

**THE EFFECTS OF GENDER INEQUALITY ON RURAL HOUSEHOLD LIVELIHOODS
DIVERSIFICATION: A CASE STUDY OF SEBAYENG VILLAGE, POLOKWANE,
LIMPOPO PROVINCE**

by

MADIKANA JACKINAH MOKGOKONG

RESEARCH DISSERTATION

Submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ADMINISTRATION

in

DEVELOPMENT

in the

**FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AND LAW
(School of Economics and Management)**

at the

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

SUPERVISOR: Prof M.P Sebola

CO-SUPERVISOR: Dr J.P Tsheola

DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation hereby submitted to the University of Limpopo, for the degree of Master of Administration in Development has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university; that it is my work in design and in execution, and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

Initials & Surname (Title)

[REDACTED]

Date

DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to my father Ephraim Mokgokong, my mother Margaret Mokgokong, my two sisters Mokgadi and Maphari, my only brother Abel, my aunt Kate Mokgokong, and my uncle Jack Mokgokong.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

For the success of this study, I would firstly like to thank The Almighty GOD for giving me wisdom, patience, perseverance, knowledge, and courage to fulfill my studies. He has done great things for me throughout my studies and for that I will forever be grateful. My Church, The Apostle Brethren Christian Church of South Africa (ACB) for making me the person that I am today by keeping me humbled and grounded at all times.

I will also like to offer my sincere gratitude to all the honourable individuals who have contributed to the success of this research study. This appreciation is directed to the following, for their inspiration, encouragement, and contributions made towards the completion of this research:

My Supervisor Prof M.P Sebola and Co-Supervisor Dr. J.P Tsheola, for their kindness, selfless support, patience, motivation, and, constructive opinions and guidance;

University of Limpopo Research Office for their financial assistance

The community of Sebayeng for their time, kindness, and willingness to actively participate in this study;

The Sebayeng ward Councillor Mr. Chris Machete for his assistance and constructive opinions;

My two loving and caring parents, Ephraim and Margaret Mokgokong for your understanding and support throughout my studies, GOD bless;

My three siblings, Mokgadi, Abel and Maphari thank you for the motivation and support throughout my studies;

My uncle Mr. Jack Mokgokong and my late aunt Mrs. Kate Mokgokong thank you for everything that you have done throughout my studies;

ABSTRACT

Feminist studies show that gender inequality is an impediment for livelihoods diversification among rural households. Whereas women are understood to be the designers, planners and managers of livelihoods for household survival, their roles in diversification of the means of earning a living are generally undermined through a myriad of social and cultural laws, values, norms and beliefs. Despite the publicity, attempts and efforts in redressing gender inequality in a demographic South Africa, the dissertation argues that gender inequality in rural areas has remained persistent, posing an obstacle to the capacity of households to diversify their livelihoods.

The study uses survey results from Sebayeng Village in order to demonstrate that the community's perceptions of women's roles perpetuate the status quo wherein women's capacity to diversify livelihoods are undermined. The survey involved 200 households that were sampled through the simple random design. The respondents consisted of 56.5% females and 43.5% males. The survey results demonstrate that gender inequality remains deep in Sebayeng Village and that such inequality negatively affects the ability of households to diversify their livelihoods. Therefore, this study tends to confirm the general principle that gender inequality renders women as unexplored resources in rural development. To that extent, the study concludes that one of the tests for the success in gender transformation in South Africa is in releasing the energies of women in the sphere of livelihoods diversification.

Table of Contents

Item Description	Page
Declaration	ii
Dedication	iii
Acknowledgements	iv
Abstract	v
List of Figures	xi
 CHAPTER1: BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY	
1.1. Introduction and Background	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem	2
1.3. Research Questions	4
1.4. Aim and Objectives	4
1.5. Definition of Terms	5
1.5.1. Gender	5
1.5.2. Gender Inequality	5
1.5.3. Gender Equality	6
1.5.4. Livelihoods	6
1.5.5. Livelihoods Diversification	7
1.6. Research Design and Methodology	7
1.6.1. Research Design	7
1.6.2. Kinds of Data	8
1.6.3. Target Population	9
1.6.4. Sampling Design	9
1.6.5. Data Collection and Analysis Procedures	10
1.7. Structure of the Proposed Dissertation	12
1.8. Significance of the Study	13
1.9. Ethical Considerations	14
1.10. Conclusion	15

CHAPTER 2: GENDER INEQUALITY AND RURAL LIVELIHOODS DIVERSIFICATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES.

2.1. Introduction	16
2.2. Gender Inequality and Rural Household Livelihoods Diversification	17
2.2.1. Gender Inequality and Household Resources Management	21
2.2.2. Gender Inequality and Allocation of Resources in the Households	23
2.2.3. Triple Role of Women	27
2.2.3.1. <i>Productive roles</i>	28
2.2.3.2. <i>Reproductive roles</i>	29
2.2.3.3. <i>Community roles</i>	29
2.3. The Nature and Level of Gender Inequality	30
2.3.1. Cultural Stereotypes and Gender Inequality	32
2.3.2. Gender Inequality and Apartheid	34
2.4. Conclusion	35

CHAPTER 3: THE IMPORTANCE OF RURAL HOUSEHOLD LIVELIHOODS DIVERSIFICATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES.

3.1. Introduction	37
3.2. Types of Rural Household Livelihoods	37
3.2.1. Farming Activities	38
3.2.2. Off-Farm Activities	39
3.2.3. Non- Farming Activities	40
3.2.4. Source of Income Related to Remittances, Welfare and Social Grants	41
3.2.5. Non Income Related Activities	41
3.3. Characteristics of Rural Household Livelihoods	41
3.4. Rural Household Livelihoods Diversification	43
3.5. The Significance of Rural Livelihood Diversification	45
3.5.1. Why Do Rural People Diversify?	46
3.5.2. How Do Rural People Diversify?	49
3.5.2.1. <i>The intensification of existing strategies</i>	49
3.5.2.2. <i>The development of new or diversified strategies</i>	50

3.5.3. Impacts of Livelihoods Diversification on Rural Households in Developing Countries	51
3.5.4. Reducing Poverty, and Addressing Food Security Through Livelihoods Diversification	52
3.6. Conclusion	53
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	
4.1. Introduction	55
4.2. Research Design	55
4.3 Kinds of Data	56
4.4. Target Population	56
4.5. Sampling Design	57
4.6. Data Collection and Analysis Procedures	58
4.6.1. Documentations	58
4.6.2. Field Observations and Questionnaires	59
4.6.3. Interviews	59
4.7. Conclusion	60
CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA	
5.1. Introduction	61
5.2. The Traditional and Cultural Practices in Sebayeng Village	62
5.3. Presentation of the Results	63
5.4. Research Findings	64
5.4.1 The Gender of the Respondents	65
5.4.2. The Nature and the Level of Gender Inequality in Sebayeng Village	67
5.4.2.1. <i>Culture and tradition encourages the level of gender inequality in the society and households</i>	68
5.4.3. The Responsibility for Productive Roles such as Paid Work and Self-Employment in the Households	71
5.4.4. The Responsibility for Domestic Duties, Child Care, and Care of the	

Elderly and the Sick in the Households	73
5.4.5. Access to Livelihoods Assets	76
5.4.5.1. <i>Accessibility to human assets in Sebayeng Village</i>	76
5.4.5.1.1. Men and women's access to human assets	78
5.4.5.2. <i>Accessibility to physical assets in Sebayeng Village</i>	79
5.4.5.3. <i>Accessibility to financial assets in Sebayeng Village</i>	81
5.5. The Types of Livelihoods Activities Practiced in Sebayeng Village	82
5.5.1. Farming Activities	83
5.5.2. Off-Farm Activities	84
5.5.3. Non-Farming Activities	85
5.6. The Effects of Gender Inequality on Rural Household Livelihoods Diversification in Sebayeng Village	87
5.6.1. Unfair and Unequal Distribution and Allocation of Resources	87
5.6.2. Poor Livelihoods Sustainability	90
5.6.3. Poor Women Empowerment	92
5.6.4. Lack of Women's Active Participation in Decision Making	94
5.7. Conclusion	96
CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS	
6.1. Introduction	98
6.2. Summary of the Research	98
6.3. Recommendations	101
6.3.1. Fair and Equal Distribution and Allocation of Resources	101
6.3.2. Proper Household Resource Management	101
6.3.3. Women's Active Participation in Economic Realm and Women Empowerment	102
6.3.4. Government's Interventions and Gender Equality Awareness Campaigns	103
6.3.5. Future research	104
6.4. Conclusion	105

REFERENCES	107
Appendix A: Household Survey Questionnaire in Sebayeng Village	115
Appendix B: Interview Schedule for the Key Informant in Sebayeng Village	124

List of Figures

Item Description	Pages
Figure 5.1: Gender of the Respondents	66
Figure 5.2: Culture and Tradition Encourages the Level of Gender Inequality in the Society and Households	69
Figure 5.3: The Responsibility for Productive Roles Such as Paid Work and Self-Employment in the Households	72
Figure 5.4: The Responsibility for Domestic Duties, Such as Cooking, Child Care, Care of the Elderly and the Sick	74
Figure 5.5: Access to Human Assets Such as Education, Skills, Knowledge and Capacity	77
Figure 5.6: Men and Women’s Access to Human Assets	78
Figure 5.7: Access to Physical Assets Such as Land	80
Figure 5.8: Access to Financial Assets Such as Income	81
Figure 5.9: Farming Activities as a Main Livelihoods Activity Practiced in Sebayeng Households	83
Figure 5.10: Off-Farm Activities as a main Livelihoods Activity Practiced in Sebayeng Households	85
Figure 5.11: Non-Farming Activities as a Main Livelihoods Activity Practiced in Sebayeng Households	86
Figure 5.12: Unfair and Unequal Distribution and Allocation of Resources is an Effect of Gender Inequality on Rural Household Livelihoods Diversification in Sebayeng Village	88
Figure 5.13: Poor Livelihoods Sustainability is an Effect of Gender Inequality on Rural Household Livelihoods Diversification in Sebayeng Village	91
Figure 5.14: Poor Women Empowerment is an Effect of Gender Inequality on Rural Household Livelihoods Diversification in Sebayeng Village	93
Figure 5.15: Lack of Women’s Active Participation and Decision Making on Livelihoods Activities	95

CHAPTER1: BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction and Background

A greater understanding of what it means to be a woman in rural societies can be offered by exploring the social construction of gender and the articulation of feminine identities (Midgley, 2006). The social constructions in question are basically cultural and traditional norms and beliefs that are expressed in rural societies and households, whereby women and men are assigned different roles and responsibilities. Those particular roles and responsibilities bring to mind the manner in which tradition treats women and men. Generally speaking, societies view men and women differently (Wombeogo, 2007). Normally, women are excluded and limited to participate in decision making, economic activities and livelihoods diversification both in their households and their communities. These lead to women being unable to diversify their livelihoods. Lack of access to resources coupled with gender suppressive tendencies as a result of tradition could lead to high levels of poverty among women (Wombeogo, 2007).

However, in recent years there has been an increase in women participation in household livelihoods diversification. Men and women face unequal opportunities and access to productive resources, and unequal sharing of family responsibilities. Consequently, women's presence within rural household livelihoods diversification is portrayed differently in comparison to men in terms of associations with feminine characteristics and domestic responsibilities (Midgley, 2006). Despite all these challenges, women's participation and contribution in rural household livelihoods diversification has been recognised. For example, in most rural African countries women play a major role in agriculture; they are regarded as the heart of household livelihoods diversification. They undertake the "planting, harvesting, processing and storage of agricultural products, while men carry out the clearing of the land and

weeding” (Wombeogo, 2007, p39). Additionally, women have been associated with food crops and men with cash crops (Ellis, 1998). Similarly, women grow the staple food crops for family subsistence while men grow food for sale (Ellis, 1998). It is therefore hypothesised that women bear a greater burden in this regard.

In South Africa, livelihoods diversification are important characteristics of poor rural households (D’Hease and Kirsten, 2006). The majority of rural poor rely on livelihoods diversification to derive food and income; and, most of them utilise natural resources through agriculture, hunting, and fishing. Remittances from migrant workers, social grants, and small scale enterprises add to the contribution of livelihoods diversification in people’s lives (D’ Hease and Kirsten, 2006). In actual fact, livelihoods diversification appears to be a strategy out of poverty (Ellis, 2000).

The proposed study will adopt a view that the nature and level of gender inequality within household livelihoods diversification is based on traditional and cultural norms and beliefs of the people (Neuman, 1991; Palgi, 1994). It is in this context that the study will investigate the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng village. The nature and the level of gender inequality and the types of livelihoods that are practiced in rural areas will also be taken into consideration.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The South African society is dominated by women who are participating in triple role, namely, reproductive work which is associated with child bearing, productive work which refers to income earning and community work which is voluntary work undertaken at a local community level (D’ Hease and Kirsten, 2006). Women, unlike men, are severely burdened with simultaneously balancing these roles. Despite all these efforts only productive work is recognised as work. Reproductive and community work are both mostly viewed as natural work that women are supposed to do; hence they are undervalued (D’ Hease and Kirsten, 2006). Despite their contribution in triple role,

women remain overlooked and undermined; and, they have been left behind in the development process and are still subordinates to men (Papanek, 1990). Women have always been viewed as domestic providers for their families, supplying them with food and water; and agriculturally, they have always been viewed as major sources of labour, they are expected to undertake planting, harvesting and storage of agricultural products (Wombeogo, 2007). This indicates that women are overburdened while they still have to do their domestic work (Kunfaa, Dogbe, Mackay and Marshall, 2001).

A generally accepted observation holds that the level of gender disparities between men and women in the household and at a community level remains high despite the attempts to attain gender equality (Kabeer, 1994). Additionally, the perception of gender inequality among men and women suggests that women are likely to be disproportionately represented in the societies (Kabeer, 1994; Wombeogo, 2007). Deepening disparities across genders could lead to lack of access to resources which could consequently lead to women's poor participation and contribution in the household livelihoods diversification.

Traditional norms provide frameworks according to which people and household members act and react to their daily lives (Neuman, 1991; Palgi, 1994). While it might not necessarily be true that culture and tradition are a stumbling block for development (Swanepoel and de Beer, 2006), it could be hypothesised that gender inequality has a negative impact on women's ability to mobilise household resources in order to attain livelihoods diversification and to participate in the economic realm of the country. This hypothesised linkage will be tested through a case study in Sebayeng village. This particular village like many other villages in Limpopo Province is rural and deeply traditional with the majority of people holding onto cultural values and constructions of lives that are gendered. Sebayeng village is situated 30km outside the city of Polokwane. Gender inequality is prevalent in Sebayeng, and the strategies to resuscitate the subsistence local economy are completely dependent on the rural household livelihoods diversification. In a nutshell, these are the factors that demonstrate that gender inequality is a hindering factor in the pursuit of household

livelihoods diversification. And, this situation has continued to prevail because women are still suffering from lack of opportunities, access to resources, security and a voice in decision making processes, eventually affecting their ability to diversify their household livelihoods. It is in this context that the purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification.

