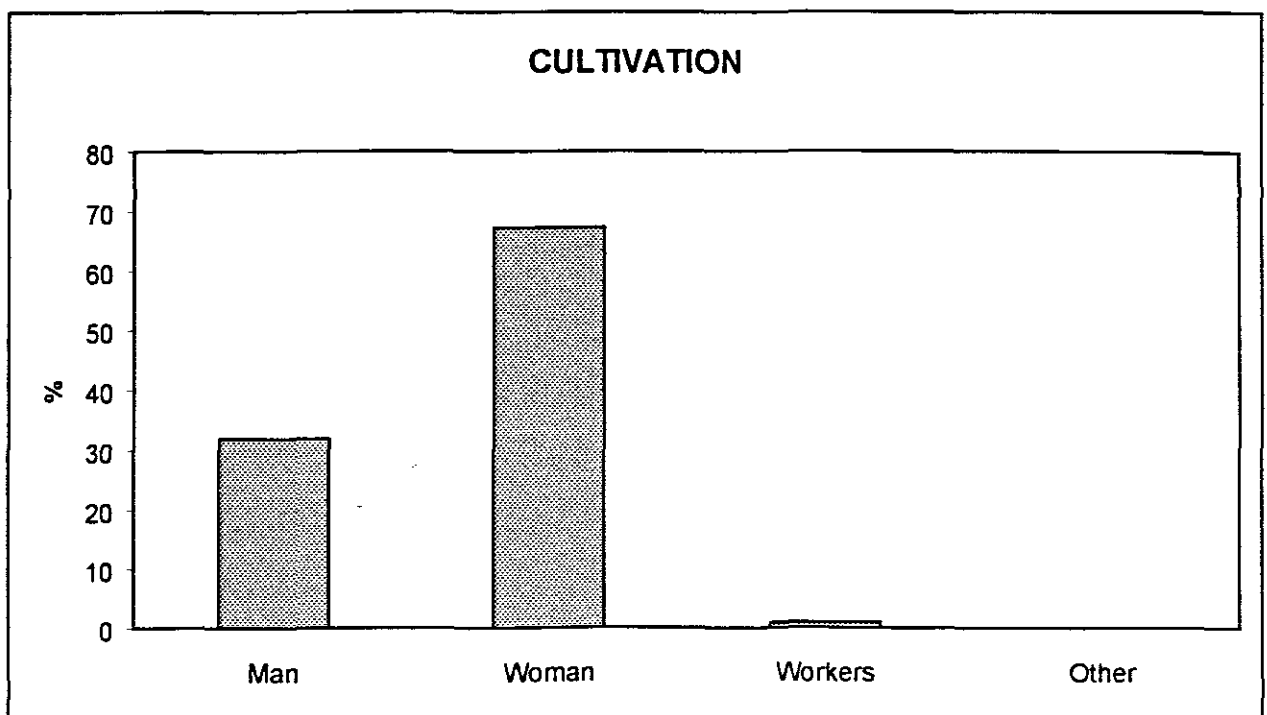


Figure10: Overall Cultivation Status.

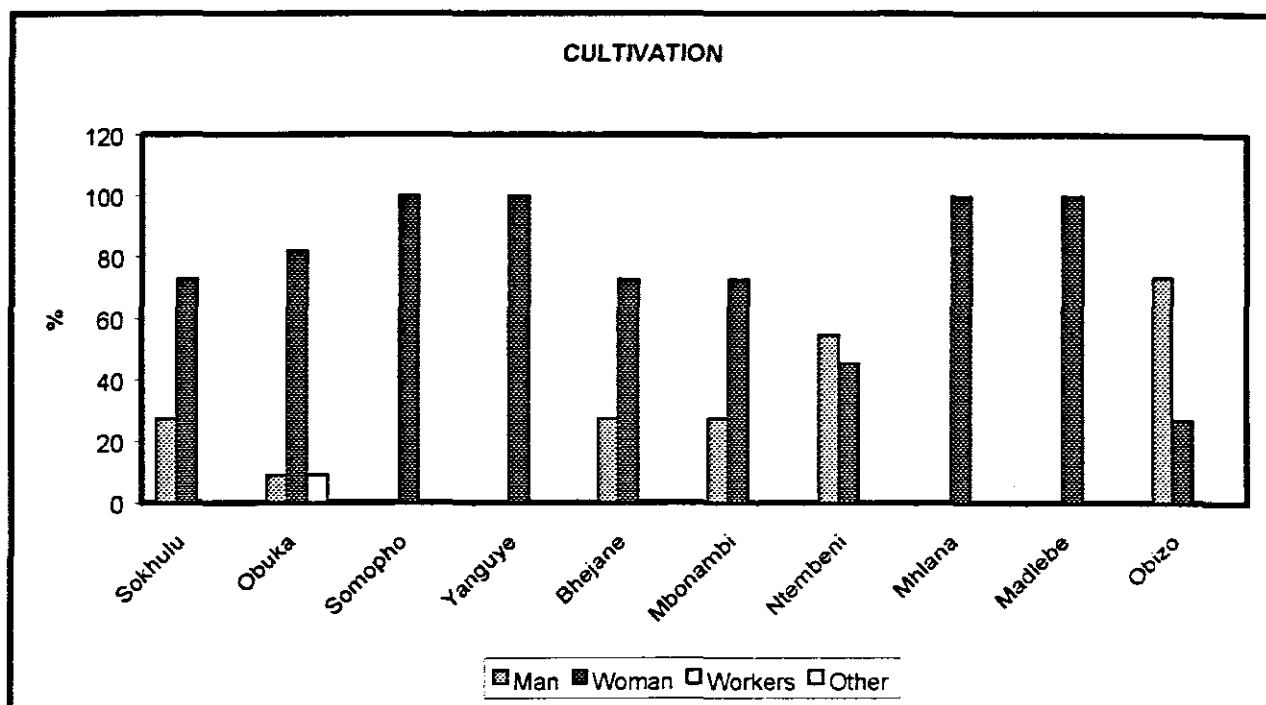


Figure 11: Cultivation per Ward

#### 4.8. CULTIVATION

Women are also actively involved in the cultivation of land, an average of 68% in the district, except Obizo and Ntembeni where men are also involved.

Gender division of labour clarifies who does what task and how is distributed among men and woman. The gender division of labour can be best understood as the way in which women divide tasks as jobs that are allocated on the basis of the persons sex.

Figure eleven & twelve has shown that the women spend much of their time in cultivation. The woman has significant role in cultivation since their husbands

are working in neighbourhood town like Richards Bay and Empangeni. The high level of women participants in cultivation is attributed to the fact that women are left alone to attend to attend the family activities.

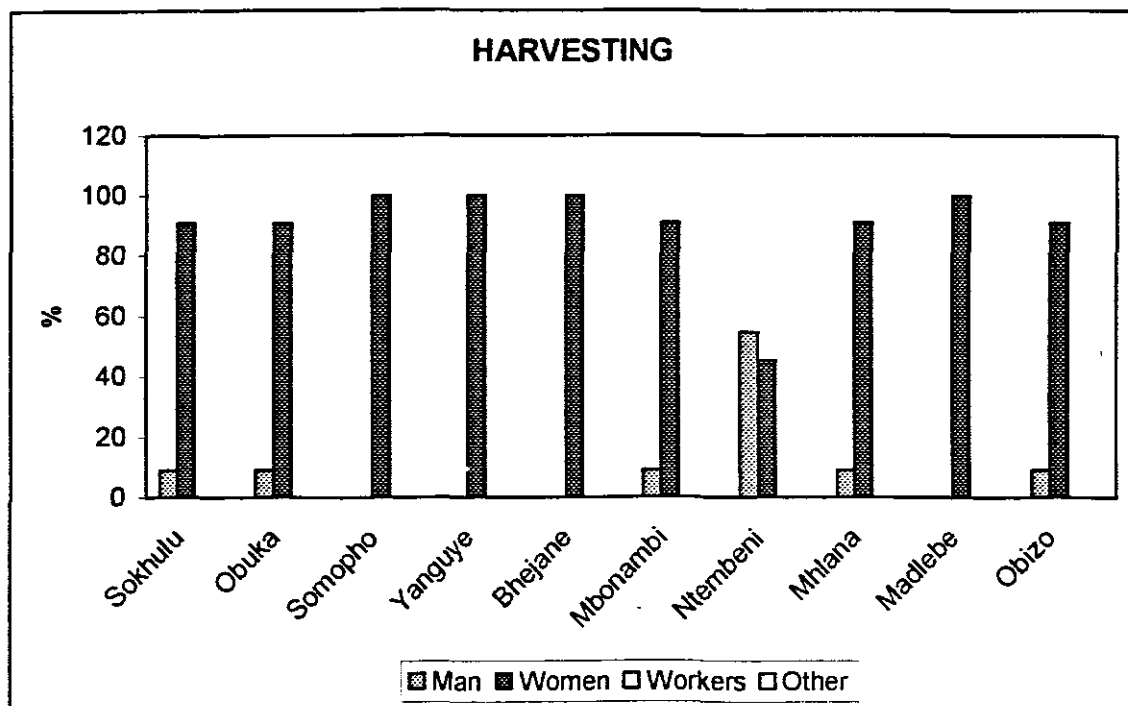


Figure 12: Harvesting per Ward

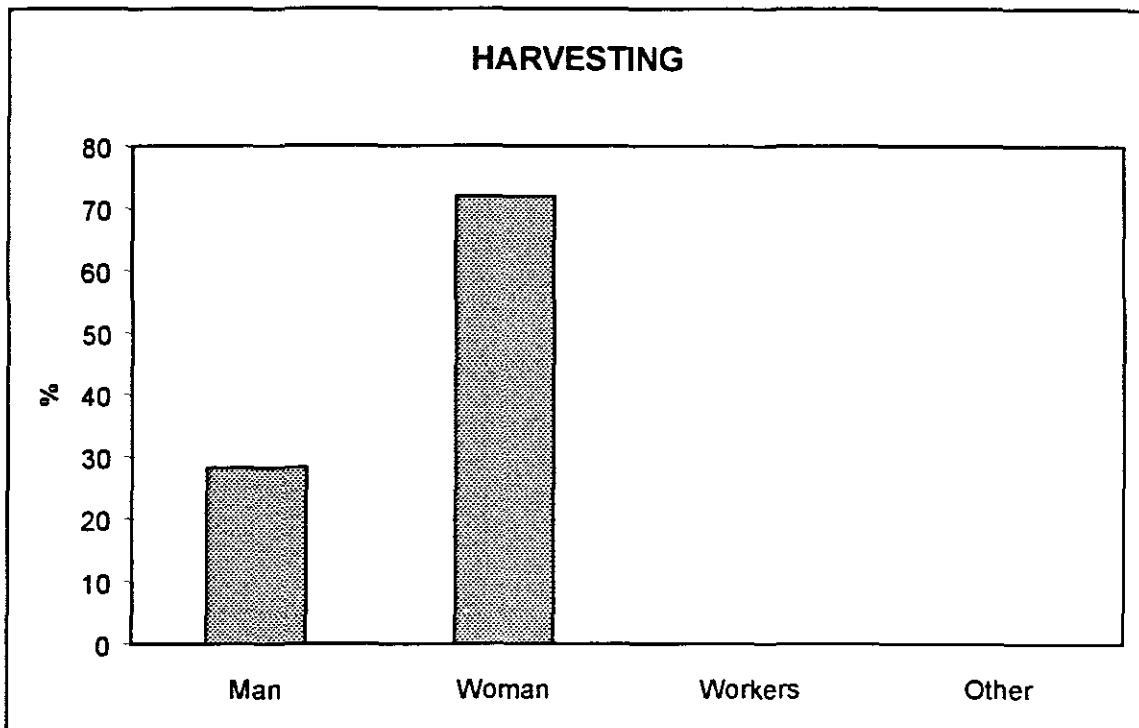


Figure 13: Overall harvesting trends

#### 4.9. HARVESTING OF FOOD.

According to the analytic graph shown in Figures 13 & 14, in the Nseleni district men and women have got no equitable division of labour. Women contribute an average of 78% of their time harvesting. They do all the work in connection with processing, handling of food, storage as well as cooking of food after harvesting.