1.3. Research Questions

The main research question for the study is how does gender inequality affect rural household livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng village, Limpopo Province? To operationalise the main research question, a set of four sub questions are formulated as follows:

- What are the types of household livelihoods practiced in Sebayeng village, Limpopo Province?
- What is the nature and the level of gender inequality in Sebayeng village, Limpopo Province?
- What is livelihoods diversification?
- What are the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification?

1.4. Aim and Objectives

The aim of the study is to investigate the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng village, Limpopo Province. The study seeks to achieve the following objectives:

- To identify the types of household livelihoods practiced in Sebayeng village, Limpopo Province.
- To investigate the nature and level of gender inequality in Sebayeng village, Limpopo Province.
- To study livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng village, Limpopo Province.

- To study the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng village, Limpopo Province.
- To recommend measures for redressing gender inequality and potentially improving the chances for livelihoods diversification in rural areas.

1.5. Definition of Terms

The study seeks to describe the following terms in order for the readers to have a clear and meaningful picture about the issues around gender inequality and rural household livelihoods diversification: gender, gender inequality, gender equality, livelihoods, and livelihoods diversification.

1.5.1. Gender

The concept is defined as the social differences and relations between men and women. These social differences vary widely among societies and cultures and changes overtime (International Labour Organisation, 2000). D'Hease and Kirsten (2006) defines gender as the socially constructed power relations between men and women characterised by a set of arrangements of culturally variable attributes and roles that men and women play in their daily lives. Gender refers to the qualitative and interdependent character of women and men's positions in society (Wombeogo, 2007). According to South Africa's national policy framework for women's empowerment and gender equality, gender is referred to as the social roles allocated respectively to women and men in particular societies and particular times such roles and the difference between them are conditioned by a variety of political, economical, ideological and cultural factors and are characterised by an unequal power relations. The study will adopt the South African national policy framework for women's empowerment and gender equality.

1.5.2. Gender Inequality

According to Sen (1990), the concept of gender inequality refers to the social constructions that result in women not having the same rights, opportunities, or privileges as men. Cleaver (1998) defines the concept as the obvious or hidden disparities between individuals. The study will therefore adopt Sen (1990)'s definition which refers to the concept of gender inequality as the social constructs that results in women not having the same rights, opportunities or privileges as men.

1.5.3. Gender Equality

This concept is defined as the equality between men and women (Cleaver, 1998). According to South Africa's national policy framework for women's empowerment and gender equality, the concept is defined as a situation whereby women and men have equal conditions for realizing their full human rights and potential, when they are able to contribute equally to national politics, economic, social and cultural development, and benefit equally from the results. The framework continues by highlighting that the concept takes into account women's existing subordinate positions. Within social relations and aims at restructuring of society so as to eradicate male domination. Wombeogo (2007) says that gender equality is when all human beings, both men and women are free to develop their personal abilities and make choices without the limitations set by stereotypes, rigid gender roles and prejudices. Gender equality means that different behaviours, aspirations and needs for women and men are considered, valued and favoured equally but it does not mean that women and men have to become the same but that their rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female (International Labour Organisation, 2000). The study will adopt the definition from the South Africa's national policy framework for women's empowerment and gender equality.

1.5.4. Livelihoods

Department For International Department (1999) defines the concepts as a combination of the resources used and activities undertaken in order to earn a living, these particular

resources might consist of individual skills and abilities, land savings and equipments. According to Mudege and Ezeh (2009) livelihoods are a dynamic realm that integrates both the opportunities and assets available to a group of people for achieving their goals and aspirations as well as interactions with and exposure to a range of beneficial or harmful ecological, social, economical, and political perturbations that may help or hinder a group's capacity to make a living. Chambers and Conway (1992) say livelihoods comprises the capabilities, assets including material and social resources and activities required for a means of living. The study will adopt the definition from DFID (1999).

1.5.5. Livelihoods Diversification

The concept is defined as the process by which rural families construct a diverse portfolio of activities and social supports capabilities in order to survive and to improve their standard of living (Scoones, 1998). Ellis (1998) referred to livelihoods diversification as a survival strategy of rural households in developing countries. Ellis (2000) continued by saying that livelihoods diversification are a pervasive enduring characteristics of rural survival, reflecting the continuing vulnerability of rural livelihood. The study will therefore adopt the definition of livelihoods diversification from Scoones (1998).

1.6. Research Design and Methodology

1.6.1. Research Design

The study will adopt a combination of both the qualitative and quantitative research approaches. Qualitative research approach is the approach in which the procedures are not strictly formalised, while the scope is more likely to be undefined (De Vos, 1998). Additionally, Leedy (1997) defines qualitative approach as an approach that deals with data that are principally verbal. Quantitative approach is the approach used in the social sciences research that is more highly formalised as well as explicitly controlled with a

range that is more exactly defined, and which in terms of the methods used is relatively close to the physical sciences (De Vos, 1998). Leedy (1997) says that quantitative approach deals with data that are principally numerical.

The utilisation of both approaches is important because the issues around gender inequality and household livelihoods diversification involve more than just the measurable and observable factors. It also involves the feelings of the people about the nature and level of gender inequality. The qualitative approach will be used to describe the types of livelihoods that are practiced in rural areas, and the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification. The description will involve the conditions of household livelihoods diversification, livelihoods activities, and strategies within the households. Whereas the conditions of the household's livelihoods diversification, livelihoods activities and strategies can be observed and measured, the feelings of the people about these conditions will be qualitatively described. Quantitative methods will be used for measuring and analyzing the demographic profile of men and women as well as their inequalities in access to a variety of household assets, livelihoods, and capacity for diversification.

1.6.2. Kinds of Data

The study requires data on both men and women about the nature and the level of gender inequality and its effects on rural household livelihoods diversification, the types of livelihoods that they practice, the biographical profile of men and women engaged in livelihoods, men and women's perceptions and views towards the issues around gender inequality, and the measures for redressing gender inequality and improving household's capacity for livelihoods diversification. Also information from the government's intervention measures will be collected.

1.6.3. Target Population

The study's target population consists of all the households and the key informant within the Sebayeng Village. This village is about 30 km outside the city of Polokwane. Sebayeng is one of the sub-villages located in Ga-Dikgale village; this particular area falls under Kgoshi S.M Dikgale's jurisdiction. Sebayeng village has an estimated number of 2000 households. Additionally, Sebayeng village is selected for the proposed study because it is a typical South African rural village wherein communities have continued to uphold and firmly live by their traditional and customary laws. Also, households therein continue to struggle to survive on a multiplicity of unviable livelihoods. As a result, it provides one of the most useful cases to investigate the issues of gender inequality and household livelihoods diversification.

The primary unit of analysis will be the households, and the key informant will be the Ward Councilor. The households will be surveyed through the questionnaire so as to provide the study with clear and meaningful information about the nature and the level of gender inequality and its effects on rural household livelihoods diversification. The key informant will respond to the interviews in order to provide the study with clear and meaningful information with regard to the nature and the level of gender inequality and its effects on rural household's livelihoods diversification at a community level. Basically, the study will attempt to synthesize perspectives from the individual households with those of the key informant.

1.6.4. Sampling Design

The study applies sampling at three levels: selection of the village, individual households within the village, and key informant. The village has been selected using purposive sampling for reasons explained in the preceding subsection. The study will adopt a probability sampling design for households within the village; and, this design

involves a situation whereby each person in the population has the same known probability of being selected (Seaberg, 1988). The major reason for using the probability sampling is that the researcher seeks to generalise the results of the sample to the rest of the population. Specifically, a simple random sampling method will be adopted for the selection of the households into a sample. This type of probability sampling is advantageous because it allows equal probability for each household to be selected into the sample; and, the results of the survey can be generalized to the rest of the village. As stated in the previous subsection, Sebayeng Village has an estimated number of 2000 households, and these will be arranged into a sampling frame using the official municipality stand reference numbers. From that sampling frame, the random numbers table will be used to select 10% of the households. Therefore, the plan of the study is to sample 200 households. Finally, the study will also utilise a non-probability sampling design, in particular a purposive sampling method to identify the key informant in the community. The key informant is the Councilor of the village. The key informant possesses crucial information about the dynamics of tradition, custom, gender and households within the village.

1.6.5. Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

Data will be collected using secondary sources from appropriate and relevant written documents such as policies, government gazettes and any published document. The primary data from the households and key informant will be used. The study will compile its conceptual framework by digesting and synthesising contributions from the system of ideas that involves the general assumptions about the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification. Such debates are primarily documented in books and journal articles. As a result, these sources will be reviewed with the purpose of identifying and analysing the system of knowledge relevant to the study. The analysis will involve disciplined reading, remembering, understanding, digesting and synthesising ideas in ways that provide a theoretical response to the primary research questions formulated in the study.

The study will involve field observations and compilations of field notes and reports. Those observations will attempt to assess the conditions of household livelihoods diversification and livelihoods activities and strategies within the households. This case study will basically involve the completion of questionnaire. In situations whereby respondents are unable to understand the language used in the questionnaire the enumerators will assist them. The enumerators will be trained in order for them to be able to respect people's values, beliefs, and emotions. Generally, the questionnaire will try to solicit information on the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification. Additionally, the particular types of rural household livelihoods, the nature and level of gender inequality and the measures that could be adopted to redress gender inequality and improve rural household's capacity for livelihoods diversifications. More specifically, the questionnaire will attempt to assess the information on biographical profile, nature and level of gender inequality, types of household livelihoods, and opinions of the respondents about the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification.

The interviews will be conducted with the key informant who is the Councilor in the village with the purpose of assessing the general conditions about the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification and the cultural practices in the village. The Councilor will be probed on the opinions with regard to the nature and level of gender inequality, the types of rural household livelihoods activities in Sebayeng Village.

The household data will be captured using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) in order to manipulate it and to create the summary statistics and to identify the underlying patterns. Capturing data into SPSS will involve conceptualisation of specific issues about the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification, as guided by the relevant system of knowledge. From the SPSS, frequency tables, graphs, and descriptive summary statistics such as the gender of the respondents together with the biographical profile of men and women engaged in

livelihoods will be generated and interpreted in accordance with the research focus of the study.

1.7. Structure of the Proposed Dissertation

Chapter 1: Background of the study

The introduction and background of the study will be discussed. The chapter will clarify the purpose of the study, the problem statement, the research question, aim and objectives, significance of the study, and ethical considerations.

Chapter 2: gender inequality and rural livelihoods diversification in developing countries

Conceptual framework formulated from relevant system of knowledge, will be presented in Chapter 2. In this chapter, literature of the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification will be reviewed. The literature will be reviewed from journals, books and government gazettes.

Chapter 3: The importance of rural household livelihoods diversification in developing countries

This chapter will also form part of the literature review. It will discuss the importance of rural livelihoods diversification in developing countries. Both the theoretical and conceptual frameworks are adopted in this chapter.

Chapter 4: Research design and methodology

This chapter will discuss the research methodology and design used during data collection in Sebayeng. This will be done by indicating the research approach, kinds of data, target population, data collection, and analysis methods.

Chapter 5: Research findings, analysis and interpretation of data

This chapter will discuss the survey results and findings from Sebayeng and use the various techniques discussed under research design to present the findings.

Chapter 6: Summary, recommendations and conclusions

This chapter will relate the findings of the study to the general assumption analysed in Chapter 2 and 3. On this basis, this chapter will draw conclusions and make recommendations.

1.8. Significance of the Study

The study hopes to make a significant contribution in two ways. *Firstly*, the study could potentially improve knowledge on the interconnections between gender inequality within households and the capacity of households to diversify livelihoods. The significance of such a contribution is founded on the fact that the case under investigation is rural and in South Africa where women were made to strongly correlate with rurality through apartheid policy. Although there are many studies that attempt to theorise the relationship between gender inequality and household livelihoods diversification, the study would add a South African perspective to the process of theorisation.

Secondly, the study could help alert the ordinary members of the households in the villages about gender equality as a resourceful asset. That is, households would understand that the gender equality that is rife is actually destroying their capacity to mobilise adequate resources for livelihoods diversification. In short, once ordinary villagers and members of households accept that gender inequality is disempowering for them, they could exploit gender equality to amplify the existing livelihoods or to establish a variety of new ones. The study should help members of the households to recognise that glorification of cultural and traditional customs could as well be at the expense of the households.

1.9. Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues are the concerns , dilemmas, and conflicts that arise over the proper way to conduct a research, ethics defines what is or what is not legitimate to do, or what moral research procedure involves (Neuman, 2003). Therefore, the study will be conducted based on the following ethics which need to be taken in to consideration when conducting a research because they will serve as standards which the researcher ought to evaluate his/her research.

In this study there will not be any form of harm whether physical or psychological, the researcher/enumerator will make the participants aware of any necessary briefings involving their participation in the research. It will be the duty of the researcher/enumerator to tell the participants what the study entails and that they should not be forced to participate. Description of the nature of the research will be done before the commencement of the participation in the study and it should be clear to all the participants. Every participant's privacy will be guaranteed. For example, the researcher might give each participant a code number and then label any written document with that number rather than with the person's name.

1.10. Conclusion

The study is founded on the general assumption that livelihoods diversification is a phenomenon that characterizes the survival and income strategies of individuals and household in rural areas of the developing countries. Additionally, the diversity of livelihoods is an important feature of rural survival but often overlooked by the architects of policies (Ellis, 1999, 2000). While the argument of this study suggests that gender inequality is traditionally, culturally and socially motivated and constructed, therefore those particular constructions may limit women's active participation in livelihoods diversification at a community and household level. Hence, the study seeks to investigate the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification.

In the next chapter, both the theoretical and conceptual frameworks are discussed as part of the literature review. The general overview of gender inequality and its effects on rural livelihoods diversification in developing countries are discussed. Various aspects that are discussed in the next chapter includes: gender inequality and rural household livelihoods diversification, gender inequality and household resources management, gender inequality and allocation of resources in the households, triple role of women, the nature and level of gender inequality, cultural stereotypes and gender inequality, and, gender inequality and apartheid.

CHAPTER2: GENDER INEQUALITY AND RURAL LIVELIHOODS DIVERSIFICATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES.

2.1. Introduction

Rural women's lives have been traditionally, culturally, and socially constructed as occupying social rather than economic spaces with their agency positioned within the private rather than public spheres (Midgley, 2006). Additionally, women find themselves in the domestic realm where they are expected to nurture the family while the husbands leaves the domestic sphere to the public sphere where they compete on the labour and business market and in politics (Mudege and Ezeh, 2009). Men use the opportunities of participating in the market and politics as a way of accessing resources. Unlike men, women might not have the same opportunities of participating in both market and local politics. For example, men can participate in local council politics as a preparation for longer political engagement; on the other hand, the informal sector might provide women with a range of activities that can be combined with their domestic responsibilities (Tellegens, 1997).

The relationship between gender and livelihoods is increasingly becoming a developmental problem. Additionally, gender disparities are becoming one of the primary impediments to achieving sustainable development (D' Hease and Kirsten, 2006). Women are in most cases accountable and responsible for the financial and household management and yet they struggle to get the support from their men and opportunities from the community with regard to managing the economy outside the households (Midgley, 2006). This relationship is seen to have a strong linkage to poverty, especially in rural areas (D'Hease and Kirsten, 2006). The ignorance of the importance of gender issues in livelihoods practices may lead to inappropriate policy measures and increased poverty among rural people (Wombeogo, 2007). It is in this context that this chapter discusses the following themes: the nature and the level of

gender inequality, and the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification.

2.2. Gender Inequality and Rural Household Livelihoods Diversification

The majority of rural household livelihoods are practiced by women as a strategy to survive but those particular livelihoods are not regarded as feasible (Ellis, 2000). The primary reason might be that women don't have equal resources as men do, for example they don't have access to productive resources and assets such as land, capital, credit, labour, and education (Abdulai and Crole-Rees, 2001). Lack of these resources might be hypothesised to be culturally and traditionally motivated. Additionally, women can't have access to inheritance such as land, livestock, and money, or any other important capitals but men do. Similarly, lack of access to resources might contribute to women's livelihoods to be economically unviable (Ellis, 2000; Abdulai and Crole-Rees, 2001).

Despite all these an increasing number of women are choosing to run their own businesses, using their skills and knowledge to create a job that is compatible with their household circumstances (Midgley, 2006). Additionally, rural women take up informal jobs such as petty trade or part time work such as washing people's clothes; they take up work that enables them to stay closer to their homes while still earning some income (Mudege and Ezeh, 2009). Consequently, women end up working unsociable hours in order for them to balance work and family life and commitments, they are forced to work long hours of the day in order to earn a living and still be available to look after their children (Kunfaa et al, 2001). They continue to struggle with balancing all their duties and yet their contribution and participation is not taken into consideration by their communities and societies (Neuman, 1991).

According to Kleinbooi and Lahiff (2007, p. 800) "women make a substantial contribution to the economic sphere of farming households, both indirectly through home based labour and directly through involvement in a range of farming activities,

particularly in the context of widespread out-migration by men in search of paid employment". Despite all the contributions and efforts made by women in agricultural production the work that they perform is seldom regarded as employment whereas they are keen to contribute more of their labour within family farms (Nevo, 1986). The allocation of women's roles in family farms is understood to be traditional; hence it is seldom regarded as employment (Neuman, 1991). Additionally, all their efforts are seen as part of being women and not as contributions that address local needs, deliver services and maintain a vibrant community (Countryside Agency, 2003). Women experience exploitation within their communities through cultural and traditional behaviours, such as that a woman is a subordinate to a man, that it is a taboo for a man to engage in household chores such as cooking, washing, taking care of the children, and cleaning, that a woman's duty is to respect and never to question a man's decisions, that a woman cannot go to the chief's kraal and request a resource such as land for agricultural purposes without the knowledge of the husband, so as to say a man is the one who is authorised to have access to land and agricultural practices.

Gender relationships are also important in shaping livelihoods diversification processes (D'Hease and Kirsten, 2006). Social organisation and culture can significantly influence the relative access to diverse household capital assets by constraining or promoting the ability to mobilise resources along gender lines (Ellis, 2000; Gladwin, 2001; Dolan, 2002). Gender disparities might result in a different degree of involvement in diversification activities and/or in an unequal distribution of their benefits between genders (Warren, 2002). In some cultures, migratory wage labour or off-farm enterprises are basically men's businesses which results in women bearing the responsibility for subsistence cropping that are normally consumed in a household. However, in some cultures women are able to play an autonomous role in livelihoods diversification by undertaking on their own small-scale enterprises or migrating to town or abroad (Ellis, 1999).

Participation in innovative enterprises is often advocated as an important means to promote rural women empowerment and more equitable gender relationships within the

livelihoods (D’Hease and Kirsten, 2006). Similarly, women’s roles in agriculture and their access to land and related resources have emerged as a major concern for academics, social activists, and development planners in recent years (Kleinbooi and Lahiff, 2007). As rural development continues to identify strategies to alleviate poverty among women, knowledge about the capacity and traditions for managing their household livelihoods diversification are hardly examined and understood. Therefore, the policy makers and planners need to take into account the livelihoods analysis framework, sustainable livelihoods analysis framework, and gender analysis framework (D’Hease and Kirsten, 2006).

- (i) **Livelihoods analysis framework** is a framework that identifies the people’s knowledge and strategies as a starting point for analysis, it further goes to examine the micro and macro links for supporting the livelihoods. Livelihood analysis framework incorporates several dimensions that reveal and discover the diversity and dynamics of livelihoods (D’Hease and Kirsten, 2006). The characteristics and components that are required from the households in deriving livelihoods consist of three components, namely – capabilities, tangible and intangible assets. The capability basically refers to the capacity or skills of an individual in terms of education, training and experience, tangible assets are regarded as the resources including land, water, tools, savings, and credit schemes; these include the combination of human, physical, financial, social and natural assets, intangible assets refers to claims and access, claims include all forms of social grants, all moral, material and other practical supports, access to resources refers to having the opportunities to use whatever productive resources such as information, social networks, and technology (D’Hease and Kirsten, 2006).

- (ii) **Sustainable livelihoods analysis framework** has been designed for guiding researchers and policy makers, advisors, and practitioners of rural development (D’Hease and Kirsten, 2006). The policy makers and rural

development practitioners utilise this framework in order to assess and improve rural livelihoods. This framework can be applied at a range of different scales, from individual to households, to community or village (D’Hease and Kirsten, 2006).

- (iii) **Gender Analysis Frameworks** are step-by-step tools for carrying out gender analysis, which help to raise questions, analyze information, and develop strategies to increase women's and men's participation in and benefits from projects and programmes (FAO, 2003). Gender Analysis Frameworks are concerned with: the development context or patterns in an area, answering the questions such as, *what is getting better? What is getting worse?* Women and men's activities and roles in the different sectors should answer the questions *who does what? Similarly*, women and men's access to and control over resources, should answer the questions: *Who has what? Who needs what?* The programme actions needed should answer the questions: *What should be done to close the gaps between what women, and men need? What does development deliver?* (FAO, 2003). Gender Analysis can be used in different situations such as: development of village level management plans to ensure that the contributions of both women and men are adequately recognized in determining access to and control over resources. Development or review of policies to ensure sustainability through equitable participation of all stakeholders, profiling of stakeholders to develop an understanding of who the stakeholders are beyond gender to other socially determined characteristics, restructuring of the various sectors to ensure equitable participation at all levels and in a diversity of functions by both women and men. Development of criteria for training selection or recruitment to ensure that women and men have equal opportunities to progress in their career and that there are both women and men working in diversity of capacities in the sector to work with the women and men of the other stakeholder groups (FAO, 2003).

All these above mentioned frameworks will assist the policy makers to have a clear understanding of a relationship between livelihoods and gender. The ignorance of the importance of gender issues in livelihoods practices may lead to inappropriate policy measures and increased poverty among the rural people especially women (Ellis, 1998).

2.2.1. Gender Inequality and Household Resources Management

Before engaging in this argument it is important to understand the definition and the meaning of the concept household. According to Food and Agriculture Organization (2003), a household is defined as a basic unit for socio-cultural and economic analysis. D' Hease and Kirsten (2006), emphasises co-residence. FAO (2003) and D'Hease and Kirsten (2006) collectively suggest that a household is based on the arrangements made by persons for providing themselves with food or other essentials for living, and may be one-person or multi-person. The household members may pool their incomes and have a common budget to a greater or lesser extent; they may be related or unrelated persons or a combination of both. Households may consist of extended families that make common provision for food or of potentially separate households with a common head. Households may also occupy more than one housing unit. Similarly, a household may also includes those persons who normally reside with other members of the household but are away temporarily. For example, full-time students or those engaged in seasonal migratory labour (FAO, 2003; D' Hease and Kirsten, 2006).

According to Schmeer (2005), household resource management is having access and control over economic resources that consist of the amount of an income they earn. Household resource management includes dynamics that are related to decision-making, assigning priorities, resource allocation, and access to and control over resources such as land, water, time, credit, and savings (Schmeer, 2005). For most rural households the decisions around the management of resources are taken by men; generally, men are dominant in decision making (World Bank, 2000; Kirjavainen, 2008). Women do not really have much of a say when it comes to the decision makings and

management of household resource. Basic household resources include: Human resources (labour, skills, education attainment, and knowledge), natural assets (land, water), physical resource (infrastructure and buildings, irrigational system, technology), and social resources (social networks, and information), financial resources (capital, income, and loans), and another important resource is time (Ellis, 1998, 2000; Ellis and Mdoe, 2003; D' Hease, and Kirsten, 2006).

Gender inequalities in household resource management and the extra burdens that women face because of their gender roles can limit women's ability to manage household resources. In some countries, women obtain rights to use land for household and personal crops through men. This may result in women not being able to produce viable agricultural products and strengthening their household livelihoods. Consequently, women may often lack credit and other resources to improve their livelihoods (FAO, 2003). According to FAO (2003), in Kenya, Malawi, Sierra Leone, Zambia, and Zimbabwe it has been revealed that women receive less than 10% of all credit earmarked for smallholder farmers and only 1% of the total credit to agriculture. These has negative impact on women farmers because they are unable to buy seeds, fertilisers, and, new technological equipments, they are also unable to invest in new farming strategies. These may eventually lead to them not being able to increase their productivity (FAO, 2003).

It is important for rural women to be included in the management of resources and in decision makings. They should be regarded as the users and managers of resources, especially natural resources (Adetunji and Adepoju, 2009). Women are responsible for providing foods for the households, they secure overall family welfare, and they are somehow the backbone of small-holder of agricultural production (Ellis, 1998; Adetunji and Adepoju, 2009). Additionally, management of resources by women is crucial because it is their responsibility to sustain and maintain the standard of the household (Schmeer, 2005; Adetunji and Adepoju, 2009).

There is a huge difference between the roles and responsibilities performed by men and women in the households. Gender roles are dynamic and ever changing. Roles vary according to geographic location and are the result of religious, cultural, socio-economic, and political circumstances. Gender roles are highly influenced by expectations based on class, age, ethnicity, culture, and religion. For instance, a man will be expected to play a different role in the society from that of a woman and boys and girls are taught from an early age that there are certain roles that they can and cannot play. For example, in Bangladesh, Nepal and Thailand, and many African countries it is a women duty to collect fuel wood (Schmeer, 2005; Adetunji and Adepoju, 2009).

2.2.2. Gender Inequality and Allocation of Resources in the Households

Household resources allocation refers to the processes by which resources are distributed among individual household members and the outcomes of those processes. These processes may be done in an unfair or a fair manner (Quisumbing, 2003). Many rural households need to survive by fulfilling their fundamental basic needs through the utilisation of their basic assets and resources (Quisumbing, 2003). However, in fulfilling those needs, household members may in many instances attempt to make separate decisions concerning the use of gender-specific decisions and gender-specific production functions in the pursuit of their survival strategies (Akram-Lodhi, 1997; Quisumbing, 2003).

According to Bryceson (2002), many donors are changing their approach to rural poverty alleviation to one that emphasizes: reducing vulnerability to increase resilience and improve livelihoods sustainability and livelihoods diversification, the role of a broader range of assets (natural, physical, financial, human and social) over the narrower, traditional focus on farmers' means of production (land, labour capital). The policies aim to improve the assets held by the poor households especially female headed households in order to increase their productivity. There is a need to

understand the existing households livelihoods assets in the rural areas (Bryceson, 2002). According to Scoones (1998), and Bryceson (2002) those livelihoods assets are: *Firstly*, human capital, this comprises of the skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health important to the ability to pursue different livelihood strategies. *Secondly*, social capital: the social resources, e.g. networks, membership of groups, relationships of trust, access to wider institutions of society upon which people draw in pursuit of livelihoods. *Thirdly*, physical capital: the basic infrastructure, e.g. transport, shelter, water, land, energy, communications, the production equipment and means which enable people to pursue their livelihoods. *Fourthly*, financial capital: the financial resources which are available to people whether capital, income, savings, supplies of credit or regular remittances or pensions which provide them with different livelihoods options.

(i) Human capital

Human capital comprises the skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health important to the ability to pursue different livelihood strategies. For example, education is the existence of a positive link between access to, and level of human assets, on one hand, and involvement in the more remunerative non-farm activities, on the other. Ellis (1998) highlights that breaking down the non-farm sector between casual non-agricultural wage employment and regular, salaried employment typically reveals that the probability of employment in the latter sector rises as education levels rise. The opposite is often observed for employment in the casual non-agricultural wage sector.

(ii) Social Capital

Social capital comprises the social resources (e.g., networks, membership of groups, relationships of trust, and access to wider institutions of society) upon which people draw in pursuit of livelihoods. There is ample evidence of the influence of social capital on access to different types of employment, and an increasing amount of empirical research that supports this also. Reardon (1997) observes that: other characteristics [aside from education], such as race, gender or caste, also play an important role in determining the probability of employment. Gender like age, is a dimension of human

capital, but its effects are mediated through social institutions – hence its discussion here under social capital. There is general consensus in the literature that gender is a significant factor determining access to social assets opportunities. Ellis (1998) indicated that the majority of the poor in sub-Saharan Africa are women. They have, therefore, greater need than most for the income that can be secured through involvement in the non-farm sector. Women have long been constrained in the activities in which they are permitted or able to participate, by tradition, religion, or other social mores. Both Ellis (1998) and Reardon (1997) point out that the activities in which women are involved are more circumscribed than those for men. As far as non-farm income is concerned, women participate to a greater degree in wholesale or retail trade or in manufacturing, than in other sectors.

(iii)Physical capital

These includes hard infrastructure (e.g., roads, telecommunications, power and water, land), as well as production equipment and buildings that are more likely to be individually owned. There is a consensus in the literature on the critical role of infrastructure in the livelihoods diversification (Scoones, 1998), and Bryceson, 2002). Additionally, Reardon (1997) find that the availability of low entry barrier in to sustaining the household livelihoods is that labour intensive jobs tends to be associated with gender, caste and class (which lower the per capita costs of providing infrastructure), dynamic agriculture, unequal landholdings, and the development of rural towns outside metropolitan areas. Roads are the most important asset in sustaining the livelihoods of the households (Ellis, 1998; Reardon, 1997). Ellis (1998) observes that, in Africa, poverty can be largely explained in terms of location, and lack of access to physical capital such as land, water, and roads. Due to lack of roads, the majority of African women farmers currently ‘head-load’ their products to local markets. However, improvements in transportation can also usher in increased competition for rural enterprises, formerly protected by their remoteness. Ellis (1998) points out that infrastructure improvements not only increase the supply of competing products, they can also contribute to a change in rural needs, priorities, and preferences. Reardon (1997) comments that the distributional impact of physical capital (i.e., land and roads)

improvements is uncertain due to poor distribution and allocation of resources which is informed by gender inequality in most cases.

(iii) Financial Capital

The financial resources which are unavailable to the rural women are capital, income, savings, supplies of credit or regular remittances and pensions which provide them with different livelihoods options. This is one of the principal problems for poor rural households and individuals wishing to start a business and diversifying their livelihoods, whether in the farm or non-farm sector (Ellis, 1998; Reardon, 1997). Without start-up funds, or with only little cash available for investment, households are limited to a small number of activities which yield poor returns, partly because of the proliferation of similar low entry barrier enterprise. In the same way, women and poor households with little or no personal savings may find themselves unable to meet their needs.