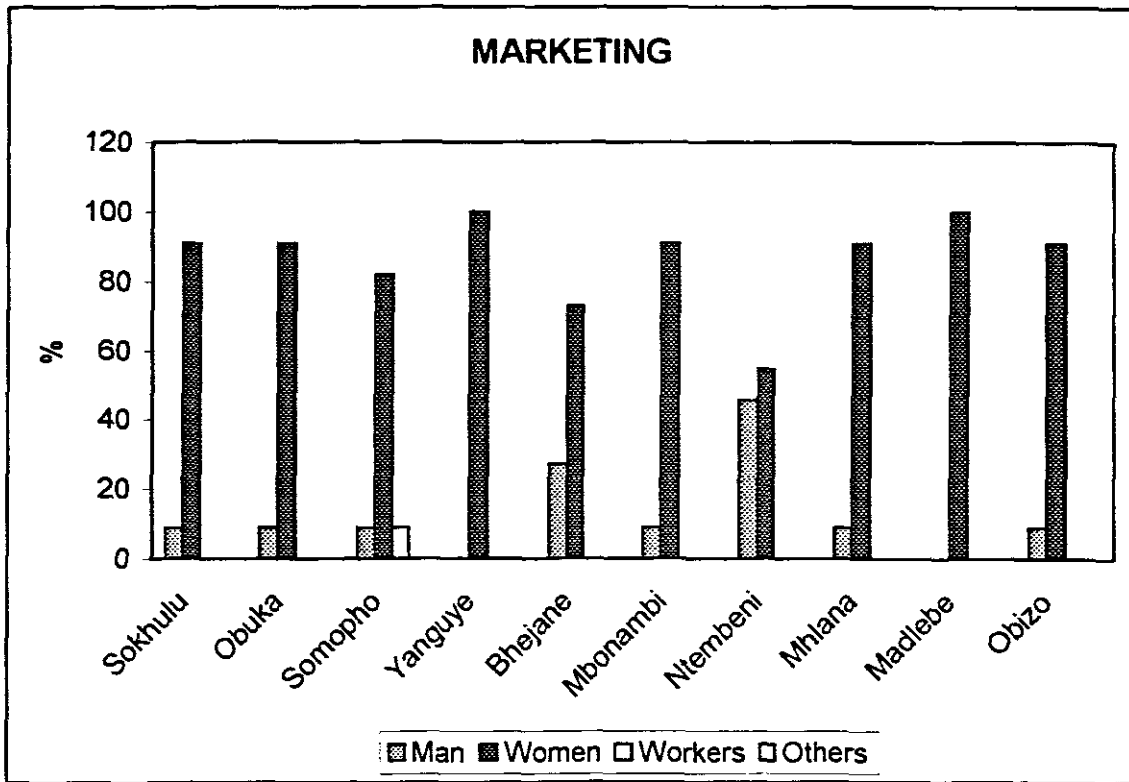


Figure 14: Marketing in wards



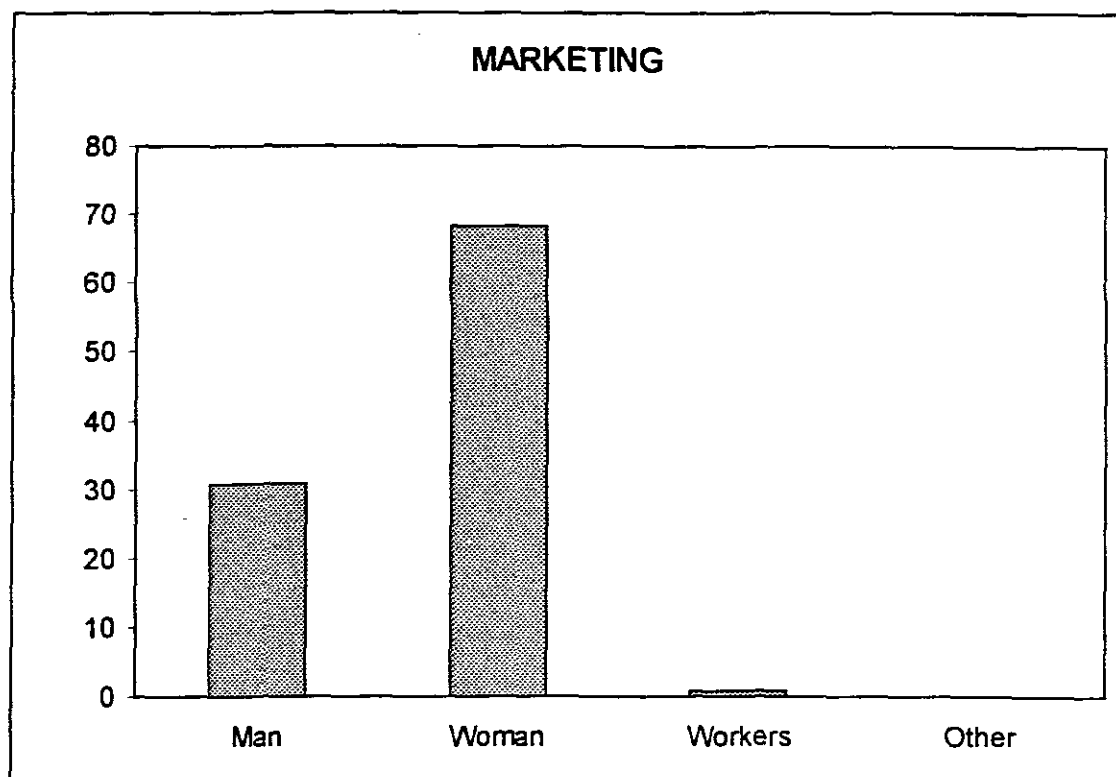


Figure 15: Overall marketing trends

#### 4.10. MARKETING

Women are playing an active role in marketing their produce (see figure fifteen & sixteen). About 70% are women and 28% are men. Agricultural tasks are not evenly distributed in the Nseleni district. Women spend more time in household chores and still participate actively in other activities outside the kitchen like in cultivation, harvesting and marketing. Since women are left alone they play an active role in marketing their produce about 70%. Poor women devote a greater percentage of their time to market production than women from more economically secure households (Brun and Latham, 1990, 52).

Among households with a small marketable surplus of agricultural commodities, women marketing may be seen as direct extension of their role in the management of the family's consumption (Deere, 1984). Female headed households are those where market work is a necessity, and among the poor, there is generally no surplus (Brun and Latham, 1990, 52)

Most of the participants have no access to the market around them most of the respondents have a problem of the infrastructure, most particularly poor roads, and nobody wants to visit rural areas. There are no tourists who are attracted to these areas except Mbonambi and Sokhulu, where there are markets because they are along the coastal belt of the Indian Ocean.

#### **4.11. WOMEN AND LAND**

Poverty is the basic factor that contributes to household food insecurity. Poverty is determined by a number of factors, including access to basic agricultural resources, particularly land. The trade between land security and productivity highlights the necessity of developing technical innovation and packages that are profitable to farmers. In the short term while conserving the land has long term potential value. The fields and female-headed families remain with a problem of land and tenure and poverty.

In the Nseleni district, all the participants agreed that the land belongs to Inkosi although theories have said that women have access to land. Thus, the issue of land is very sensitive because land is inherited through the partriachal system of inheritance. There are rare areas where they have practised the theory of allocating land to women without any reservations.

The study revealed that most women would not be in a position to utilise land as collateral, because land is not a woman's property, but belongs to Inkosi and therefore chances of commercial agriculture is slim. The respondents have also mentioned that although policymakers have announced that they can get land at any time, they still find difficulties with some of Amakhosi from the Nseleni district. They still want a male guarantor when they allocate land to a woman. Some women find themselves taking wrong decisions of falling in love with authorities they don't love in order to get land, especially when they do not have male children.

Half of the respondents said that they have small pieces of land, which is enough for *subsistence farming, especially participants from semi-rural areas*. The respondents from rural and deep rural areas of Nseleni have said that they have enough land to practice agriculture but they have a problem of practising commercial farming. This is because of poor resources like water for irrigation and they have poor soil structure as a result of erosion, which resulted in the depletion of natural resources.

Most participants responded that if they can be supplied with the requisite infrastructure to work their land, like irrigation scheme, they can practice sustainable agriculture, which can improve their social development and quality of life, since there is no use of land without economic implications. If the woman can be given land, they can bring change in social development.

The issue of women and land is a difficult one, because customary land allocation is inherently patriarchal and tied to traditional practices. Hence, this is a highly emotional issue. Although women have a right to be allocated land, or even to inherit it, in practice this rarely happens. Yet because the apartheid government's policies led to high levels of male migration out of rural areas, for decades most rural occupants in the reserves were women (Afra, 1999, p.120). Harley, (1993, p.60) states that rural women face oppression from four sides, namely, the fact that they are black, are women, are poor, and live in rural areas. Rural women are the most forgotten group in society, so much so that what they do ... is never taken seriously. Moutse women as quoted in Harley (1993, p. 61) states that women should have equal right to land. They cannot live without it. They need land to live freely as women.

#### **4.12. ACCESS TO CONTROL OF INCOME AND PRODUCTION.**

If women can have access to income and production tools, they can be able to solve their problems of being inadequate in many respects, most particularly in the sphere of literacy. There can be a high level of literacy, power distribution and a high social development. Women can be able to take their own decisions on local issues and thereby gain empowerment.

Due to the high level of illiteracy among women who participated in agricultural projects, the highest number of women in the Nseleni district cannot take decisions on the type of crop to plant. They are not empowered to take decisions. Many participants agreed that they have no access to what only men do. Men and women do not have equal access on deciding what to be done by the money that they get from and how that money is supposed to be used. Mostly participants have revealed that they were not satisfied by the way it is handled at households. In most cases, when men get access to money, they buy radios and liquor and do not contribute to household nutrition.

The majority of participants were having difficulty using their money without the consent of the husband. It is upheld as the culture of the Zulus, which says that woman must obey their husbands, and that they do not anything or enter into any agreement without the husband knowing.

#### 4.13. ACCESS TO CREDIT

There is 90% of the respondents who cannot get credit on their own. Other financial institutions give no access to women without the consent of men (75%). There are 98% of women who fear the risk of borrowing money from financial institutions.

Awareness of the importance of women and economic development has only grown in recent years. Availability of credit to poor women is now a concern. If women can have access to credit, there can be an increase on production, and income will clearly expand. This can lead to greater competition and reduce prices.

Most participants, especially women have no access to credit from local banks except cash loan schemes, which charge high interest rates. They have heard about the Land Bank in the media (radio) that they can get R250-00 from them, but have no access to that bank because they are situated far from in towns and big cities.

Most participants responded that if they can get access to credit, they are afraid of taking risk of borrowing money, because they may not be able to repay the interest. This also revealed that most of the participants are not empowered with skills, understanding and self-reliance. They are afraid of the unknown.

Most of the participants have received financial assistance from the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Social Welfare of KwaZulu-Natal, before financing their projects like community gardens where they get fencing material, and sewing projects in order to improve social development.