Studies by Quisumbing and Haddad (1998); and Deere, Duran, Mardon, and Masterson (2004) have shown that in most African countries, the control and allocation of resources and assets such as education, labour, capital, technology, land, and fertilisers lie in the hands of men. Women have access to these resources and make use of them, but the control and ownership remain in the hands of their men. For example, women in Arab Republic of Syria have limited control over agricultural resources; therefore they are usually responsible for caring for livestock and poultry (ILO, 2000). Women's farm work in Syria usually includes planting, seeding, weeding, harvesting, fruit collection, crop residue collection and pruning, animal feeding, milking, and egg collection. However, Syrian women have little role in marketing and sale of the products. In 91 % of households, this is a male task. Rural women in Syria also tend to have little decision-making power within the household regarding the disposal of family income. According to ILO (2000), limited control over agricultural resources is a barrier to access to credit, equipment and resources, and sustainable livelihoods diversification. Male control of marketing further reinforces women's lack of control over income (Quisumbing and Haddad, 1998; ILO, 2000; Deere, Duran, Mardon, and, Masterson, 2004). Additionally, there is high degree of inequality in terms of resources

allocation and power in the decision making process. These inequalities may be revealed by conflicts and consensus within the household (Akram-Lodhi, 2005).

2.2.3. Triple Role of Women

According to Moser (1993), the concept of the triple role is not an arbitrary categorisation, it derives from the predominantly feminist debates in the extensive literature on gender relations from both the First and Third World countries. This provides the knowledge base for the new tradition of gender planning (Moser, 1993). Additionally, the typecasting of the roles of women as 'home and domestic makers' is firmly continuing (Moser, 1993). In most developing countries, women have triple role. The triple role is divided into reproductive work, productive work and community managing work (Moser, 1993, and D'Hease and Kirsten, 2006). Reproductive work includes roles such as child bearing, child rearing, and caring for the sick, and the elderly. Productive work is often regarded as secondary income earnings. This is usually in the form of agricultural work in rural areas, and in urban areas is in the form of sectoral enterprises. Women also undertake community managing work, which revolves around the provision of items of collective consumptions undertaken in the local community (Moser, 1993).

In developing societies, there are stereotyped roles of men as breadwinners, that is the male as a productive worker is predominant, even when it is not borne out in reality (Moser, 1993). Additionally, men perceive themselves as primary income earners even if they are unemployed or earning less income in comparison to women. Generally, men do not have a clearly defined reproductive role, the only role they understand as male species is that of a productive role (Moser, 1993). Men also undertake community role but in different ways from women, reflecting a further gender division of labour (Moser, 1993; D'Hease and Kirsten, 2006). While women have a community managing role based on the provision of items of collective consumption, men have a community leadership role to play (Moser, 1993). Men normally organise the formal political gathering. This occurs generally within the framework of politics (Moser, 1993).

Additionally, it is universally agreed that the central problem remains in the concept of power and its opposite, oppression, articulated gender relations in terms of the subordination of women to men. Furthermore, “it is the gender divisions of labour that are identified above all, as embodying and perpetuating female subordination” (Barrett and Reardon, 2000, and Moser, 1993, p.28). This operation is termed the gender division of labour. The fact that some tasks are allocated predominantly and exclusively to women, and others to men, is persistent in human society. Divisions of roles at any point in time vary from country to country and from one society to another (Moser, 1993). It is in this context that this subsection will examine and address the different roles of men and women; the gender division of labour provides an underlying principle for separating out and differentiating men and women’s work in the societies. The following are the triple roles that are played by women:

2.2.3.1. Productive roles refer to work carried out by women for payment in cash or kind. Productive role unlike other two roles is considered as the ‘real’ work (D’Hease and Kirsten, 2006). The role guarantees an extra income for the household. In rural areas, this role includes working at the nearby farms, as domestic workers in nearby towns and cities, and as self-employed (D’Hease and Kirsten, 2006). The economic or productive role of women especially in an agricultural sector is characterized by their participation in two separate yet possibly overlapping areas: (a) as laborers in farm related operations of other landowners, commercial plantations, and agribusiness corporations, and (b) as farmers or family workers in owned, spouse- or family-owned, and/or leased farms. Briones (2002) reported that women agricultural wage earners often land in low-paying, casual, piece-meal jobs. On the other hand, Briones (2002) found that in some parts of Asia where women occupy the most subordinate roles, they are the lowest paid workers assigned to the most strenuous or hazardous tasks like mixing and applying pesticides. Engaged as hired labor in farming systems, Asian rural women including those in the Philippines generally figure prominently in transplanting, weeding, harvesting, threshing, and manual paddy processing but the males outnumber them in ploughing and non-manual or mechanized work (Swaminathan, 1998).

2.2.3.2. *Reproductive roles* involve childbearing, childrearing responsibilities and domestic tasks, some of which are biologically determined (i.e., only women can breastfeed) while others are gender-related (e.g., in some households, women do most of the cooking). This role required to guarantee the maintenance and reproduction of the labour force. It includes not only the biological reproduction but also the care and maintenance of the workforce (husband and working children) and future workforce such as infants and school going children (Moser, 1993; and D'Hease and Kirsten, 2006). This role is naturally considered women's work; mainly because women bear children and this connects them naturally to the reproduction of all human life. They also extend it to the nurturing and caring not only children but also adults, if they are sick and aged, through the daily provision of a range of domestic services (Moser, 1993; D'Hease and Kirsten, 2006). Generally, a crucial issue relating to women's reproduction work concerns the extent to which it is visible and valued. Despite its actual character, it is not seen as a 'real work'. Domestic labour has a clear demarcation between work and leisure. Caring for young children is without the beginning and the end. Because reproduction work is not considered 'real work', women tend to work long hours than men. They are the first to get up and the last to sleep at night (Moser, 1993).

2.2.3.3. *Community roles (Community managing and Community politics work)* are those activities that contribute to the welfare and organization of the community, such as maintenance of common areas (D'Hease and Kirsten, 2006). Similarly, this role comprises activities undertaken primarily by women at the community level, as an extension of their reproductive role (Moser, 1993). This is to ensure provision and maintenance of scarce resources of collective consumption, such as water, health facilities and education. It is a voluntary unpaid work undertaken in 'free time' (Moser, 1993). The community politics role is in contrast as it comprises activities undertaken by men at the community level and organizing at the formal political level. It is usually paid work, either directly or indirectly, through wages or increase in power and status (Moser, 1993; and D'Hease and Kirsten, 2006).

Like reproductive work, community managing work is seen as 'naturally women's work'. Community managing is defined as 'the work undertaken at the community level, around the allocation, provisioning, and managing of collective consumption' (Moser, 1993, p. 28). Women in their acceptance of the gender division of labour, see the house as their sphere of dominance and take primary responsibility for the provision of consumption needs within the family. These needs include the needs of a collective nature at the neighbourhood and community level. Additionally, mobilisation and organisation at the community level is a natural extension of women's domestic work (Moser, 1993). Generally, women are naturally associated with the private sphere and men with the public sphere (Moser, 1993).

2.3 The Nature and Level of Gender Inequality

Women's economic participation, efforts and contributions in rural community development is undermined (Adar, 1996; Midgley, 2006). For example, women are always the subordinates of men; they hold lower positions in firms and companies. They are allowed to hold secretarial positions and other lower positions whereas men hold higher positions. Women are also restricted from making decisions about issues that are affecting their lives (Midgley, 2006). Additionally, women are paid lower wages as compared to men even if the job is of the same level (Midgley, 2006; Mudege and Ezech, 2009). One of the primary reasons could be that women have been firmly rooted to the domestic realm and family life due to social and traditional constructions of their lives such as wifehood and motherhood (Midgley, 2006). Traditional, cultural, and social constructions such as that a woman is a subordinate to a man could form part of a wider gender based differentials within the society. For instance, women in Namaqualand South Africa face numerous challenges such as access to land, social exclusion from traditionally male activities like commonage committee meetings and difficulty in accessing commercial loans (Kleinbooi and Lahiff, 2007). This forms part of evidence that there is a huge distinction between men and women in societies. According to Kleinbooi and Lahiff (2007, p. 801) in most rural areas of the developing countries

“women’s access to land is often dependent upon their relationships to men and their marital status. While most women-as-wives had and still have access to some land, unmarried women who are prevented from inheriting property in most patrilineal societies, have little access to land. They must depend upon their fathers or brothers to provide them with land or seek wage elsewhere”.

While it might not necessarily be true that culture and tradition are a stumbling block for development (Swanepoel and de Beer, 2006), it appears that gender inequality has a negative impact on women and their ability to participate in the attainment of livelihoods diversification. Therefore, there’s a need for a gendered perspective in order to reveal the hidden nature of rural women’s lives “in a world where women have less status, power, authority and access to resources than men of their race and class in the homes or households, in the economy, and in relation to state” (Meer, 1997, p.2). A strong attention should therefore be focused on disaggregating the rural and poor households and understand the position of women within different types of rural households (Kleinbooi and Lahiff, 2007). Women are entitled to equal access to resources such as land as much as men; they are entitled to have an increased welfare, equality and women empowerment, and challenge male dominations (Argwal, 1999).

Adar (1996) and Palgi (1994) have documented that despite all the myths of equal societies in rural areas, women are only assigned roles that are mostly associated with domestic duties. For example, women are usually responsible for cooking, cleaning, washing, fetching water and fire wood, and, taking care of the sick and the elderly. Therefore, there is the emergence of the public and private sphere division where men are supposed to work in formal employment and women take care of the affairs in the household or engage themselves in the informal employment (Mudege and Ezeh, 2009). The distinction between the public and private spheres has served to confine women to typically female spheres and private spheres of activities such as housework reproduction, nurturance and care for the young, elderly, and sick (Mudege and Ezeh, 2009). Additionally, women are allowed to act as mothers and wives (Bryant and Pini, 2009). Similarly, men and women have access to different assets, resources and

opportunities, for instance women rarely own land. Women may have a lower education in comparison to men, and their access to productive resources as well as decision making tend to occur through the mediation of men (Ellis, 1999). While the specific nature of gender relations varies among societies, the general pattern is that women have less personal autonomy, fewer resources at their disposal, and limited influence over the decision-making processes that shape their societies and their own lives. This pattern of disparity based on gender is both a human rights and a development issue (Ellis, 1999).

2.3.1 Cultural Stereotypes and Gender Inequality

According to Chant (1994), culture is defined as the beliefs and practices of another society, particularly where these are seen as closely linked with tradition or religion. Culture is part of the fabric of every society, including our own. It shapes “the way things are done” and our understanding of why this should be so. At the World Conference on Cultural Policies (Chant, 1994), culture was defined as the whole complex of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual, and emotional features that characterise a society or a social group. It includes not only arts and letters, but also modes of life, the fundamental rights of the human being, value systems, traditions, and beliefs.

There is a huge relationship between gender and culture because there are expectations about attributes and behaviours appropriate to women or men and about the relations between women and men – in other words, gender is shaped by culture (Chant, 1994). Gender identities and gender relations are critical aspects of culture because they shape the way daily life is lived in the family and also in the wider community and the workplace (Wood, 2008). According to Wood (2008), cultural stereotypes are engrained in both men and women, these stereotypes are a possible explanation for gender inequality and the resulting gendered wage disparity.

Gender functions have designated different roles between men and women in many different societies mainly because of the cultural meanings given to being male or female (Chant, 1994). This is evident in the division of labour with regard to gender. In most societies, there are clear patterns of “women’s work” and “men’s work,” both in the household and in the wider community – and cultural explanations of why this should be so. The patterns and the explanations differ among societies and change over time. For example, women have traditionally been viewed as being caring and nurturing and are designated to occupations which require such skills. While these skills are culturally valued, they were typically associated with domesticity, so occupations requiring these same skills are not economically valued (Wood, 2008). Men have traditionally been viewed as the breadwinners or the workers. Additionally, jobs held by men have been historically economically valued and occupations predominated by men continue to be economically valued and pay higher wages (Wood, 2008; Friedman and Marshall; 2004).

There are cultural and traditional stereotyped perceptions among women in rural societies. For example, it is a traditional norm that *“a woman should consult the husband before making any decision about anything, that it is a taboo for a husband or a man to engage in household chores such as cooking, washing, taking care of the children, and cleaning, that a woman’s duty is to respect and never to question her husband’s decisions, that a woman cannot go to the chief’s kraal and request resources such as a land for agricultural purpose or any purpose for that matter without the consent and knowledge of the husband, so as to say a man is the one who is authorised to have access to land and agricultural practices, unless the woman is a widow or unmarried such resources cannot be distributed favourable to a woman”*. It is these traditional norms that provide the framework according to which people and household members act and react to their daily life, and to which assets should be distributed in a woman’s favour, and how to distribute those particular resources. While it might not necessarily be true that the culture and tradition are a stumbling block for development (Swanepoel and de Beer, 2006, p.12), it is hypothesised that gender

inequality embodied in the cultural and traditional norms could impact negatively on women.

There has been little research carried out on gender distribution in cultural societies, even though the existing gender inequality is rooted in the cultural and social practices of the people. Cultural predictions and stereotypes continue to reproduce the existing gender discrimination in society (Friedman and Marshall, 2004; Jerry and Gerson, 2004; Wood, 2008). There is a notion that suggests that gender equality and women rights are Western feminist ideologies and that it does not have a place in an African social life (Friedman and Marshall, 2004; Jerry and Gerson, 2004; and Wood, 2008). This paradigm is responsible for a high level of gender inequality in most African countries. Most African cultures find it hard to understand and accept that women rights should be recognised as human rights (Friedman and Marshall, 2004; Jerry and Gerson, 2004; Wood, 2008). Additionally, despite all the interventions made by the researchers, policy makers, development practitioners, NGO's, and government, there are still attitudes, beliefs, myths, traditional, and cultural practices that inhibit the freedom of women (Jerry and Gerson, 2004; Wood, 2008).

2.3.2 Gender Inequality and Apartheid

According to the ANC (2009), Apartheid has affected people in a very negative manner; the mostly affected group was Black or African women. Apartheid has increased repression, unemployment, and underdevelopment among black women especially those from the former homelands. Similarly, this affected women, for they remained the last of the rural peasants, and they were and still are responsible for the maintenance of their households. The perpetrators of Apartheid have firmly held in some way insidious way that the foundation of their system on the subjugation of African women (ANC, 2009). Consequently, women were isolated in a sense whereby they became conditioned to bearing and raising children, and caring for the aged and sick, abandoned and forced back into the homelands by the law (Meer and Mlaba, 1982; Hargreaves, 1997). Women throughout South Africa were severely restricted from

entering urban areas than African men were (Meer and Mlaba, 1982). Eventually, this led to an imbalance between men and women in both urban and rural areas (Meer and Mlaba, 1982; Hargreaves, 1997).

African women worked hard in order to earn an income to save their households from starvation. Therefore, they worked as agricultural and domestic labourers on white farms (Meer and Mlaba, 1982; Hargreaves, 1997). African women experienced poor payments under unprotected working conditions. Women's employment was dependent on other races not being available for the work at the offered wage rate. Compared to men and women of other races, the lives of African women have not been easy during the Apartheid era; they entered labour markets less educated than black men and women of other races. Women were taught to accept the concept of subordination to men. Consequently, women ended up appearing on the market with greater diffidence and lower self-evaluation, which eventually led to women being more exploitable than black men (Meer and Mlaba, 1982; Hargreaves, 1997).

2.4. Conclusion

In order to overcome gender inequality, a conducive environment should be created for both men and women, strategies should be pursued within an enabling environment. An enabling environment is the one that fully recognizes the importance of women empowerment, women's participation in an economic realm, women's involvement in an agricultural world, as well as rural women's critical productive role within these sectors. If the appropriate commitment to the agricultural sector is lacking and to the women and men farmers, foresters and fisherfolk within it, then the broader goals of gender equality, rural development, livelihoods diversification, economic development and food security will be difficult to achieve. Information and statistics that accurately portray the nature and role of women's involvement in these sectors, as well as the constraints they face, are prerequisites for gaining this commitment and critical for the formulation of successful policies, programmes, and projects at the national level.

The next chapter also forms part of the literature review with regard to the importance of rural livelihoods diversification in developing countries. Both the theoretical and conceptual frameworks are adopted in this chapter. Important aspects that are discussed includes the types of rural household livelihoods, characteristics of rural household livelihoods, rural household livelihoods diversification, the significance of rural livelihoods diversification, why do rural people diversify, how rural people diversify, the impacts of livelihoods diversification on rural households in developing countries, reducing poverty and addressing food security through livelihoods diversification.

CHAPTER 3

THE IMPORTANCE OF RURAL HOUSEHOLD LIVELIHOODS DIVERSIFICATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

3.1. Introduction

Livelihoods form an important part of rural people's way of living. Similarly, it needs to be realised and understood that livelihoods are embedded in people's histories, cultures, traditions, relationships and the environment, all of which change over time (Kepe, 1997; Berkhout, Leach and Scoones, 2003). The understanding of people's livelihoods also requires an acknowledgement and analysis of social differentiations, an analysis of livelihoods systems, an analysis of sustainable livelihoods systems, and the knowledge about people's capacity and traditional systems and strategies for managing their livelihoods (Kepe, 1997; 2002). It is in this context that this chapter discusses the following themes: types and characteristics of rural household livelihoods in developing countries and rural household livelihoods diversification in developing countries.

3.2. Types of Rural Household Livelihoods

There are numerous types of livelihoods that women are engaged in which Ellis (1998) synthesised as *firstly*, farming activities that are related to agricultural production, on-farm small scale post harvesting and processing activities, *secondly*, off-farm activities that are associated with permanent, seasonal or casual jobs and wages, and work in neighbouring commercial farms, *thirdly*, non-farming activities which are related to local trades, food processing, local services such as traditional healing, repairs, handcrafting, self-employment in trade, small-scale industry and businesses and, the *fourthly* non-income related activities which are mainly associated with housekeeping, caring for children/relatives, fetching firewood and water for domestic use, and *lastly* sources of

income related to remittances, welfare and social grants. The types of rural livelihoods activities are discussed as follows:

3.2.1. Farming Activities

This type of livelihoods is associated with agricultural productions such as crop farming, livestock farming, on-farm small scale post harvesting, and processing activities (Ellis, 1998). Farming is very much common in rural households; it is regarded as the major survival strategy. Agriculture contributes positively to rural households because it reduces food insecurity, poverty and it brings the opportunities for the households (Ellis, 1999). In addition, it has its negativity which are associated with the withdrawals of critical labour inputs from the family farms; it may also exploit women and children by overburdening them with too much work such as harvesting, planting, cultivating and weeding (Ellis, 1999). Farming in rural areas is practiced everywhere, in people's compounds, along streets and river banks, under power lines or on any piece of an empty space. (Ellis, 1998, 1999, 2000). The crop are mostly associated with basic foods such as maize, beans, spinach, beetroots, carrots and cabbages and are primarily for self-consumption (Ellis, 1998, 1999). In most cases crops are sold to other community members as a way of generating an income.

In crop productions there are cultivation and tillage methods and techniques that are used, those particular methods are easy and simple but the productivity is low. These may be due to lack of rainfall and lack of access to resources such as irrigation canals and systems (Ellis, 1999, 2000). Livestock farming is common as well. Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, and some smaller animals such as chickens are kept. Livestock provides products such as milk, eggs, and meat (Ellis, 1999). By selling these products it can also be an important source of income (Ellis, 2000). Farming has increased considerably over the past decades. It is a way of improving the food situations in rural households and to diversify their livelihoods options. In simpler terms farming provides employment, food and income for rural households (Ellis 1999). There's an assumption

that the more the households are engaged in farming the greater the likelihood of majority of on-farm employment. For some people it may be fulltime and permanent jobs, others find work as labourers, others are rewarded with in-kind, and others are employed on a temporary and casual basis in both crop cultivation and in livestock keeping (Ellis, 1999, 2000; Kepe, 1997, 2002). For rural poor household farming constitutes a major food source and for the better-offs farming is an additional food source for the households (Kepe, 1997;2002).

3.2.2. Off-Farm Activities

This type of livelihood is mainly associated with permanent jobs, seasonal or casual jobs, wages, work in neighbouring commercial farms. This particular activity has been recognised as an income generating method and as an important factor driving poverty reduction and as an indicator of enhancement of livelihoods. Fan, Zhang, and Zhang, (2002); and Zhang, Huang, and Rozelle (2002) suggest that the contribution of income from off-farm activities in rural households of China has risen steadily from 17% in 1980 to 47% in 1999. In addition, rural labour force involved in non-agricultural sector has increased from 7% in 1978 to 35% in 1999. Non agricultural sectors provide an increase in rural income and reduce poverty. It is therefore evident that off-farm activities is regarded as the most income generating technique that the rest of the livelihoods activities.

In many rural areas, agriculture alone cannot provide sufficient livelihoods opportunities. According to Reardon (1997) rural off-farm employment can play a potentially significant role in reducing rural poverty and numerous studies indicate the importance of non-farm enterprise to rural incomes. Reardon (1997) documents that small enterprises are significant in achieving a sustainable livelihoods diversification. Consequently, typical rural household in Africa have more than one member employed in an off-farm enterprise. It in this context that livelihoods diversification is often characterized as being driven by two processes: *distress-push*, where the poor are driven to seek off-

farm employment for them to achieve adequate on-farm opportunities; and *demand-pull*, where rural people are able to respond to new opportunities. In the former situation, large numbers may be drawn into poorly remunerated low entry barrier activities, whilst the latter are more likely to offer a route to improved livelihoods (Reardon, 1997; Ellis, 1998, 1999, 2000; D’Hease and Kirsten, 2006).

Other studies have discovered that increase in rural income during 1990 was by large realised from off-farm employment than any other sector such as farming, small businesses, and local trades (Fan, Zhang, and Zhang; 2002; Zhang, Huang, and Rozelle, 2002). In addition, urban workers who are employed on a permanent or casual basis are earning higher income than that of farmers; basically the farmer’s income level is markedly lower than that of urban workers. Rural people have developed a perception that working on off-farm provides them with a better income and opportunities compared to working on one’s own farmland (de Bruaw and Rozelle, 2002; de Bruaw, Huang, Rozelle, Zhang, Zhang, 2002). According to Zhang, Huang, and Rozelle (2002), off farm employment has improved the lives of the rural poor.

3.2.3. Non- Farming Activities

These activities are related to local trades, food processing, local services such as traditional healing, repairs, handcrafting, self-employment in trades, small-scale industry and businesses (Ellis, 1998). The non farming activities include earning and unearning income received by rural people from the local economy (DFID, 2002). According to the DFID (1999), this income has its negativity towards rural people; it provides income that is too low for basic human rights. Hence, there is a need for livelihood diversification because an individual or a household cannot survive on this type of livelihood only. In addition, non-farming activities on its own cannot sustain a household; it cannot reduce poverty on a long term basis (DFID, 1999). Contrary to Ellis (1998); and DFID (1999), Barrett, Reardon, and Webb (2001) state that through non-farm activities, households generate incomes that provide them with cash that enables a farm household to

purchase food during a drought or after a harvest shortfall. Similarly, non-farm income is also a source of farm household savings, used for food purchase in difficult times. On the long-term effects on food security, however, there is relatively little empirical evidence, and what exists is inconclusive.

3.2.4. Source of Income Related to Remittances, Welfare and Social grants

Studies have widely reported that remittances provide a vital support for rural households (Campbell, Kozanayi, Luckert, 2002). According to de Bruaw and Rozelle (2002), about 20% of rural income in China was generated through remittances made by migrants. This particular practice is very common among developing countries.

3.2.5. Non Income Related Activities

This activity includes housekeeping, caring for children, fetching firewoods and water (Ellis, 1998). Natural and forest resources such as firewoods and water play an important and central role in people's livelihoods. Firewoods provide energy to the rural poor households (D'Hease and Kirsten, 2006).

3.3. Characteristics of Rural Household Livelihoods

Numerous discoveries have shown that rural livelihoods display certain characteristics. Chambers (1997) and Shackleton (2005) have documented that the *first* characteristic of rural livelihoods is that they bridge the rural and urban divide. For example, people from rural, peri-urban and urban households combine wages, remittances and informal sectors earnings with rurally based farming, government pensions, trade in plant materials and claiming through social networks. These particular livelihoods characteristics motivates or encourages rural livelihoods diversification mainly because

the latter (livelihoods diversification) has an increased importance of off-farm wage labour in household livelihoods portfolio or through the development of new forms of on-farm and onsite production of non-conventional marketable commodities (Warren, 2002). The *second* characteristic of rural livelihoods is that they rely on complex local and non-local social and economic relationships that link individual family members, neighbours, social networks, community institutions, and distant markets (Chambers, 1997; Shackleton and Shackleton, 2001). Rural livelihoods rely on a number of assets such as social assets which are mostly and mainly associated with the social networks and associations to which people belong (Ellis, 2000). The *third* characteristic is that rural livelihoods, like rural people themselves are differentiated by social identities, with variable and unequal outcomes depending on class, age, gender, education, location, and political affiliation (Kepe and Cousins, 2002). The *fourth* characteristic is that rural livelihoods are mediated by formal and informal institutions, as well as local practices, these particular institutions are themselves characterized by conflicts, and ambiguity as much by harmony (Kepe, 2007). Generally, an understanding of these characteristics could encourage and motivate the rural development policies that aim at complimenting rural people's own efforts to fight poverty (Kepe, 2007).

Rural households are engaged in a wide range of livelihoods activities in order for them to get out of the poverty trap, to achieve food security and to generate income. For instance, households create a living from various sources such as production, trading, remittances and grants (D' Hease and Kirsten, 2006, 93). According to Pini (2005), activities that are associated with remittances and social grants form the backbone of rural people's livelihoods in South Africa, especially through old age pension. The livelihoods activities are associated with poverty reduction strategies that are adopted by the rural poor. These strategies are regarded as goals for achieving food security (D'Hease and Kirsten, 2006). Generally, the concept of livelihoods surrounds income earning options and activities that are crucial for the household's survival (D'Hease and Kirsten, 2006).

3.4. Rural Household Livelihoods Diversification

Livelihoods diversification simply means adding new activities. In addition, rural livelihoods diversification could be described as the process by which rural household construct an increasingly complex portfolio of activities and assets in order to survive and to improve their standard of living (Ellis, 2000). This diversification has generally occurred as a result of an increased importance of off-farm wage labour in household livelihoods portfolio or through the development of new forms of on-farm and onsite production of non-conventional marketable commodities (Ellis, 2000). The livelihoods diversification can include agricultural work like crop and livestock farming, non agricultural work like fishing, local trade, self employment, and permanent employment. By diversifying their livelihoods most households tend to achieve their goals (Ellis, 2000).

The majority of rural households in both developed and developing countries have relied and survived on livelihoods diversification. Many poor rural households have depended on livelihoods activities such as farming as their primary survival strategy. Although farming on its own might not be able to provide a sufficient means of survival, many poor rural households still perceive it as their primary source of improving their ill-being and poor conditions to the wellbeing and better off conditions (Ellis, 2000). Consequently, the majority of rural households in developing countries have adopted many strategies for their livelihoods diversification. Livelihoods diversification may not be easily achieved; the main primary reason could be associated with the unavailability of key assets such as land, education, employment opportunities, savings, and labour. These particular assets are not easily accessible in most rural areas more especially for women, and yet they are the prerequisites for rural households to be able to diversify their livelihoods (Dercon and Krishnan, 1996; Abdulai and Crole, 2001).

Studies by Gladwin (2001) and Kleinbooi and Lahiff (2007) have shown that agriculture is one of the major sources of livelihoods for most developing countries and rural

households. Consequently, African countries are agriculturally based with 75-85% of the labour force still employed in the agricultural sector. Most of their GDP is still generated from the agricultural sector (Gladwin, 2001). The agricultural practices range from small-scale crop production to livestock farming (Kleinbooi and Lahiff, 2007). It has been documented that for decades both the poor and the better-offs have been relying on agricultural production as a way of diversifying their livelihoods (Wang, 2007). The poor seems to be relying and depending on agriculture than any other category or class of people (Wang, 2007). Agriculture as a survival strategy is dominant by the poor. Poor households depend on agriculture for both food and cash in order to sustain their standards of living (Carr, 2008). It is not very easy for the households to attain both food and cash. In most cases they tend to attain food other than cash, mainly due to lack of access to land. This may lead to insufficient farming practices that may not allow a farmer to sell the products in order to attain cash because for a sufficient farming to occur it requires a large space of land so that there can be more products that are produced by the farm. Normally the poor households can only afford to produce for household consumptions. As a result of poor access to land, the households are not economic units as much as it is a social unit (Carr, 2005). The latter statement is motivated by the fact that in most rural areas access to land (especially for agricultural purposes) comes through the male head of the households who receives an allocation of land. The males can then decide how to divide the land among other members of the households such as women (Carr, 2008). Men end up allocating for themselves a larger amount of land and their wives end up getting a little portion. Men get more access to land than women; and as a result men's agricultural production will be greater than that of the women (Carr, 2008).

According to Carr (2008), African countries such as Ghana, agricultural production is gendered. There are crops that are associated with men and those that are associated with women. For example, crops such as cashews, cocoa, coconut, okra, onion, sugarcane, acacia, oranges, palms, and pineapples are men's crops and crops such as garden eggs, bananas, tomatoes, peppers, and beans are associated with women's crops (Carr, 2008). Men's crops take their value to the market sales and they are

therefore considered to be valuable and economically feasible. Women's crops do not enter the market sales, they are considered invaluable for market sales therefore they are only consumed at a household level (Carr, 2008). This can only mean that men's crops are considered to be valuable than women's crops. Women farm for subsistence production, while men farm for commercial production (Carr, 2008). Similarly, women's agricultural activities are considered to be subordinates to the extensive activities of their husbands (Kleinbooi and Lahiff, 2007). Farming is an important aspect of the processes of diversification, and it has expanded over the years (Foeken and Owuor, 2001). Through agriculture and farming rural households were able to mobilise resources and opportunities such as employment, they can eventually combine these resources and achieve a sustainable livelihoods strategy (Rakodi and Lloyds-Jones, 2002, Owuor and Foeken, 2001). Agricultural growth has been largely understood as a response for escaping poverty and achieving food security (Foeken and Owuor, 2001).