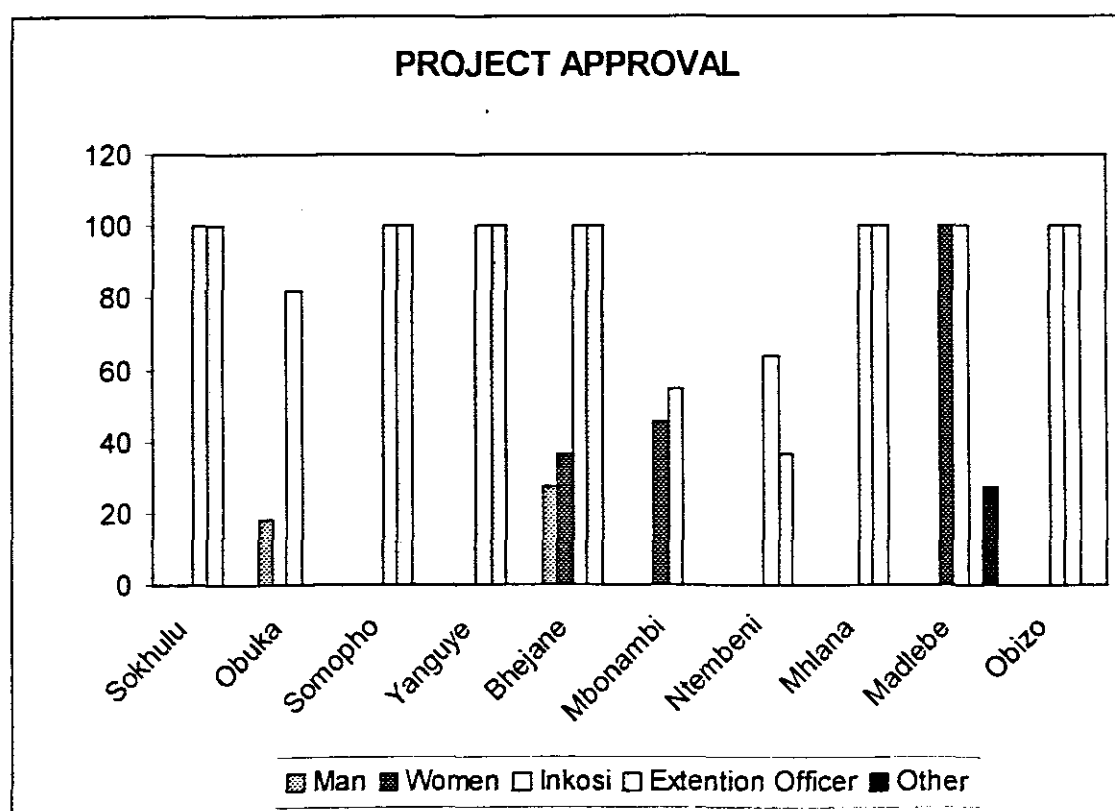


Figure 16: Project approval per ward

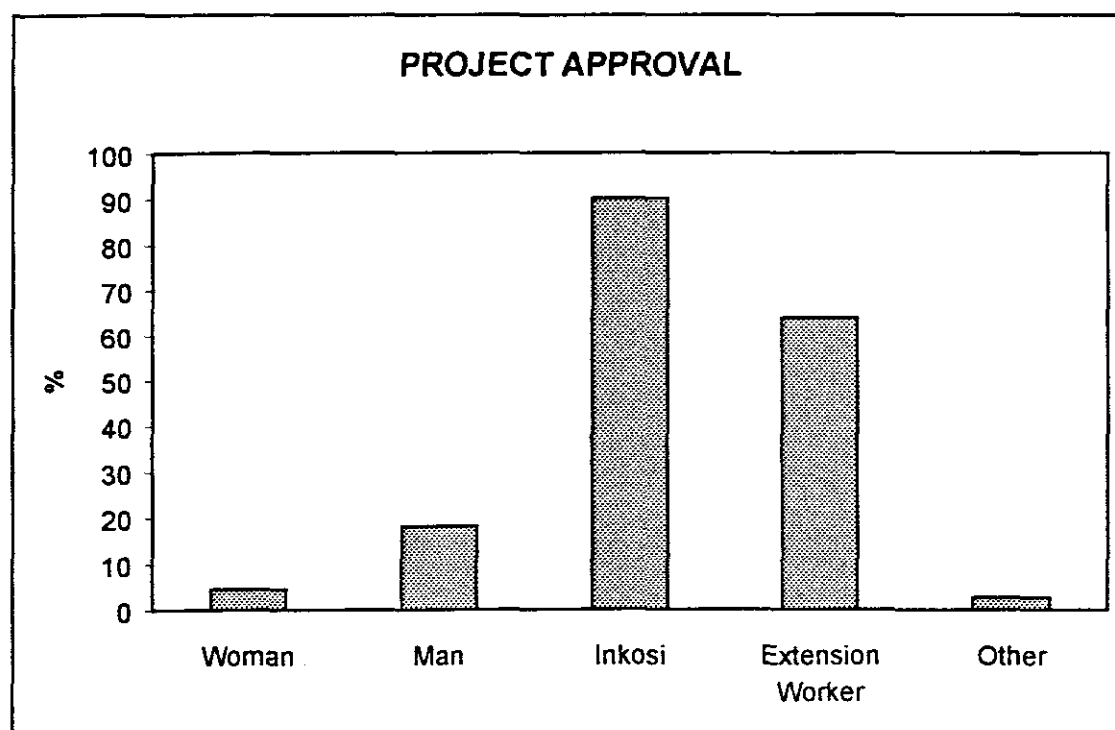


Figure 17: Projects Approval trends

#### 4.14. PROJECT ACTIVITIES

There is 95% of the project numbers that vary from twelve to twenty, with the gender ratio of none to one, women: men or only women involved. Most of the projects failed. In other projects there is no change, no growth and no failure. They have registered their projects through the inkosi and the Department of Agriculture through tribal development committee.

The leader, in 99% of the respondents, is chosen annually. They arrange their work in seasons. They spend a maximum of two hours in project sites. Only 90% of the respondents saw the benefits of participating in the projects, and 60%



responded that they are not benefiting from the project, saying that there is no profit. Figure seventeen shows that the Inkosi and extension officers are responsible for project approval. Women have no powers to approve the projects. In Nseleni, 95% of the projects have no male participants in them eg. sewing, baking and community gardens.

The problem of food security was mentioned by 92% of respondents in the Nseleni district. The project is registered at the Inkosi and the Department Agriculture. *Women are active participants in various agricultural projects. They carry all the tasks that are carried in projects although the government has little profile on women's projects. The participants vote annually in order to choose the leaders in various projects.*

#### **4.15. TECHNOLOGY**

Most of the work whether in rural development, has a great demand to improve technology in order to reduce the workload among women as regards time and energy. Most of the participants from Nseleni do not own tractors but use hand-hoes, which has no impact to commercial agriculture, but only subsistence farming. They also do not have workers working under their authority. Some have attended courses on sewing and cooking and have no other skills except these. In conclusion, women need to learn about technology in order to create awareness on management skills.

## **CHAPTER V: ANALYSIS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter summarises and further interprets the findings. The aims will be reviewed and the hypothesis tested.

Conclusions will be drawn from the data analysed and recommendations made.

### **5.2. RESTATEMENT OF OBJECTIVE OF STUDY**

The purpose of the study is to describe the roll played by women in agricultural development projects that are managed and worked by women in the Nseleni district of KwaZulu-Natal. It is also intended in this study to probe on the impact that these had on women's livelihoods and the economic well being of their families.

The objectives of the study will be to look at the following: involvement of women in the formulation of basic rules of project formulation, the composition of group members in terms of gender, task and time allocation of each member of the group, allocation and access to resources and credits and the distribution of power in the group.

### **5.3. RESTATEMENT OF THE ASSUMPTIONS OF IN THE STUDY**

The assumptions are that firstly, the type of agriculture women in rural areas practise is subsistence agriculture. Women are the proponents of agricultural development projects or but differently, agricultural development projects are initiated because of women's efforts, dedication and cheap, hard labour they provide for their households. Therefore, the government and the private sector, provide the helping hand to help them with new technologies, credit and access to more arable land in the form of development projects. It is therefore assumed that whenever these projects are to be implemented, women are not involved in the process of their planning and management.

### **5.4. CONCLUSION**

From the data that has been analysed from this baseline survey, the researcher concludes the results in the following manner:

### **5.5. GENDER ROLES**

The results confirmed that women primary roles are to secure food supply and to be responsible for all domestic activities, like the preparation of food, doing all household chores and being involved in farm work.

## **5.6. DIVISION OF LABOUR**

The results also confirmed that women are involved in reproductive work and productive work. They are doing productive work not because they like it but are forced by circumstances, as they must get food to feed their children, especially female-headed families.

## **5.7. ACCESS TO RESOURCE LAND AND CREDIT**

This study has revealed that some women have got a problem of access to land. They are told that it is difficult to trust women alone and they are only given small-scale land where it is difficult to practise commercial agriculture.

This study also revealed that women have a problem of credit, that they don't get enough credit to facilitate their work because they don't have collateral. They are exposed to heavy interest in credit by moneylenders, where they end up producing no profit for themselves.

## **5.8. COMMUNITY MANAGEMENT**

Although women are left alone by men who migrate to look for employment, this study has revealed that women always wait for the husbands to make decisions

on everything at home even with regard to selling the produce that was produced by them.

## **5.8. WOMEN ORGANISATIONS AND PROJECTS**

The results of this study indicate that women are mostly confined to domestication projects like sewing, cooking, small-scale community gardens. Few women are involved in projects like upholstery; no one owns livestock, and large scale farming projects.

Hilhorst and Oppernoorth (1992) state that "attitudes towards women are often deeply rooted in all cultures, whether in the developing or developed world. The fact is that women can make an equal contribution to development, throughout the world. According to labour statistics, one fourth to one third of women in rural areas are self-employed, while others work as family labourers or farm workers. A process of feminisation in agriculture is occurring with women managing their farms while their husbands migrate to search for employment far from their homes.

Despite the importance of women in agriculture their access to land is still restricted. The size and quality of land holding are less for women than for men, and since few hold title deeds, their tenure is generally insecure. This reduces women's capacity to invest in agricultural production or expand agricultural

activities. This land tenure insecurity hinders women from getting access to funding, either from the formal or non-formal institutions. They are forced to explore alternative activities in order to increase this income because they cannot provide title deeds for their land as a guarantee.

## **5.9. RECOMMENDATION**

In view of the above conclusion the following recommendations are made:

Women need empowerment. The improvement of their political, social, economic and health status is a highly important end in itself. In addition, empowerment is essential for the achievement of sustainable development. The full participation and partnership of both women and men is required in productive and reproductive life, including shared responsibility for the care and nurturing of children and the maintenance of the household. Women are facing threats to their lives, health and well being as a result of being overburdened with work, and because of the lack of power and influence. Women receive less formal education than men do and it is regrettable that women own knowledge, abilities and coping mechanisms, which often go unrecognised.

Achieving the desirable change requires policy and programme actions that will improve women's ability to secure livelihoods and economic resources to alleviate their poverty and lessen the extreme responsibilities of housework. In addition, improving the status of women will also enhance their decision-making

capacity at all levels in all sphere of life, especially in the area of sexuality and reproduction.

In addition education is one of the most important means of empowering women with the knowledge, skills and self-confidence necessary to enable women to participate fully in the development process.

Actions needed to be taken by Policy Makers and Government are as follows:

1. Government at all levels should ensure that women can buy, hold and sell property and land equally with men, obtain credit and negotiate contracts in their own name and on their own behalf and exercise their legal right to inheritance.
2. Governments, government organisation and non governmental organisations should ensure that their personnel policies and practices comply with the principle of equitable representation of both sexes, especially at the management and policy-making levels, in all programmes including population and rural development programmes. Specific procedures and indicators should be devised for gender-based analysis of development programmes and for assessing the impact of those programmes on women social, economic and health status and access to resources.

The design of family health and other development interventions should take a better account of the demands on women's time from the responsibilities, such as child-rearing, household work and income-generating activities. Greater investments should be made to lessen the daily burden of domestic responsibilities, the greater share of which falls on women. Greater attention should be paid to the ways in which environmental degradation and change inland use adversely affect the working environments of women, especially their health.

Every effort should be made to encourage the expansion and strengthening of grass roots, community-based and activist groups for women. Such groups should be the focus of provincial campaigns to foster women awareness on the full range of their legal rights, including their rights within the family, and to help women organise to achieve these rights.

The entire work in the Department that interact with women should involve women from the initiating stage up to evaluation stage of the projects.

The women especially rural ones should be consulted using "Batho Pele" (people first) principles on money given per poverty alleviation programmes by each Department that is having this programmes.



Extension workers must involve women in various projects not only domestication projects like sewing, small scale community garden, small scale cooking. Women must be given chances to engage in construction projects, water projects, commercial farming, etc.

Develop agricultural and fishing sections where necessary in order to ensure the appropriate household and national food security and food self-sufficiency, by allocating the necessary financial, technical and human resources.