3.5. The Significance of Rural Livelihoods Diversification

According to Ellis (2000), the notion of diversity and diversification is part and parcel of the livelihoods theory. Livelihoods comprises the assets such as natural, physical, human, financial, and social capital; a livelihoods is a multi-faceted concept (Ellis, 2000). Niehof and Price (2001) define livelihoods as a system which can be conceptualised as having the following components; namely, inputs- these are resources and assets, outputs- these are livelihoods (such as crop-farming, livestock farming, permanent jobs, casual jobs, trading, social grants, and remittances, purpose- this is when a livelihoods is meeting the basic needs of an individual or household, activities – these are the livelihoods generation and the composition of the livelihoods portfolio, agency – these are the efforts done by the households and individuals to achieve livelihoods adequacy, the quality of degree or vulnerability and sustainability of the livelihoods produced and the environment. These are the components that define the livelihoods systems of the households and individuals.

According to Ellis (2000), diversification is generally recognised as an important strategy to decreasing livelihoods vulnerability. Seemingly, rural livelihoods diversification is the process of constructing an increasingly diverse portfolio of activities and assets in order to survive and to improve their standard of living (Ellis, 2000). It is widely viewed as some sort of self-insurance (Barret, Reardon, Webb, 2001). Similarly, diversification maybe associated with success at achieving sustainable livelihoods under improving economic and social conditions. Generally, diversification is associated with off-farm activities (Niehof, 2004).

Diversification options are limited by economic constraints (e.g., household assets such as land, and skills), influenced by social, cultural, and political factors, particularly caste and gender (Ellis1998, 2000). In most African countries, farmers are so poor that they do not have access to resources and assets such as land, water, capital, and skills other than their own labour. This results by negatively affecting their livelihoods diversification (Niehof, 2004). Households need to be able to utilise their assets in order to reduce and avoid vulnerability. They can be able to achieve that by transforming those particular assets into income, food, or other basic necessities (Niehof, 2004).The households can transform their assets in to two distinct ways: through the intensification of existing strategies and the development of the new or diversified strategies (Niehof, 2004).

3.5.1. Why Do rural People Diversify?

It is now generally accepted that diversification is increasingly contributing to rural incomes. According to Ellis (2000), Barret, Reardon, and Webb (2001), and Niehof (2004), diversification can have an equalising effect on rural incomes and wealth mainly because there are different mechanisms involved, but what drives diversification? Rural households rely entirely on livelihoods activities such as on-farm productions. This may be the primary reason for them to diversify their livelihoods (Reardon, 1997). For rural households, combining both farm and non-farm income earning activities has been an

adaptive strategy which allows them to reduce risks of starvation during chronic periods (Devereaux, 1993; Maxwell and Kenway, 2000; Gladwin, 2001).

Gladwin (2001) and Maxwell and Kenway (2000) found that there is a total of 25 different income generating activities performed by farmers in Eastern Zambia. Farmers categorised these activities as “small money” activities, “medium-sized money” activities, and “big money” activities. Small money activities are normally women’s activities and they included activities such as selling buns or fritters, sewing, selling sugar cane or bananas, and buying oil and other items in town. Incomes generated from these activities were used for grinding maize and purchasing soap and salts. The income from the “medium- sized money” includes activities such as gardening, brewing beer, selling goats, chickens or pigs, selling crops such as sweet potatoes, soybeans, sunflower, and groundnuts. Incomes generated from these activities are used to pay school fees, and medical expenses. The income from “big money” activities includes producing cotton and/or tobacco. The income generate from these activities are for purchasing luxury items such as clothes, blankets, and shoes, to invest in livestock, and to purchase fertilisers for the following year (Gladwin, 2001).

Devereaux (1993) and also discovered that bartering is one of the activities practiced by the farmers in Eastern Zambia. In order to acquire maize, farmers often bartered their own labour or sell some commodities such as vegetables, salt, meat or fish. Labour, commonly bartered for maize, was in the form of piece work to build houses, repair roofs, cut thatch, build granaries, or plow, weed, or harvest fields. For example, in Zambia one woman farmer used a goat to pay a school fees and purchased uniforms, used gardening income to purchase daily households needs, sold cotton to buy fertilisers for maize, and performed piece work in exchange for maize. She also sold groundnuts to purchase such as oil, soap, and salt to sell locally (Gladwin, 2001).

Literatures have highlighted many reasons why many rural people diversify their livelihoods. Rural people practice livelihoods diversification for many reasons, Ellis (1998, 2000) such as:

- Spreading risk: (dealing with risk and uncertainty). Spreading activities across several sectors helps to spread risk and manage uncertainty. For example, farmers may produce a range of crops rather than specialising in just the most profitable one. Stagnating rural economies, diversification is a reflection of rural poor household's coping and managing the risks and uncertainty (Ellis, 1998, 2000; Niehof, 2004).
- Coping with insufficiency: Diverse activities may be undertaken as an ex-post (after the event) coping response to shortcomings in other activities. A failed harvest owing to drought or pests, the loss of a job, or the need to pay emergency medical or funeral bills – can all drive households into pursuing other activities (Ellis, 1998, 2000).
- Seasonality: Crop farming, some gathering, and making crafts for festivals are seasonal activities. In the off-season, diversified activities provide a way to use labour and other resources and to earn incomes (Ellis, 1998, 2000).
- Compensating for failures in credit markets: Farmers who need to buy seed and fertiliser but who have no access to credit (or can only get credit on exorbitant terms) may work off the farm just before the crop season to earn the cash to buy the inputs (Ellis, 1998, 2000).
- Gradual transition to new activities: Change to new activities with higher returns may be incremental, particularly if the new occupation is untested. The new activity is adopted as an addition to the household portfolio rather than a substitute for existing activities (Ellis, 1998, 2000).
- Building on complementarities: Some diversified activities may build on existing skills, experience and information. For example, home-based work complements domestic chores (Ellis, 1998, 2000).

Evidence (Reardon, 1997) suggests that most rural income sources are from wages, self-employment, agricultural products, and other earnings from commercial activities,

manufacturing and other services (Reardon, 1997). Ellis (1998, 2000) documented that assets are very much crucial in order for households to achieve sustainable livelihood diversification. This means that rural people should have full access to asset, and they should be able to manage those particular household resources.

3.5.2. How Do Rural People Diversify?

To answer the question of how rural people diversify, it is important to look at mechanisms involved, at the intra-households level and at the community level. The households should have the ability to avoid and reduce the vulnerability, but also to transform their assets into income, food, or other basic necessities (Moser, 1996; Niehof, 2004). Assets are used and strategies are adopted to cope with economic stress and social stress determined by the households, intra-households, and community factors (Moser, 1996; Niehof, 2004). Ways in which rural people diversify their livelihoods are discussed as follows.

3.5.2.1. The intensification of existing strategies

Households should manage to retain, resuscitate and expand their existing livelihoods strategies (Bryceson, 2002). Many poor families may experience difficulties in mobilising their resources in order to achieve a viable and feasible livelihoods diversification. This may be due to the fact that they actually do not have ready access to the necessary assets, resources, and equipments (Bryceson, 2002).

There are suggestions that non-agricultural activities tends to provide alternative economic livelihoods for the rural poor with limited or no access to land (Saith, 1992; Bryceson, 2002). The non-agricultural and agricultural income diversification can reinforce higher income earnings at the households. These activities have high levels of starting capital that can make it possible for farmers and households to attain a

successful livelihoods diversification with more modest means (Saith, 1992; Berkvens, 1997; Illiya, 1999; Mustapha, 1999; Meagher, 2001; Bryceson, 2002). Tellegens (1997) argues that nonagricultural activities provide the “road to rural wealth”.

3.5.2.2. *The development of new or diversified strategies*

At this point the household should look for alternative sources of income (Moser, 1996; Niehof, 2004). There are number of activities in which the rural households are trying to generate income (May, Carter, and Posel; 1995). The households may use different activities as alternatives for livelihoods diversification. They may rely on agriculture for own consumption and for sale. Small and micro enterprise could also be another alternative for diversification, this include hawking, and petty commodity production. Another strategy is associated with wage labour, which includes migrant labourers, farm workers, and commuter labourers. May, Carter, and Posel (1995), states that there are activities known as *claiming against the state*. These are strategies associated with pensions and social grants. For example, South Africa has a well functioning social pensions system that has a high coverage among the elderly. This claiming has shown to be of high importance to household incomes (May, Carter, and Posel; 1995). Remittance is another way of diversifying household livelihoods; it is regarded as an important livelihood diversification tactic (May, Carter, and Posel, 1995).

In addition to the already mentioned ways of diversifying livelihoods, Carter, May and Posel (1995) add three other critical activities.

- *Unpaid domestic labour*: this is normally performed by women, although there is no payment, the activity contributes to the household livelihoods strategy. (Carter, May and Posel, 1995).
- *Illegitimate activities*: many households survive by undertaking activities which are regarded as being illegitimate and immoral. These include activities

such as drug trafficking, prostitution and petty crime (Carter, May and Posel, 1995).

- *Non-monetised activities*: these are activities engaged into either stretch household income, or to gain access to additional entitlements (Carter, May and Posel, 1995; Niehof, 2004).

These are the ways practiced by people in order to diversify their household livelihoods. It is extremely important for households to have access to resource and assets in order to achieve sustainable livelihoods diversification. Lack of access to resource and assets will negatively affect people's livelihoods diversification (Carter, May and Posel, 1995; Niehof, 2004). The ability of the households to sustain their diversification involves the ability to transform their assets into income, foods, and basic necessities (Niehof, 2004).

3.5.3. Impacts of Livelihoods Diversification on Rural Households in Developing Countries.

There is an increasing awareness that livelihoods diversification plays a strategic role in rural livelihoods systems and rural households (Niehof, 2004). Barret, Reardon and Webb (2001) states that diversification is the norm and that people collect their income from just one source. Livelihoods diversification has gained grounds as an approach to rural poverty reduction in poor households in developing countries (Niehof, 2004). According to Niehof (2004), a livelihood is a multi-faceted concept, being both what people do and what they accomplish by doing it. "Livelihood diversification may be associated with a success at achieving livelihood security under improving social and economic conditions" (Ellis, 1998, p.2).

Diversification can have an equalising effect on rural incomes and wealth (Ellis, 2000). Rural households may rely on a number of sources to generate income including crop and livestock farming. These may be the main assets that the rural better-off and the rural poor have in common (Niehof, 2004). Diversification for good reasons reflects the

dynamisms and capturing of gains at the household level (Niehof, 2004). Similarly, livelihood diversification has stimulated rural trade services opportunities for the rural poor households (Niehof, 2004). This is good since it will increase an income level in the households practicing trade as one of their diversification strategy. Orr (2001) added that among the rural households that are pursuing trading, 56% of them have experienced improvements of economic status, and this was linked to higher income from crops (tobacco, vegetables, grain legumes) and micro-enterprises.

3.5.4. Reducing Poverty, and Addressing Food Security Through livelihoods Diversification

Food insecurity is primarily a problem of low household incomes; hence farmers in rural areas aim at increasing their food production and their subsistence crops (Gladwin, 2001). It is important for rural farmers to be food secured. Food security is defined as sufficient food consumption by all people at all times for a healthy and productive life (Thomson and Matz, 1997). According to FAO (2003), food security refers to the availability of food and one's access to it. Seemingly, a household is considered food secure when its occupants do not live in hunger or fear of starvation. Food security for a household means access by all members at all times to enough food for an active, healthy life. According to Thomson and Matz (1997), and FAO (2003), these include at a minimum the ready availability of nutritionally adequate and safe foods, and an assured ability to acquire acceptable foods in socially acceptable ways (that is, without resorting to emergency food supplies, scavenging, stealing, or other coping strategies). Additionally, food security exists when all people, at all times have physical and economical access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life FAO (2003).

Most African households, especially those headed by women, are food insecure. This problem varies from one country to another and from one society to another (Gladwin, 2001). Most of the households that are food insecure are dependent on agricultural

production as their main source of income and foods (Thomson and Matz, 1997; Gladwin, 2001). Agricultural production may not be their only source of income, to be food secure rural households have multiple livelihoods strategies (Pearce, Ngwira and Chimseu, 1996; Thomson and Matz, 1997; Gladwin, 2001). The multiple livelihoods strategies of the poor rural households include petty trading, food processing, and engagement in informal labour markets (Pearce, Ngwira and Chimseu, 1996). The reason for diversifying and relying on multiple livelihoods is that these strategies are their poverty reduction mechanisms and they are also capable of improving and sustaining their standards of living (Gladwin, 2001).

3.6. Conclusion

This chapter concludes by highlighting that livelihoods diversification is important in a sense that it promotes growth and reduce poverty. In order to promote growth and reduce poverty, too many efforts are required and one of many efforts will be by putting more explicit attention to gender. There are four rationales on why livelihoods diversification is important in developing countries. The *first* rationale relates to rural growth, which is due to the fact that women's ability to diversify out of farming is as important as that of men in generating rural income. The *second* rationale relates to household well-being. Women's ability to diversify into off-farm activities has stronger and more consistent implications for the well-being of rural households; hence, it is important for women to also have access to economic and job opportunities. The *third* rationale links to poverty reduction. Households in which women are confined to farming (particularly to the farming of subsistence crops) and households in which women have only been able to diversify into waged employment are systematically poorer than the rest (Kabeer, 2000). In addition, female-headed households tend to be poorer than the male-headed households. The *fourth* rationale links to equity considerations. Rural women are able to achieve positive economic and well-being achievements only through extremely long hours of work and very little rest or leisure compared to men.

Interventions to ease women's work burdens would clearly have equity as well as productive effects (Kabeer, 2000).

The next chapter will discuss the research design and methodology used during data collection in Sebayeng. This will be done by indicating the research approach, kinds of data, target population, data collection, and analysis methods.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

This chapter is presenting the research design and methodology. The study used both a qualitative and quantitative research design. The targeted groups were from the selected households and the ward Councillor within the Sebayeng village. A simple random sampling method was adopted and utilised for the household's respondents and the purposive sampling method was utilised to identify the key informant. These methods were advantageous and easier to understand, each household in the population had an equal chance of being selected for the sample.

4.2. Research Design

The study adopted a combination of both the qualitative and quantitative research approaches. Qualitative research approach is the approach in which the procedures are not strictly formalised, while the scope is more likely to be undefined (De Vos, 1998). Leedy (1997) defines qualitative research approach as an approach that deals with data that are principally verbal. Quantitative research approach is the approach used in the social sciences research that is more highly formalised as well as explicitly controlled with a range that is more exactly defined, and which in terms of the methods used is relatively close to the physical sciences (De Vos, 1998). Leedy (1997) indicated that quantitative approach deals with data that are principally numerical.