Develop policies and programmes to promote equitable distribution of food within the household.

Take particular measures to promote and strengthen policies and programmes for indigenous women with their full participation and respect of their cultural diversity, so that they can have opportunities and the possibility of choice in the development process in order to eradicate the poverty that affects them.

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## APPENDIX A: DEFINITION OF TERMS

- a) Age roles – Expectations about the behaviour of people occupying particular age statuses.
- b) Concept – A generalisation, a way of labelling similar things or processes.
- c) Gender – The social and psychological traits associated with masculinity and femininity.
- d) Gender role – A social role associated with being male or female.
- e) Methodology – The system of procedures that helps sociologists develop knowledge.
- f) Population – In research the total group of people to be studied
- g) Poverty – A condition of scarcity or deprivation of material resources characterised by a lack of the necessities of life.
- h) Power – the capacity of people or groups to control or influence the actions of others, whether those others wish to co-operate or not.
- i) Qualitative methods – research methods designed to describe reality in *accurate verbal terms rather than in numbers*.
- j) Random sampling – a sample chosen so that every member of the population has an equal chance of being picked for inclusion.
- k) Role – the behaviour expected of someone occupying a given status in a group or society.
- l) Sex – the biological traits that distinguish the male and female members of a species.

- m) Technology – the knowledge and tools used to manipulate the environment for practical ends.
- n) Survey – the systematic questioning of large numbers of people about their opinions, attitudes or behaviour.
- o) Traditional authority – authority that is conferred by custom and accepted practice.

**APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE**

(Strictly Confidential)

Name of district:

Name of the ward:.....

Name of the sub-ward:.....

Name of the interviewee (optional):.....

---

**GENDER IN ASSESSING AGRICULTURAL PROJECTS IN THE NSELENI  
DISTRICT**

**QUESTIONNAIRE**

Souci-Demographics questionnaire (all information is confidential)

1.1 Name of the community

1.2 District

1.3 Ward

1.4 Religious Composition

1.5 Ethnicity

1.6 Name of the interviewee

a. Gender

b. Female

Male

c. 1.8 Age in years

16-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61 & above
-------	-------	-------	-------	------------

1.9 Marital status

Single

Separated

Widow

Married

Divorced

1.10 Occupation

Housewives

Domestic worker

Professional worker

Pensioner

Other

Do you have any formal education?

Yes

No



If yes what was the highest standard attended at school?

- Primary Education
- Secondary
- Post Matrix/Tertiary Education
- Other

Do you have children?

- Yes  No

Do you own electricity?

- Yes  No

## 2. Division of Labour

Who is responsible for housing chores like cleaning, cooking, etc.?

- Man
- Woman
- Sibling
- Housekeeper
- Other

### 2.2 Who is responsible for land cultivation and ploughing?

- Man
- Woman
- Workers
- Other

2.3 Who is responsible for harvesting of food?

- Woman
- Man
- Workers
- Other

2.4 Who is responsible to market the produce and harvesting?

- Woman
- Man
- Workers
- Other

2.5 Is there any market around you?

- Yes
- No

3. Women and Land

3.1 Do you own land for cultivation

Yes

No

If yes how many hectares?

3.2 Is the land right size for you?

Yes

No

3.3 Who owns the land?

Inkosi

Man

Women

In laws

Other

3.4 Was the land bought?

Yes

No

3.5 Can you sell or lease the land you own?

Yes

No

3.6 Can you use the land as for a loan?

Yes

No

3.7 Is it possible to acquire land from the tribal authority on your own as a woman? If yes, how?

.....

3.8 If not why?

.....  
 3.9 Is it possible for woman to acquire any other available land for commercial purpose?

Yes

No

3.10 If woman can be given land, do you think they can be able to practise commercial farming?

Yes

No

3.11 What do you think are problems for women farmers concerning land?

.....  
 .....  
 .....

3.12 What solution can you think of?

.....  
 .....  
 .....

#### Access to resources

1. Access to control over income and production

4.1 Who decide what crops to be planted and when?

.....

4.2 Who decides what to be done with ripe produced?

Man

Woman

Other

4.3 Who decides what to do with the money received from sales of the produce?

Man

Woman

Other

4.4 How is money used?

Man

Woman

Other

4.5 Are you satisfied with the way money is handled at household?

Yes

No

If no state why?

.....

4.6 Is it possible to use your own money received from the women projects without getting the permission of husband?

Yes

No

Can you decide to get credit for your own use without the approval of the husband?

Yes

No

2. Access to credit

5.1 Are you able to obtain credit on your own name?

Yes

No

If yes, how much?

.....

5.2 Who signs the credit agreement?

Woman

Man

Other

5.3 Are there any financial institutions that can give credit to woman without the consent of men if married?

Yes

No

5.4 Would you like to take a risk of borrowing money from these institutions?

.....

.....

5.5 Did your project get any financial assistance before?

Yes

No

If yes, specify.

.....

.....

.....

3. Stakes and project activities

6.1 Name of the project

.....

6.2 How many members available?

.....

6.3 What is the gender ratio?

.....

6.4 Can you give the growth or failure to date and reason?

.....

.....

6.5 Who can join?

.....

6.6 Where was the project registered?

.....

6.7 What is responsibility for women in this project?

.....

.....

6.8 How leaders are chosen to this project?

.....

.....

6.9 How work is arranged?

.....

6.10 Time spent on woman group activities per week.

.....

6.11 Is woman benefiting to his project?

Yes

No

6.12 Who approved the project in this area?

- Woman
- Man
- Inkosi
- Extension Officer
- Other

6.13 Are there any men involved in sewing, baking project?

Yes  No

If yes, state how many?

.....

6.14 How can you improve gender involvement in your project?

.....

6.15 Is food produced enough for food security?

Yes  No

6.16 This project is big enough for commercial farming.

Yes  No

6.17 Are there any community gender committees?

Yes  No

6.18 Are they for commercial or subsistence farming?

.....

4. Technology

7.1 Do you own your own tractor?



Yes  No

7.2 Do you have workers working under your supervision?

Yes  No

7.3 Have you ever attended any course concerning the project that you are doing?

Yes No

7.4 Do you have any skill?

Yes No

If yes, what skills do you have?

.....

.....

.....

**APPENDIX C: DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEES FOR TRIBAL WARDS**

**1. MADLEBE COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT**

1. Z. MTSHALI
2. A. MLONDO
3. B. LANGA (MRS)
4. E. NCANANA
5. D. KING
6. O. MADIDA
7. M. MNGUNI

TECHNICIAN

B. F. NGEMA

**2. BHEJANE DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE**

1. J. MTHETHWA
2. T. BUTHELEZI
3. MRS KHOZA
4. MRS NTULI
5. J. JIYANE

TECHNICIAN

B. F. NGEMA

3. OBIZO DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE

1. J. DLAMINI
2. M. CEBEKHULU
3. V. MKHIZE
4. S. MPANZA
5. B. MKHWANAZI

TECHNICIAN

N. B. NSELE

4. MHLANA DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE

1. M. A. MTHETHWA
2. M. ZUNGU
3. R. MKHIZE (MRS)
4. L. MDLETSHE
5. S. SANGWENI

TECHNICIANS

N. B. NSELE

V. L. NXUMALO

T. L. ZULU

5. SOMOPHO DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE

1. M. J. NDLOVU
2. S. LANGA
3. M. MTHEMBU
4. J. EHRENS
5. E. MTHEMBU

TECHNICIAN

S. MADONDO

6. ENTEMBENI DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE

1. E. MNYANDU
2. S. SHANDU
3. M. MDLALOSE (MRS)
4. B. MHLONGO
5. A. NTULI

TECHNICIAN

M. H. MKHIZE (MRS)

7. MANDLAZINI DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE

1. M. MTHIYANE
2. A. MTHIYANE
3. J. SOKHULU
4. G. HLABISA
5. R. BUKHOSINI

TECHNICIAN

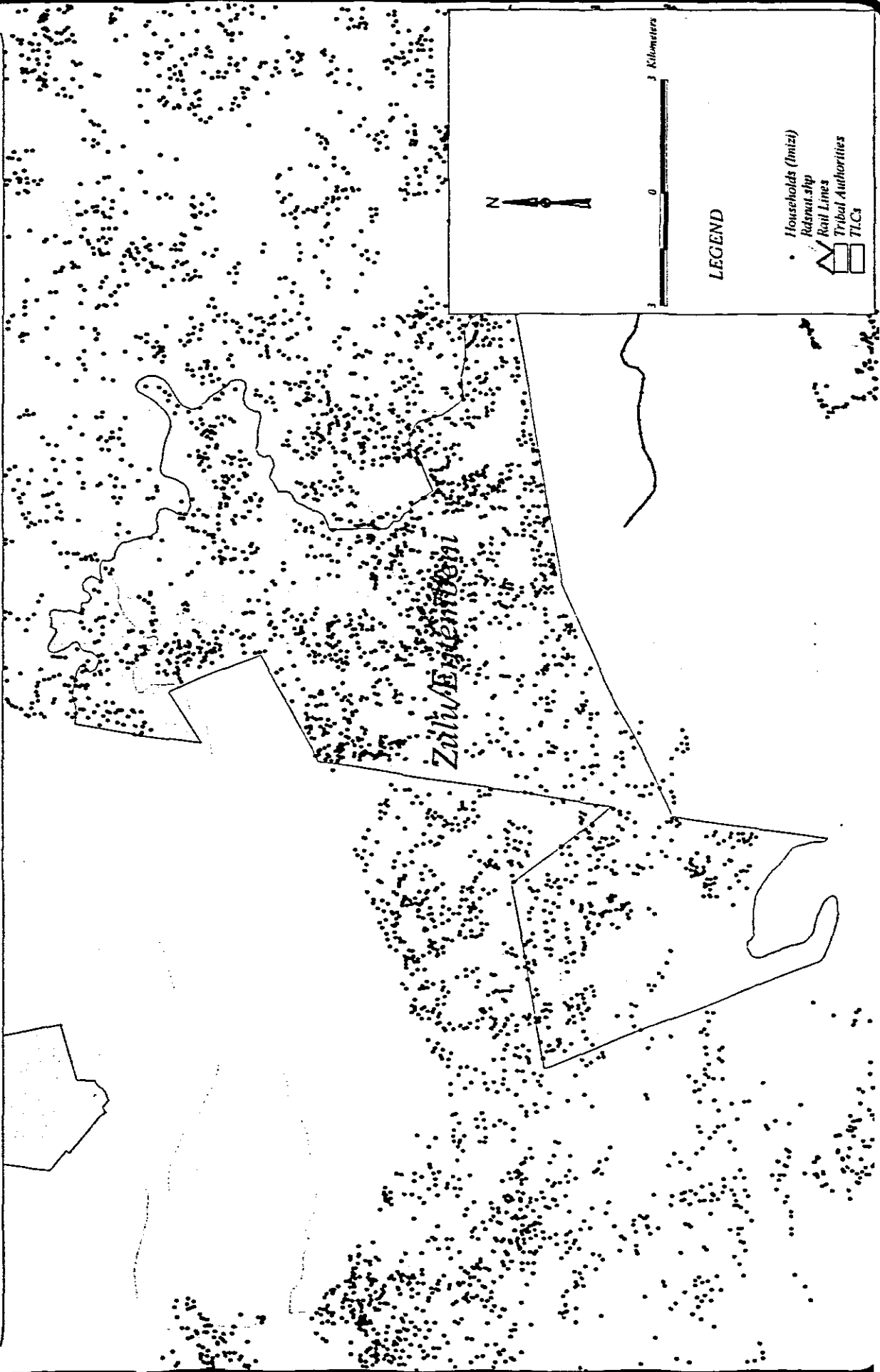
P. TEMBE (MRS)

8. OBUKA DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE

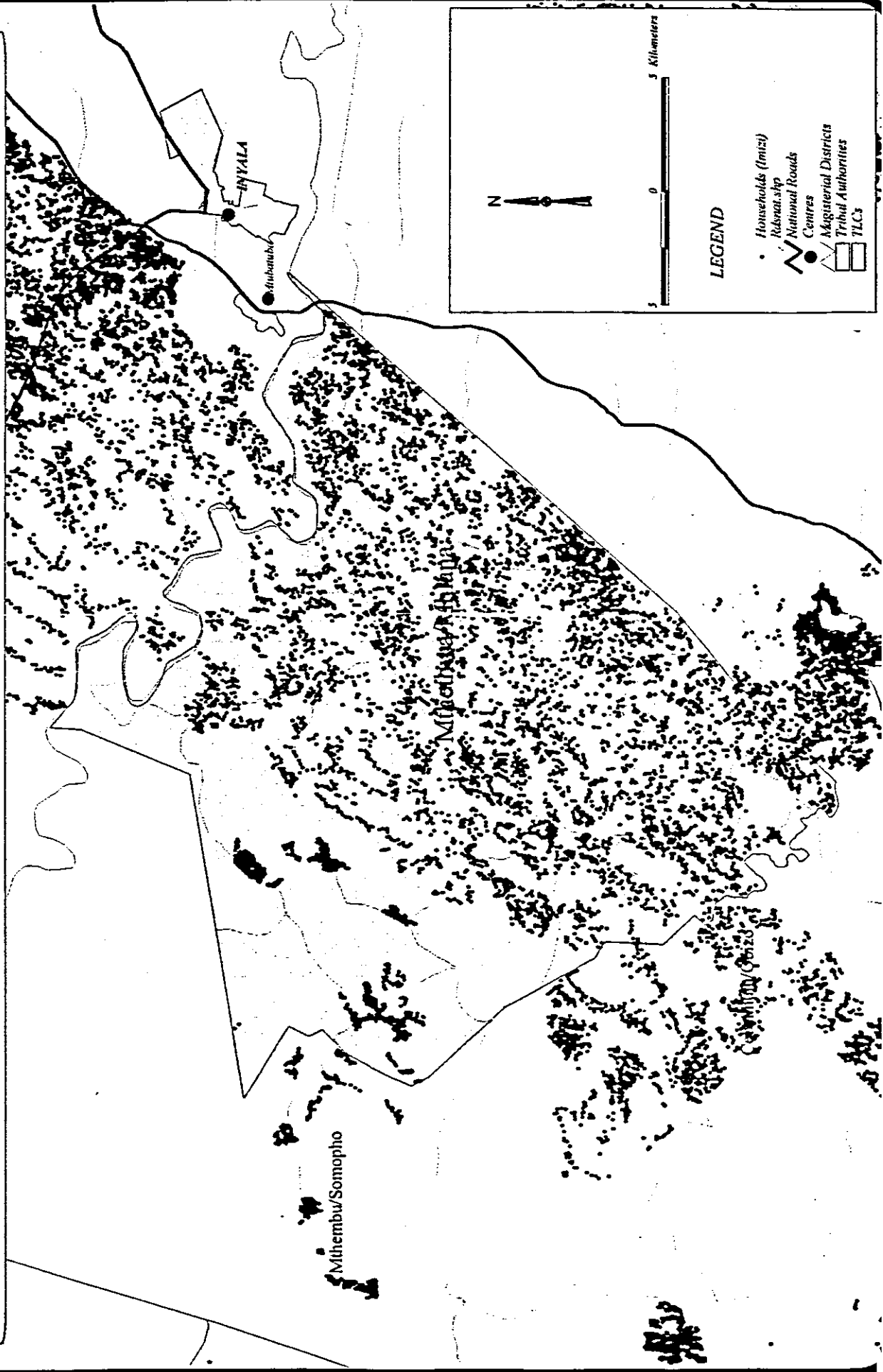
1. BUTHELEZI
2. MTHEMBU
3. MTSHALI

**APPENDIX D: MAPS**

# MAP OF NTEMBENI TA



# MAP OF MHLANA TA



## LEGEND

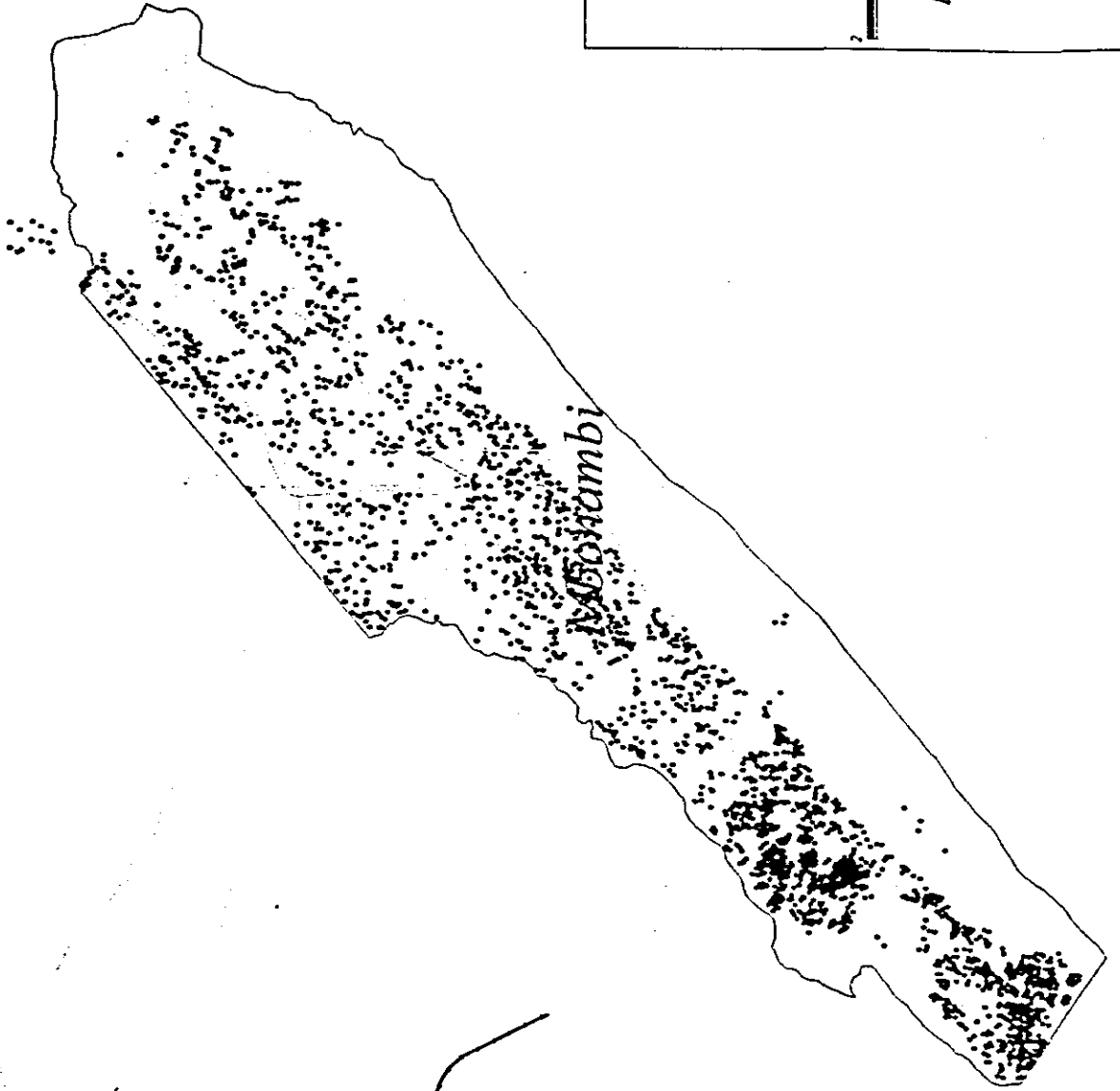
- Households (Imizi)
- Roads
- National Roads
- Centres
- Magisterial Districts
- Tribal Authorities
- TLC's