The utilisation of both approaches was important because the issues around gender inequality and household livelihoods diversification involved more than just the measurable and observable factors. It also involved the feelings of the people about the nature and the level of gender inequality and its effects on rural household livelihoods diversification. The qualitative approach was used to describe the types of livelihoods

that are practiced in rural areas, the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification. The description involved the conditions of household livelihoods diversification and livelihoods activities and strategies within the households. Whereas the conditions of the household's livelihoods diversification, livelihood activities and strategies can be observed and measured, the feelings of the people about these conditions was qualitatively described. Quantitative methods were used for measuring and analyzing the demographic profile of men and women as well as their inequalities in access to a variety of household livelihoods assets and their capacity for diversification.

4.3 Kinds of Data

The study required data on both men and women about the nature and level of gender inequality and its effects on rural household livelihoods diversification, the types of livelihoods that they practice, the biographical profile of men and women engaged in livelihoods, men and women's perceptions and views towards the issues around gender inequality, and the measures for redressing gender inequality and improving household's capacity for livelihoods diversification. Also, information from the government's intervention measures was collected.

4.4. Target Population

The study's target population consisted of the households and the key informant within the Sebayeng Village. This village is about 30 km outside the city of Polokwane. Sebayeng is one of the sub-villages located in Ga-Dikgale Village; this particular area falls under Kgoshi S.M Dikgale's jurisdiction. Sebayeng Village has an estimated number of 2000 households. Sebayeng Village was selected for the study because it is a typical South African rural village wherein communities have continued to uphold and firmly live by their traditional and customary laws. Also, households continue to struggle to survive on a multiplicity of unviable livelihoods. As a result, it provided one of the

most useful cases to investigate the issues of gender inequality and household livelihoods diversification.

The primary units of analysis were the households and the key informant was the Ward Councillor. The main reasons for selecting the Ward Councillor as the study's key informant is that the Councillor is the representative of the community, meaning that he had most of the information that was needed. Since he is working together with the traditional leaders, he knew about the cultural and traditional practices that normally take place in community. As both a community leader and a community member, he knew about the livelihoods activities that are practiced by the community. As a liaison between the community and the government, he had the potential of coming up with measures that could be adopted in order to redress gender inequality and potentially improving the capacity of the households to diversify their livelihoods.

The households were surveyed through the questionnaire to provide the study with clear and meaningful information about the nature and the level of gender inequality and its effects on rural household livelihoods diversification. The key informant responded to the interview so as to provide the study with clear and meaningful information with regard to the nature and the level of gender inequality and its effects on rural household's livelihood diversification at a community level. Basically, the study attempted to synthesize perspective from the individual households with those of the key informant.

4.5. Sampling Design

The study applied sampling at three levels: selection of the village, individual households within the village, and key informant. The village has been selected using purposive sampling for reasons explained in the preceding subsection. The study adopted a probability sampling design for households within the village; and, this design

involved a situation whereby each person in the population had the same known probability of being selected (Seaberg, 1988). The major reason for using the probability sampling was that the researcher wanted to generalise the results of the sample to the rest of the population. Specifically, a simple random sampling method was adopted for the selection of households into a sample. This type of probability sampling was advantageous because it allowed equal probability for each household to be selected into the sample; and the results of the survey were generalized to the rest of the village. As stated in the previous subsection, Sebayeng Village has an estimated number of 2000 households and these were arranged into a sampling frame using the official municipality stand reference numbers. From that sampling frame, the random numbers table was used to select 10% of the households. The study sampled 200 households. Finally, the study also utilised a non-probability sampling design, in particular a purposive sampling method to identify the key informant in the community. This key informant was the Ward Councilor. The key informant possessed crucial information about the dynamics of tradition, custom, gender and household within the village.

4.6. Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

4.6.1. Documentations

Data were collected using secondary sources from appropriate and relevant written documents such as policies, government gazettes and any published document. The primary data from the households and key informant were used. The study compiled its conceptual framework by digesting and synthesising contributions from the system of ideas that involved the general assumptions about the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification. Such debates are primarily documented in books and journal articles. As a result, these sources were reviewed with the purpose of identifying and analysing the system of knowledge relevant to the study. The analysis involved disciplined readings, remembering, understanding, digesting and synthesising

ideas in ways that provided a theoretical response to the primary research questions formulated in the study.

4.6.2. Field Observations and Questionnaire

The study involved field observations and compilations of field notes and reports. Those observations attempted to assess the conditions of household livelihoods diversification and livelihoods activities and strategies within the households. This case study basically involved the completion of questionnaire. In a situation whereby respondents were unable to understand the language used in the questionnaire the enumerators assisted them. The enumerators were trained in order for them to be able to respect people's values, beliefs and emotions. Generally, the questionnaire tried to solicit information on the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification. The questionnaire also attempted to gather information on the particular types of rural household livelihoods, the nature and level of gender inequality and the measures that could be adopted to redress gender inequality and improve rural household's capacity for livelihoods diversifications. The questionnaire assessed the information on biographical profile of the respondents, the nature and the level of gender inequality, types of household livelihoods, and opinions of the respondents about the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification.

4.6.3. Interviews

The interviews were conducted with the key informant who is the Ward Councilor of the village with the purpose of assessing the general conditions about the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification. The Ward Councillor was probed on the opinions with regard to the nature and the level of gender inequality, the traditional and cultural activities and practices in the village, and the types of rural livelihoods in Sebayeng village.

The household data were captured using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) in order to create the summary statistics and to identify the underlying patterns. Capturing data into SPSS involved conceptualisation of specific issues about the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification, as guided by the relevant systems of knowledge. From the SPSS, frequency tables, charts, graphs and descriptive summary statistics such as the gender of the respondents, access to livelihoods assets, and the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng Village were generated and interpreted in accordance with the research focus of the study.

4.7. Conclusion

This chapter discussed the research design and methodology used in the study. The sample of the households and key informant were also discussed. The researcher designed a structured questionnaire for the respondents and interview schedule for the key informant as the data collection instruments. In this, the reader should be able to know and learn about: the types of research designs that were adopted in the study, the sampling methods that were utilised, and the targeted groups that were selected for the study.

In the chapter that follows the research findings, analysis, and interpretation of data will be discussed. The survey results and findings from Sebayeng and the various techniques that were used will also be discussed and presented by next chapter.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

5.1. Introduction

Sebayeng Village is located in the Limpopo Province. It falls under the Capricorn District within the Polokwane Local Municipality. This village is located about 30 km to the north-east of the city centre of Polokwane with an estimated population of 97307 (South African Advertising Research Foundation, 2006), total numbers of households are estimated to be 2000 (Polokwane Municipality IDP Document, 2007). Sebayeng is one of the sub-villages located in Ga-Dikgale village; this particular area falls under Kgoshi S.M Dikgale's jurisdiction. Sebayeng Village, just like any other South African rural community, is continuing to uphold and firmly live by their traditional and customary laws such as that a woman cannot have ownership to a land unless through a husband or unless unmarried or widowed. Also, households therein continue to struggle to survive on a multiplicity of unviable livelihoods. As a result, it has provided one of the most useful cases to investigate on the issues of gender inequality and household livelihoods diversification.

This chapter is analyzing and interpreting the findings of the results that have been revealed and discovered during data collection in Sebayeng Village. The chapter has investigated the four main sections that are based on the issues caused by gender inequality and its effects on household livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng Village. These sections are gender of the respondents in the household; the nature and the level of gender inequality in Sebayeng village; the types of livelihoods activities in Sebayeng Village; and the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng Village.

5.2. The Traditional and Cultural Practices in Sebayeng Village

The village of Sebayeng is divided into five sections, which are: Sebayeng A, B, C, D, and Solomondale. The village has both the traditional and political leadership working together in harmony. Traditionally, the village is under the leadership of Kgoshi S.M Dikgale who is working hand in hand with the Ward Councillor, Mr. Chris Machete. Sebayeng Village, like many other villages in South Africa, has traditional practices that they normally perform. One of the main traditional practices is the initiation practice called *koma*. This particular traditional practice is for both boys and girls in the community. The practice usually takes place in June holidays for boys and in September holidays for girls. When the initiation is complete the community normally organises a social event where they will celebrate the achievement of their children. In this social event, various activities takes place, the candidates from the initiation receive gifts from their family members. Those gifts are in the form of new expensive blankets, clothes and money. During this event the local traditional dancers (*Dinaka*) perform in order to entertain the people.

Gender inequality is also reflecting within the community's traditional and cultural practice of the initiation (*koma*) between boys and girls. This is according to the study's key informant who is a ward Councillor in Sebayeng village. He highlights that *"these two traditional events are not treated the same and equally. When celebrating the success of the boy's initiation the family members buy lots of expensive gifts as a way of complimenting and congratulating the boy candidate for his achievement of becoming a 'real man'. The members of the family and the community welcome the candidate into the 'manhood'. This is done by having a big traditional event and by buying expensive gifts for the boy. When celebrating the girl's initiation achievement, the families also host an event for the girl; this is done as a way of welcoming a girl child into 'womanhood'. Many activities also take place during the event. When comparing the two events, the enthusiasm, mood, and passion are not the same as when celebrating the boy child's achievement. The gifts that are bought for the girl are not as expensive in comparison as to the ones bought for the boy"*. These may be viewed as small things, but they are

extremely essential with regard to indicating the level of gender inequality within the households in the village. There is a need for scientific engagement on these practices in order to achieve gender equality in the rural households. This indicates the level of gender inequality and its roots are in the households and communities. There is unequal treatment between boys and girls in the Sebayeng households on matters of cultural and traditional affairs.

5.3. Presentation of the Results

The purpose of this section is to discuss a background of how data was collected in Sebayeng village. Data were collected using secondary sources from appropriate and relevant written documents such as policies, government gazettes and other published documents. The primary data from the households were also used. The study compiled its conceptual framework by digesting and synthesising contributions from the system of ideas that involved the general assumptions about the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification. Such debates are primarily documented in books and journal articles. As a result, these sources were reviewed with the purpose of identifying and analysing the system of knowledge relevant to the study.

The study involved field observations and compilations of field notes and reports. Those observations attempted to assess the conditions of household income diversification and livelihoods activities and strategies within the households. Data collection also involved the completion of a questionnaire. In a situation whereby respondents were unable to understand the language used in the questionnaire, the enumerators assisted them. The enumerators were trained to be able to respect people's values, beliefs, and emotions. The questionnaire tried to solicit information on the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification. The questionnaire also assessed the opinions of the respondents about the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification. The interviews were conducted with the Ward Councillor who was the key informant with the purpose of assessing the general

conditions about the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification. The key informant was probed on the opinions with regard to the traditional and cultural activities, the nature and the level of gender inequality, and the types of rural livelihoods in Sebayeng Village.

The items that were looked at during data collection were gender of the respondents; the nature and level of gender inequality in Sebayeng Village; the responsibility for productive roles such as paid work; and self-employment in the households; the responsibility for domestic duties, child care, and caring for the elderly and the sick in the households; the accessibility of human assets; the accessibility of physical assets, the types of livelihoods activities practiced in Sebayeng Village; and the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng Village.

5.4. Research Findings

The purpose of this section is to discuss the discoveries and revelations that were found in Sebayeng Village during data collection on the research questions raised. The presentation of the research findings will be presented per item as it appears on the questionnaire. The *first* item is the biographical profile of the respondent, which probed aspects in this item includes the gender of the respondent, the age of the respondent, the marital status of the respondent, the household status of the respondent whether the respondent is the head of the household, the spouse, or a relative of the household, the highest education level completed by the respondent, number of years that the respondent lived in the community, and the total number of people that live permanently in the household.

The *second* item on the questionnaire was the nature and the level of gender inequality in the household. The probed aspects under this particular item were the responsibility for productive roles such as paid work, and self-employment among men and women in the household, the responsibility for domestic work, child care, and care of the sick and the elderly among men and women in the household, access to the livelihoods assets

for both men and women, the responsibility for decision making with regard to allocation of human resources such as education, the responsibility for decision making in terms of allocation and distribution of physical assets such as land, and the responsibility for decision making with regard to the allocation and distribution of financial resources such as income and capital in the household.

The *third* item that appeared on the questionnaire was the type of household livelihoods activities. The investigated aspects were: the main livelihood activities practiced in the household, those livelihoods activities ranging from: farming activities (i.e., crop farming, and livestock farming including poultry), off-farm activities (i.e., permanent, seasonal or casual jobs, work in commercial farms), and non-farming activities (i.e., traditional healing, repairs, businesses and local trades).

The *fourth* and last item that was investigated was gender inequality and rural household livelihoods diversification. In this item the following aspects were investigated: the extent in which gender inequality affect women's livelihoods diversification, if gender inequality affects male and female members of the household equally, and the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification.

5.4.1. The Gender of the Respondents

It has been argued that women have been socially constructed to occupy social spaces than economic spaces in rural areas. Women have been designed to actively participate more in the private spheres (Midgley, 2006; Mudege and Ezeh, 2009). Men unlike women participate in the economic markets and politics and they compete in the labour and the business markets. It is in this context that women are almost always found in the domestic realm where they nurture their families, by taking care of their children, the sick, and the elderly. Women are expected to carry out these domestic duties while men leave the domestic sphere to the economic sphere where they engage themselves into

economic activities. Women in Sebayeng are also expected to remain in the domestic realm while men leave the domestic space to the economic space. It is in this context that women in Sebayeng actively participated in the study than men.

The rationale for probing in this variable was to put to test an assumption that women in rural areas are occupying social spaces more than the economic spaces as compared to their male counterparts. In order to test this variable, the gender of the respondents that participated in the study was probed. The results are in Figure 5.1 below.

Figure 5.1: Gender of the Respondents

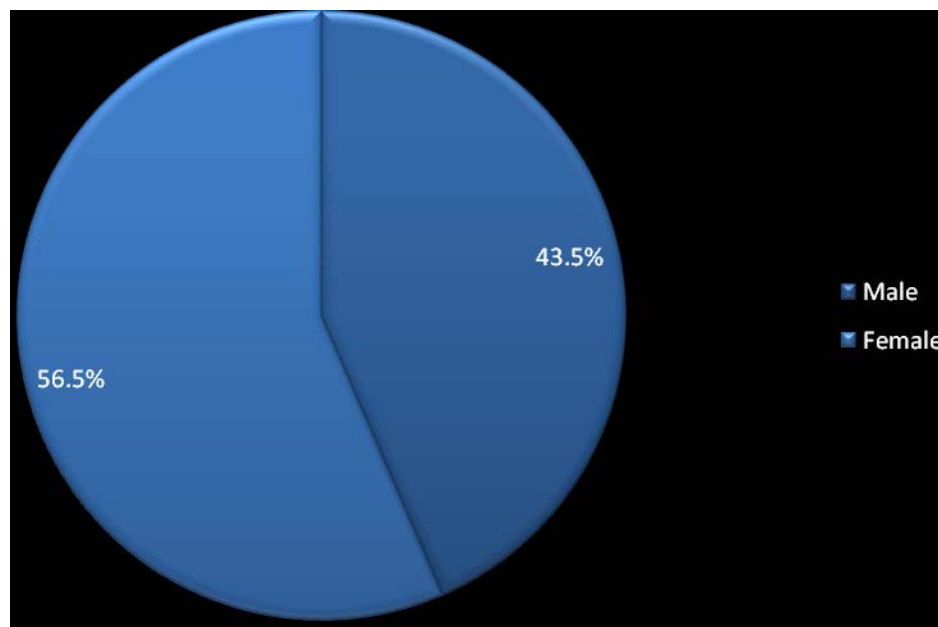


Figure 5.1 illustrate the gender of the respondents that participated in the study. According to the results, 56.5% of the females participated in the study and 43.5% of the respondents were their male counterparts. The primary reason why most of the participants are females is that they are the ones remaining behind during the day. Most of them are unemployed and were available during data collection. In most of the

households, men were found to be the breadwinners and women were associated with domesticity.