5 Kilometers





# MAP OF MBONAMBI TA

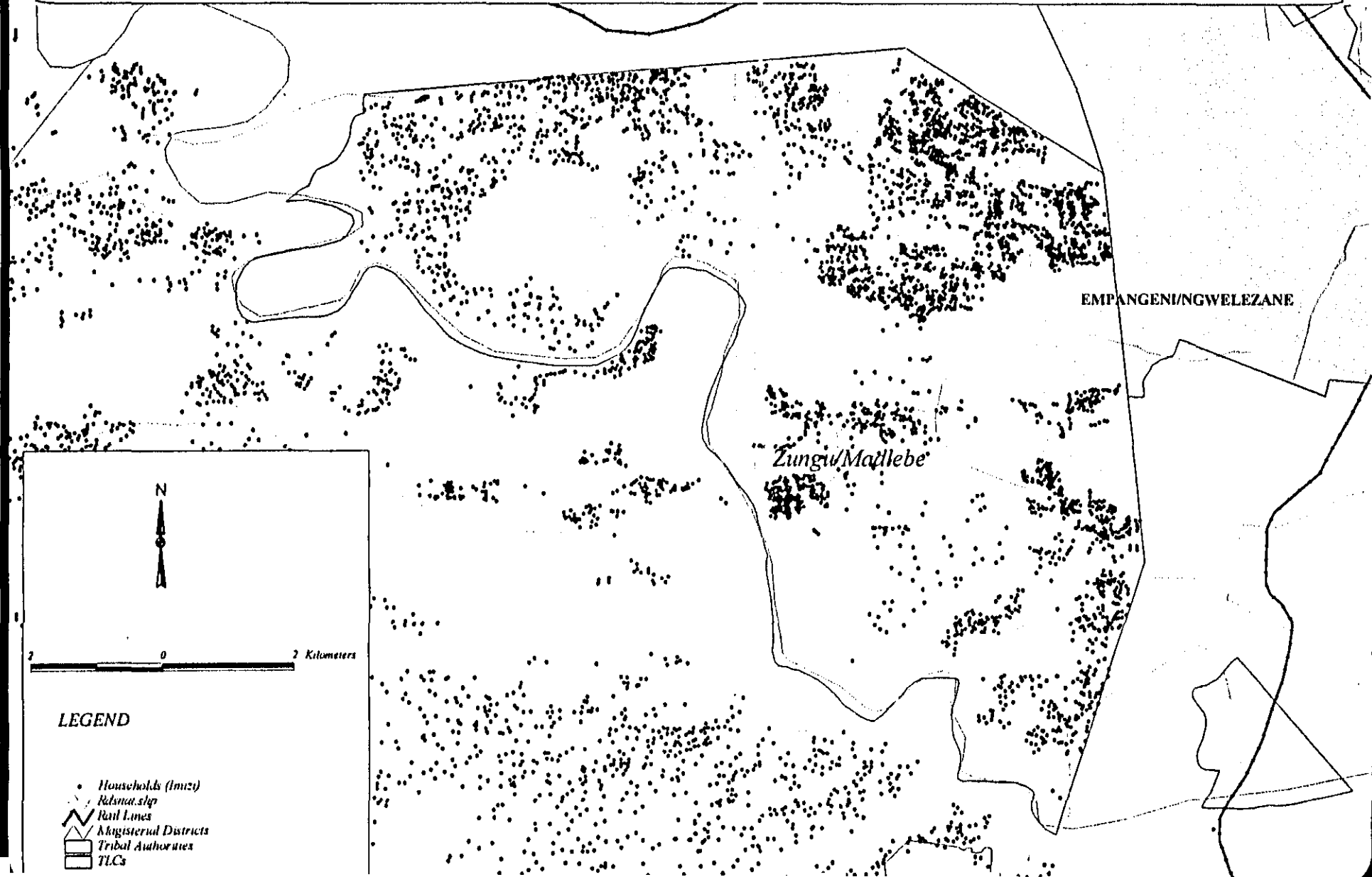


2 0 2 Kilometers

LEGEND

- Households (Imizi)
- Road/ship
- Rail Lines
- ▭ Tribal Authorities

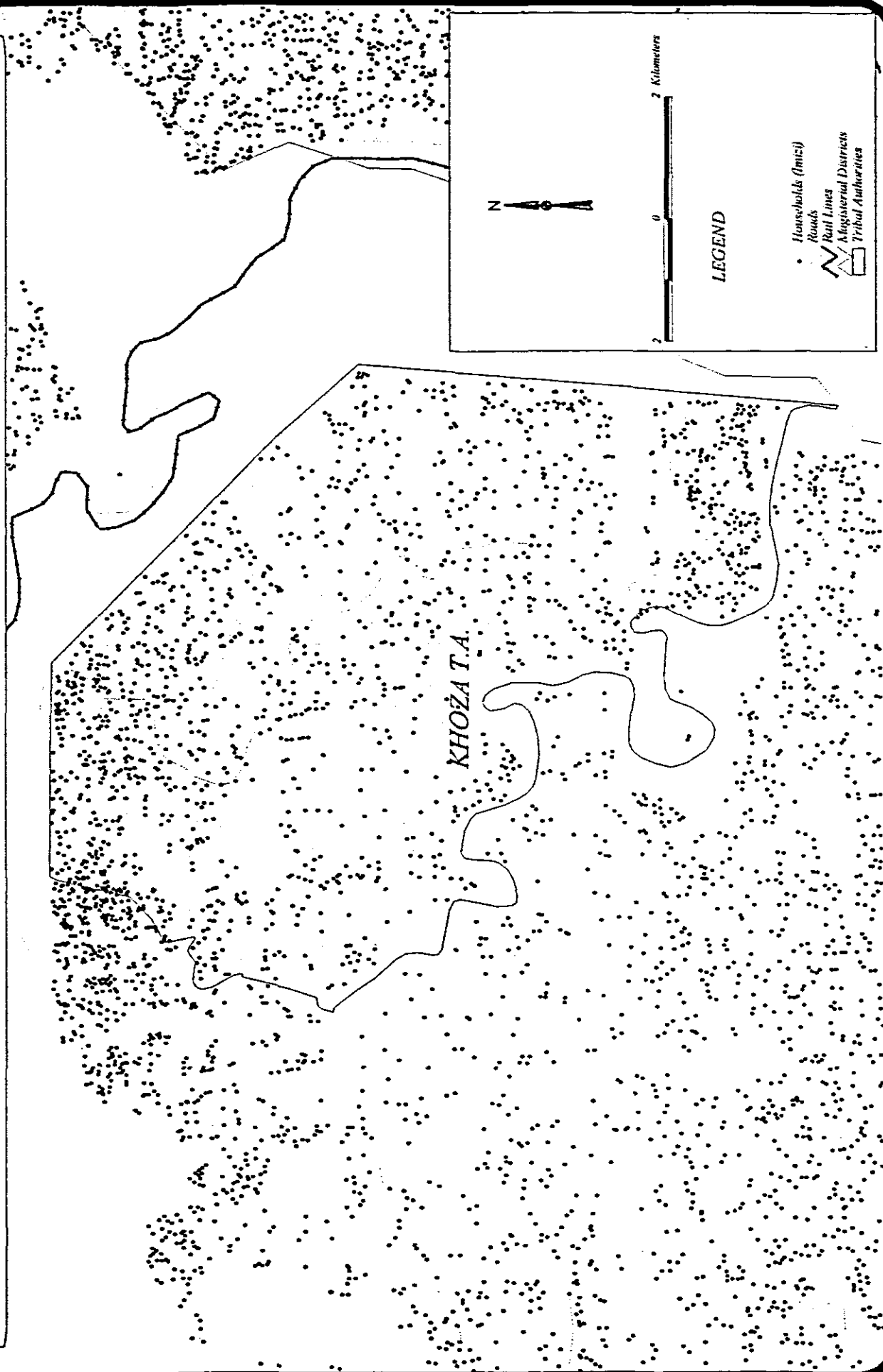
# MAP OF MADLEBE TA



## LEGEND

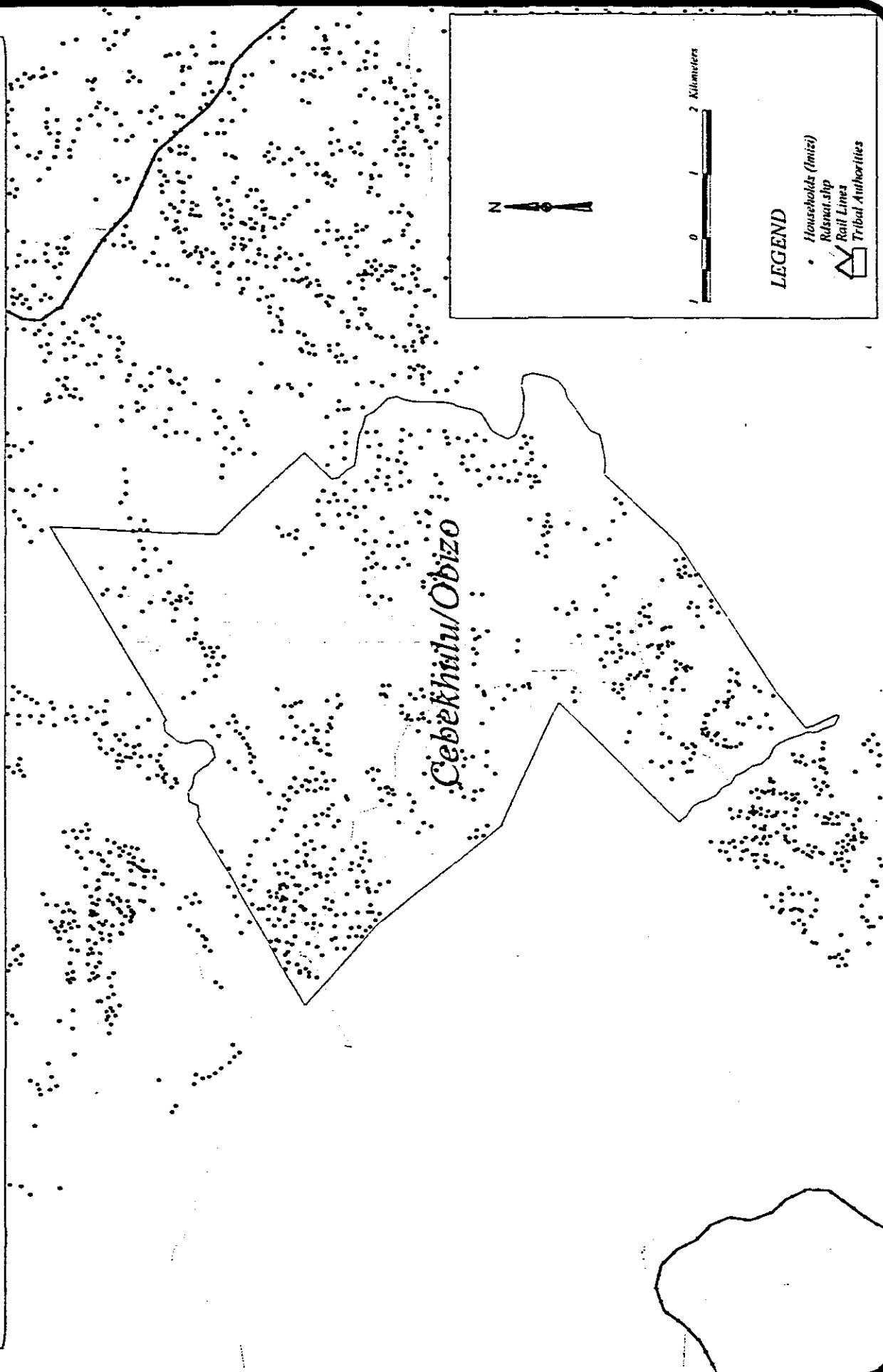
- Households (Imizi)
- - - Roads
- Rail Lines
- - - - - Magisterial Districts
- Tribal Authorities
- TLCs

# MAP OF KHOZA TA



KHOZA T.A.

# MAP OF OBIZO TA



*Cebekhulu/Obizo*

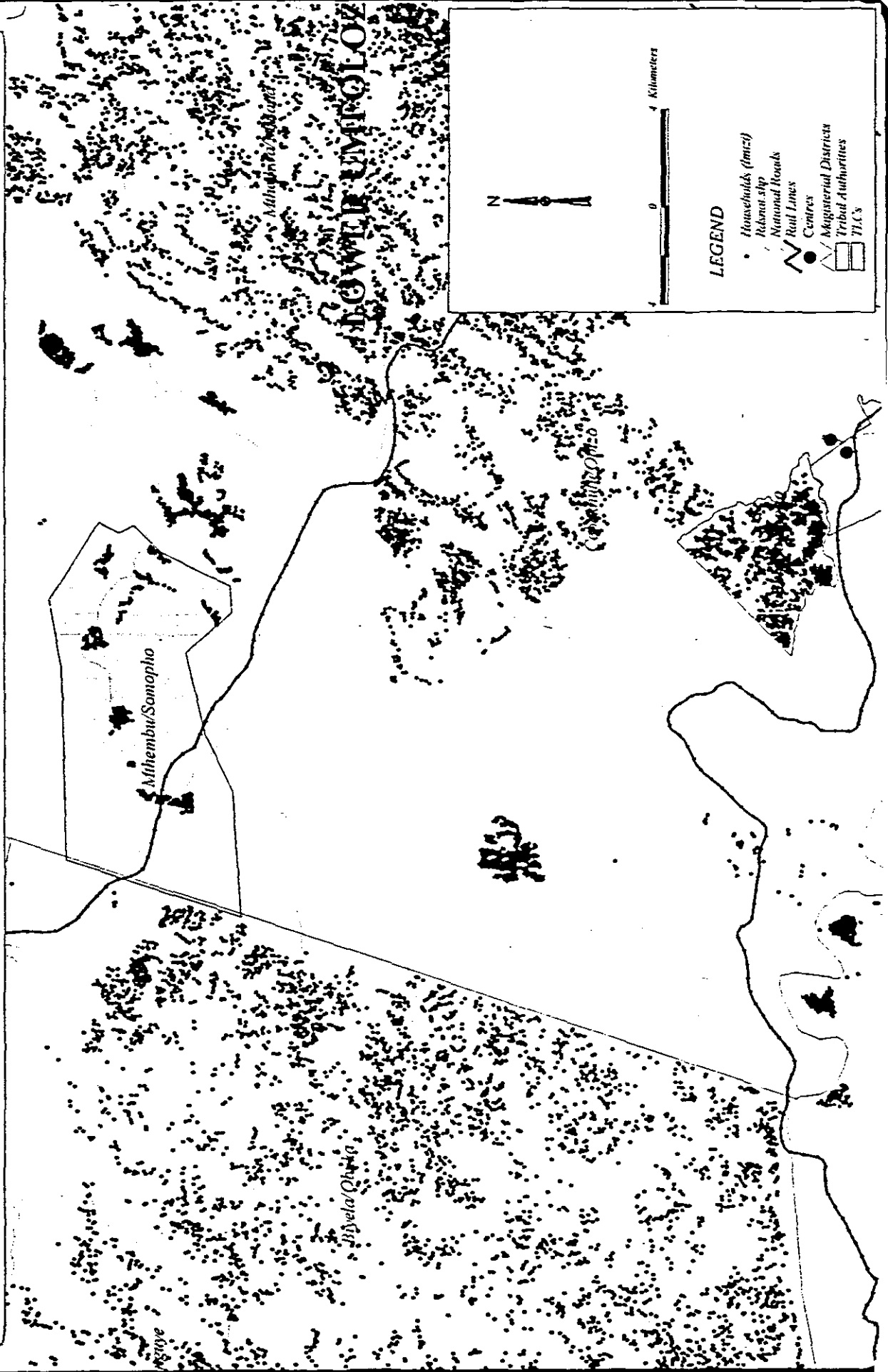


0 1 2 Kilometers

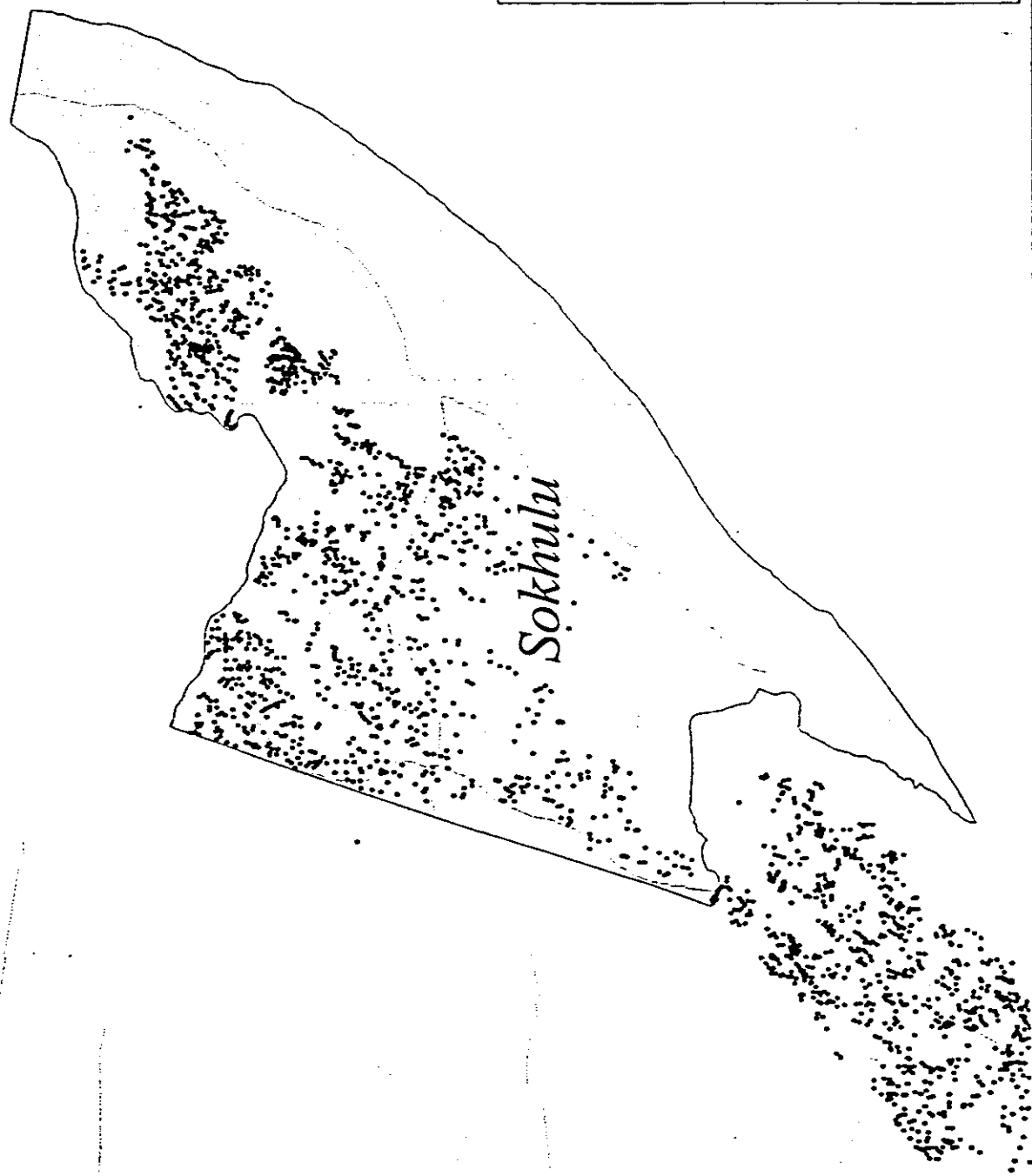
LEGEND

- Households (Imizi)
- Roads/ship
- +— Rail Lines
- ▭ Tribal Authorities

# MAP OF SOMOPHO TA



# MAP OF SOKHULU TA



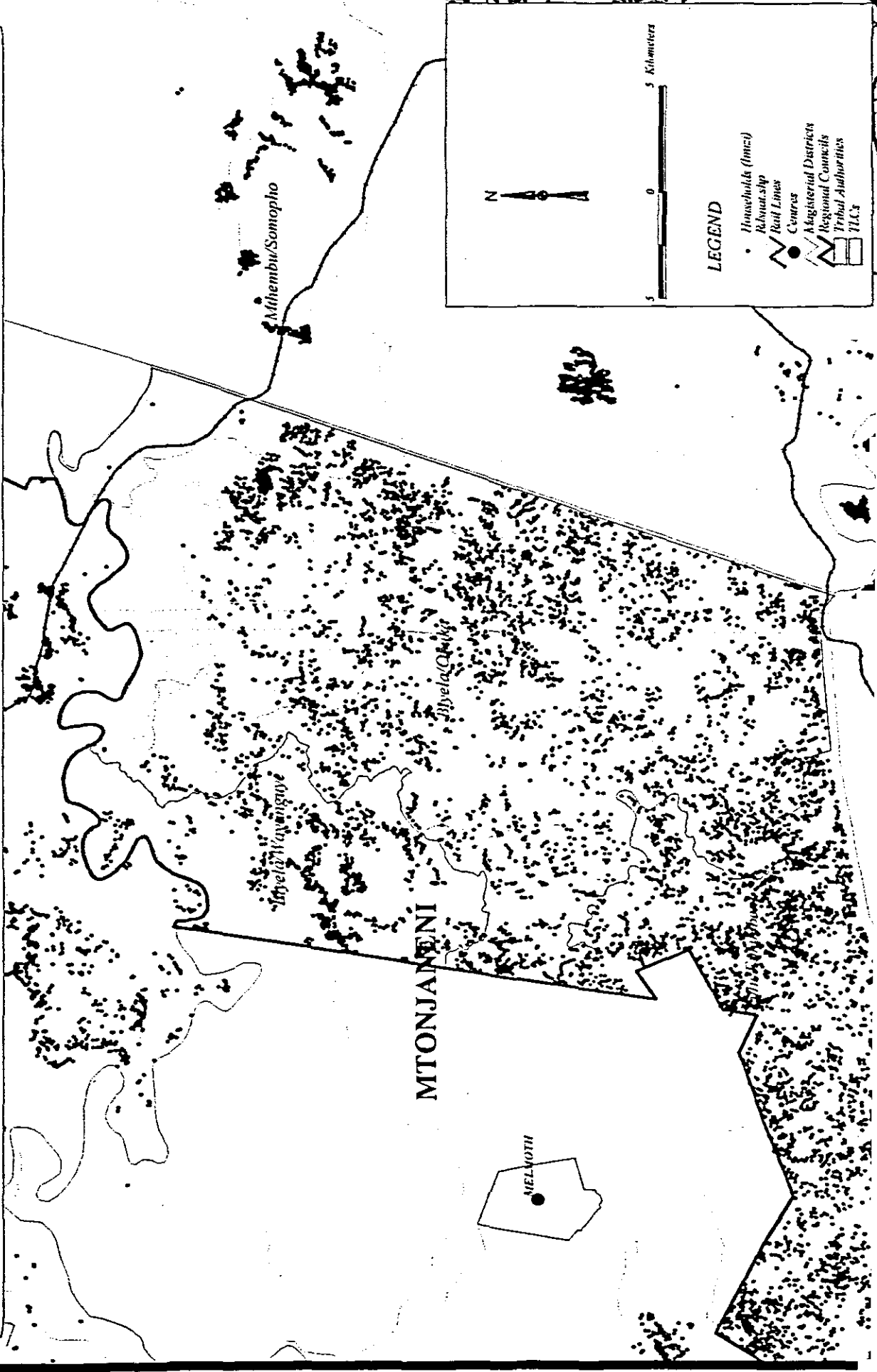
Kilometers



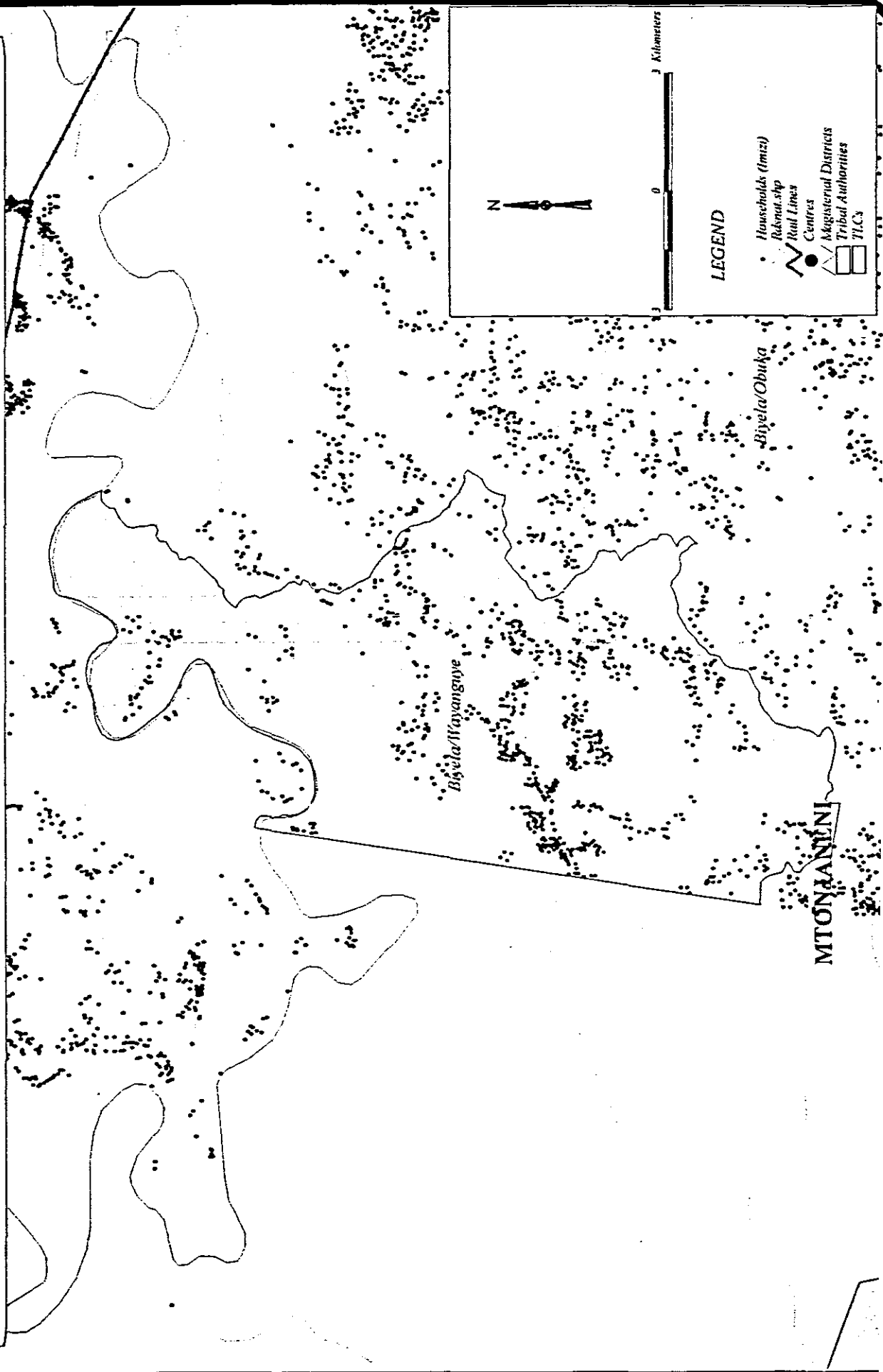
## LEGEND

- Households (Imizi)
- - - - - Adnatship
- Tribal Authorities

# MAP OF OBUKA TA



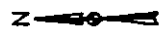
# MAP OF YANGUYE TA



## LEGEND

- Households (Imizi)
- Roads
- Centres
- Magisterial Districts
- Tribal Authorities
- TLCs

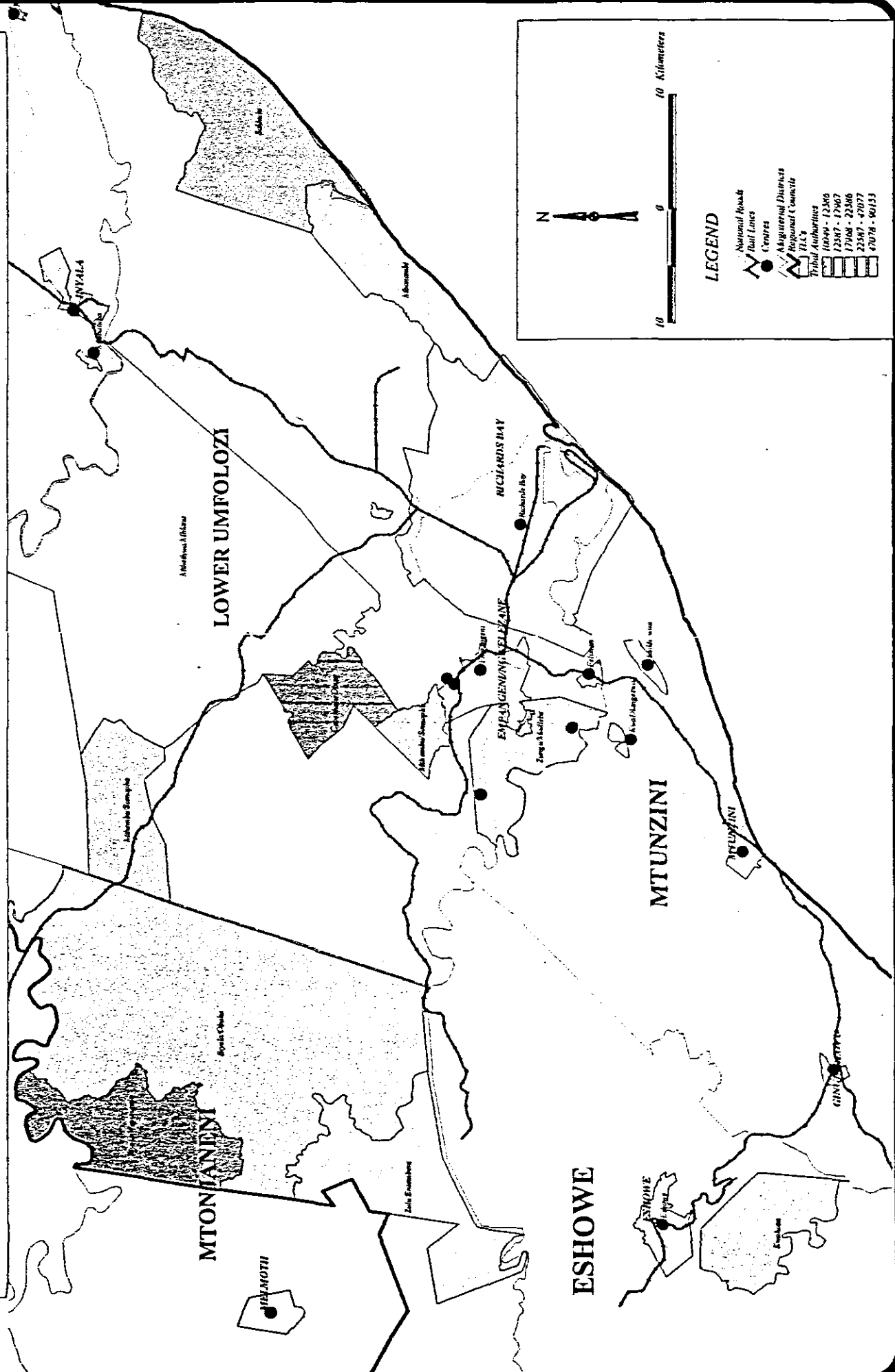
0 3 Kilometers



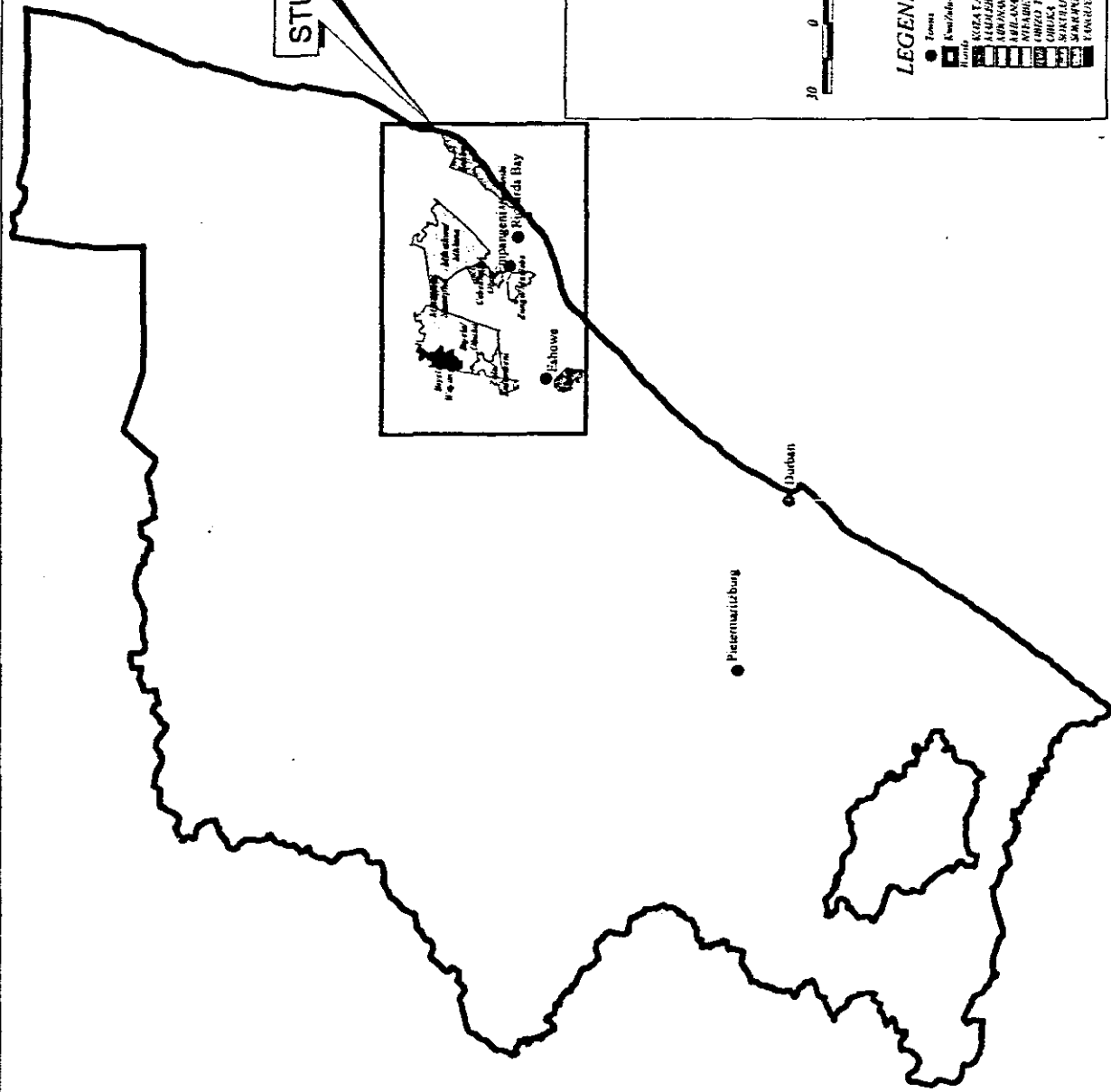
MTONJANI



# POPULATION DISTRIBUTION



# MAP OF KWAZULU-NATAL



STUDY AREA





## LEGEND

- Towns
- ▭ Provincial Boundary
- ▭ KwaZulu-Natal
- ▭ LIMPOPO
- ▭ NORTHERN CAPE
- ▭ FREE STATE
- ▭ WESTERN CAPE
- ▭ EASTERN CAPE
- ▭ NORTH WEST
- ▭ NORTHERN CAPE
- ▭ KwaZulu-Natal
- ▭ LIMPOPO
- ▭ NORTHERN CAPE
- ▭ FREE STATE
- ▭ WESTERN CAPE
- ▭ EASTERN CAPE
- ▭ NORTH WEST

# MAP OF AFRICA

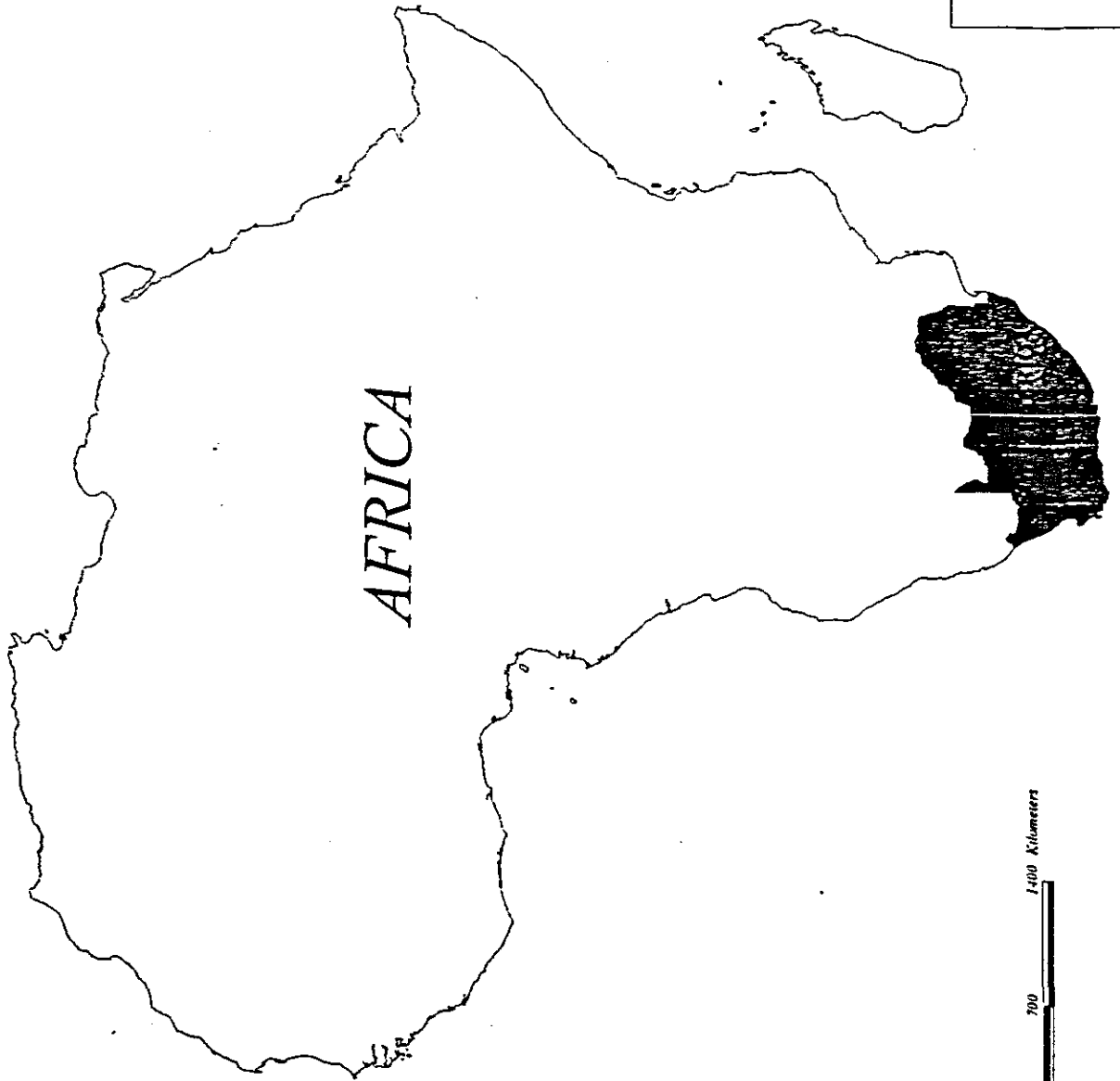


LEGEND



-  Republic of South Africa
-  African Boundary

700 0 700 1400 Kilometers

# MAP OF AFRICA



## LEGEND

-  Republic of South Africa
-  African Boundary

700 0 700 1400 Kilometers