5.4.2. The Nature and the Level of Gender Inequality in Sebayeng Village

Gender inequality is still a critical issue in the rural areas. The level of gender inequality in rural households is reflected in a number of ways. For instance, women still receive less attention than men. Development and feminist studies have discovered that some of the indicators of gender inequality are perceived in situations whereby women are restricted to make major decisions about issues that affect them. For example, in Namaqualand South Africa, women face social exclusion from participating in traditional activities like commonage committee meetings and difficulty in accessing commercial loans (Kleinbooi and Lahiff, 2007; Midgley, 2006). Gender inequality is also reflected in the situations wherein women's economic participation, efforts and contributions are undermined (Adar, 1996).

The most important and pragmatic reason for having this variable is to present and to put an emphasis on the level of gender inequality as a problem which has the repercussions on the lives of the rural women. The level of gender inequality frequently surpasses class barriers and traditional and cultural beliefs, culture, tradition, and class in itself plays a major role in determining the specific nature of gender inequality. What is crucial here is to put an emphasis on traditional and cultural beliefs as a potential factor that results in gender inequality (Swanepoel and de Beer, 2006). This depends on a rural community's setting, but the general perception is that culture and tradition could be a stumbling block for development (Swanepoel and de Beer, 2006).

Findings discovered in Sebayeng probed culture and tradition as an aspect that encourages the level of gender inequality in that particular community. The investigated aspect that will be discussed in this sub-section is looking at culture and tradition as factors that encourage the nature and level of gender inequality in the households.

5.4.2.1. Culture and tradition encourages the level of gender inequality in the society and households

The cultural norms about gender roles in the communities and households are considered to be endogenous and can generate gender inequality and low development. In this thesis (*Supra*: p.30), it was indicated that culture and tradition are a stumbling block for development. The hidden nature of rural women's lives includes less status, power, authority, and access to resources than men of their race and class. It has been highlighted that gender inequality negatively impact on women's ability to actively participate in the attainment of livelihoods diversification (Meer, 1997). Women are understood to be the designers, planners, and managers of livelihoods for household survival, and their roles in diversification of the means of earning a living are generally undermined through a myriad of social and cultural laws, values, norms, and beliefs. In this thesis (*Supra*: 32), Wood (2008), points that cultural stereotypes are engrained in both men and women. These stereotypes are a possible explanation for gender inequality and the resulting gendered wage disparity. It is in this context that this aspect investigated if culture and tradition encourages the level of gender inequality in Sebayeng Village. The rationale for probing this aspect was to present the results discovered in Sebayeng and also to put an emphasis on the fact that cultural norms and beliefs are embodied in gender inequality, and this has encouraged the persistence of the level of gender inequality. Gender inequality and cultural norms and beliefs pose an obstacle to the capacity of rural households to diversify their livelihoods.

Figure 5.2: Culture and Tradition Encourages the Level of Gender Inequality in the Society and Households

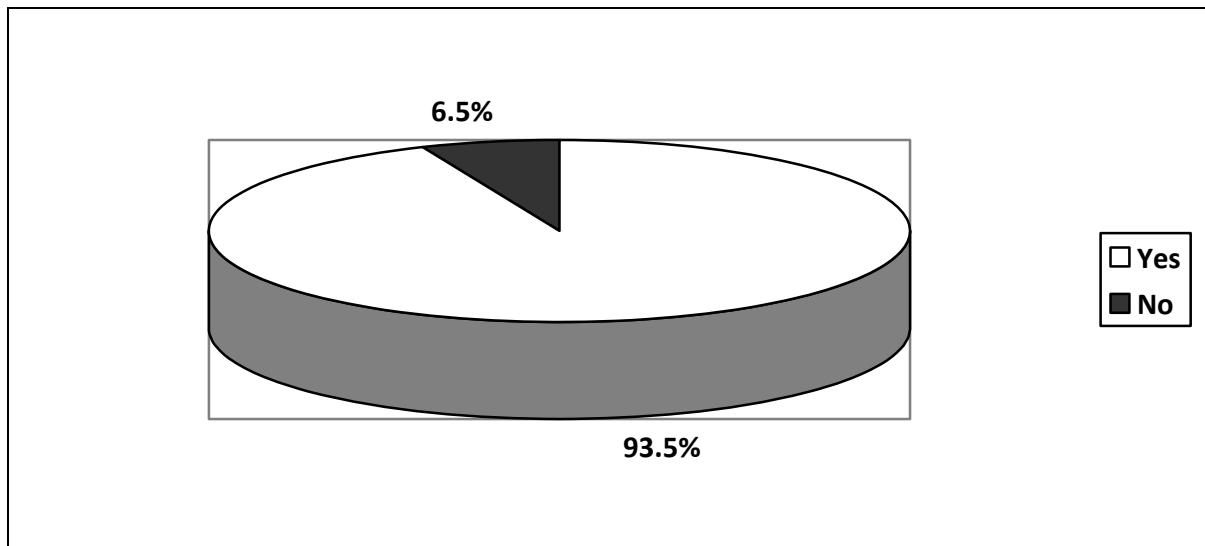


Figure 5.2 reveals the results that have been discovered in most of the households in Sebayeng during data collection. Ninety three and half percent (93.5%) of the households in the Sebayeng Village have highlighted that culture is one of the main factors that encourages gender inequalities at both a community and household level. The majority of the respondents support the fact that culture and tradition encourages gender inequality. According to one of the respondents, *“men have been given the authority to be the leaders of their households and communities from birth; both nature and culture have designed men to be the main decision makers, the heads of the households and the bread winners.”* The source adds that *“a man is superior to a woman, therefore a woman is supposed to listen to a man at all times.”* Culture has therefore never treated women the same way as it treats men. Men have always been free to make choices and decisions. Women, on the other hand, have and are still oppressed by the cultural systems in their community when it comes to decision making, inheritances, and positions that they should hold at both the domestic and economic realm. Culture has designed women to be more of a domestic material than an economic material; it has designed women to have access to subordinates position at an economic realm. For example, women have been and are still given employment

opportunities such as domestic workers, secretaries, coffee making, and event organising positions while men are seen as managers and leaders in an economic environment. In a domestic realm, women are their household managers and designers that take care of everything; this is contrary to the economic realm because women are limited from working as managers and leaders as far as the economic environment is concerned. Culture does not encourage women to participate in an economic realm because there is a misperception that associates women with a domestic world only and men with an economic realm because men are viewed as the bread winners.

This is the case because men are the heads of the households and the main decision makers. Therefore, it is likely that they undermine and oppress the decisions that are made by women, and they underestimate women's capacity and abilities. They continue to argue that culture has a way of encouraging gender inequality to occur in their households and community. For example, a female and a male are not treated equally, and they are not assigned the same responsibilities in the household. A female is responsible for washing dishes, cooking, doing laundry, and other domestic chores in the household; and a male is responsible for taking care of the livestock, doing garden, fixing broken appliances and equipments, and washing cars. In simpler terms, men and women are not the same biologically, socially, and physically. Men and women are not treated equally when it comes to inheritances; men inherit important and valuable assets and resources such as land and livestock unlike women, depriving women of inheritance rights has become a sacred norm.

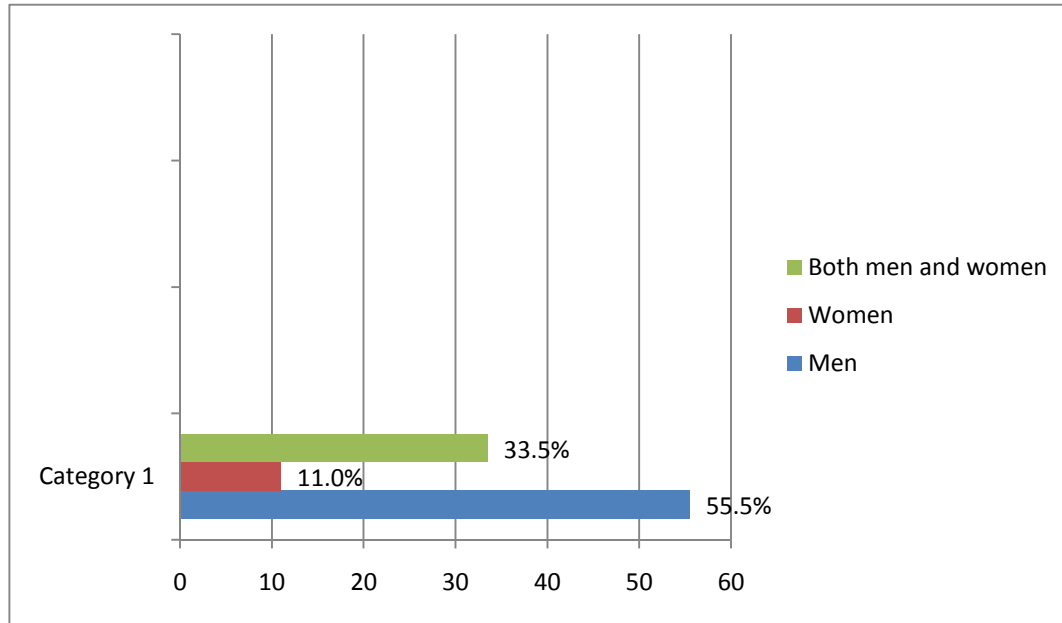
Conversely, a minority opinion of 6.5% respondents suggests that the gender inequality in Sebayeng Village has nothing to do with culture and tradition (Figure 5.2). This group of respondents appear to have one commonality in terms of age and gender. They are mostly old male respondents. These respondents appear to dominate the community structures in terms of their positions in the traditional authority.

5.4.3. The Responsibility for Productive Roles such as Paid Work and Self-Employment in the Households

The nature and level of gender inequality is predominant in the rural households because it is also reflected in the roles and responsibilities that both men and women are supposed to play in the households and community. It has been documented that despite all the myths of equal societies in rural areas, women are still assigned roles that are mostly associated with domestic duties while men are associated with economical activities (Adar, 1996; Midgley, 2006). For instance, women are always subordinates to men; they are normally assigned to hold lower positions such as domestic workers, secretarial, coffee making, and event organizing positions. In certain instances, women are paid lower wages as compared to men, even when the job is of the same level (Midgley, 2006; and Mudege and Ezeh, 2009). It is evident that gender inequality is still persistent in the rural areas in most of the developing countries. It is in this context that the responsibility for productive roles such as paid work and self-employment in Sebayeng Village was investigated.

Men are perceived and viewed as the bread winners of their household, and they always get the first preferences when it comes to employment opportunities. Even if men and women have the job of the same level, they always get higher incomes than women. The crucial reason for probing here is to show a clear and meaningful emphasis that gender inequality is reflected on the division of labour in the economic sphere. This biased responsibilities of who should do a certain paid work and who should not do it is the reason why there is a high level of men in the economic environment than their female counterparts. It is therefore important to investigate this aspect in order to achieve gender equality in both a household and an economic realm. It is in this context that the section discusses who is responsible for productive work (i.e. paid work and self-employment) between men and women in the households of Sebayeng Village. Figure 5.3 presents the results on the responsibility for productive roles such as paid work, and self-employment between men and women in the Sebayeng households.

Figure 5.3: The Responsibility for Productive Roles Such as Paid Work and Self-Employment in the Households



According to figure 5.3 a large percentage of men (55.5%) in Sebayeng indicated that they are responsible for productive roles such as paid work like formal, informal and self-employment. Eleven percent (11%) of women are responsible for productive roles such as self-employment (e.g., spaza shops, selling vegetables, and selling food beverages at the schools); the 11% of some of the women are also responsible for informal employment (e.g. domestic workers). Thirty three and half percent (33.5%) of both men and women are responsible for productive roles which includes self-employment, formal employment (e.g., teachers and nurses), and informal employment (e.g., gardeners, domestic workers and security guards). According to these findings, a large percentage of men only are responsible for productive roles as compared to women only. This is motivated by the fact that naturally and culturally, a man is supposed to be the main provider for the household. The evidence that was gathered during data collection revealed a high level of gender inequality based on the responsibility for productive roles between men and women in the households. It is evident that men and women are not treated equally both at a community and

household level. This is mainly because of their biological nature and because of their traditional and cultural norms and beliefs.

However, some of the households are trying to equalise these two genders as far as employment opportunities are concerned. For example, in certain households women are allowed to be independent and work for certain farms, and companies. Figure 5.3 shows that 11% of women are responsible for productive roles, some are single and some are married. The married ones have highlighted that their husbands do not have any problem with the fact that they are working. Their jobs are very important because they help to improve the standard of living in their households, and they are able to meet most of their basic needs.

In certain households men are against the issue of having a career woman or a woman who is working. Most men have highlighted that one of the main reasons they do not allow their women to work is that *“once women are independent they tend to disrespect their men”*. Additionally, one male source adds that *“beside the fact that women disrespect their men because of their independency; men feel a sense of manhood when they provide for their families than when they are provided by their women.”* Basically, it is the duty of a man to be a bread winner for his household. Providing for a family and maintaining the household’s needs give a man some kind of a reputation and dignity in the community. However, women feel that they are treated unfairly, and they are oppressed by cultural and traditional beliefs and norms.

5.4.4. The Responsibility for Domestic Duties, Child Care, and Care of the Elderly and the Sick in the Households

One of the indicators of gender inequality is gender relations within the household; this is with regard to the division of labour over domestic tasks (Jerry and Gerson, 2004). In the households, women are involved in domestic work primarily in domestic tasks such as cooking, doing laundry, and taking care of children and older relatives while men

hardly get involved in the domestic labour. This is still far from an equal sharing of housework. Full-time working mothers still do a second shift at home, and they have less free time than their husbands. The disparity is reflected in most rural households. This factor mainly operates at the household level and it has proved its importance in explaining variations in gender disparities. Gender relations are not only formed within the intimate relations of the households, they are also constructed within the public and community level (Jerry and Gerson, 2004). Gender relations are traditionally and socially constructed. The probed aspect in this variable was the responsibility for domestic duties such as cooking, doing laundry, child care, and care of the elderly and the sick in the household. It is in this regard that the importance of this investigation was to present evidence that gender inequality is also embodied in the domestic division of labour in the household level. The results in this regard indicated as follows:

Figure 5.4: The Responsibility for Domestic Duties, Such as Cooking, Child Care, Care of the Elderly and the Sick

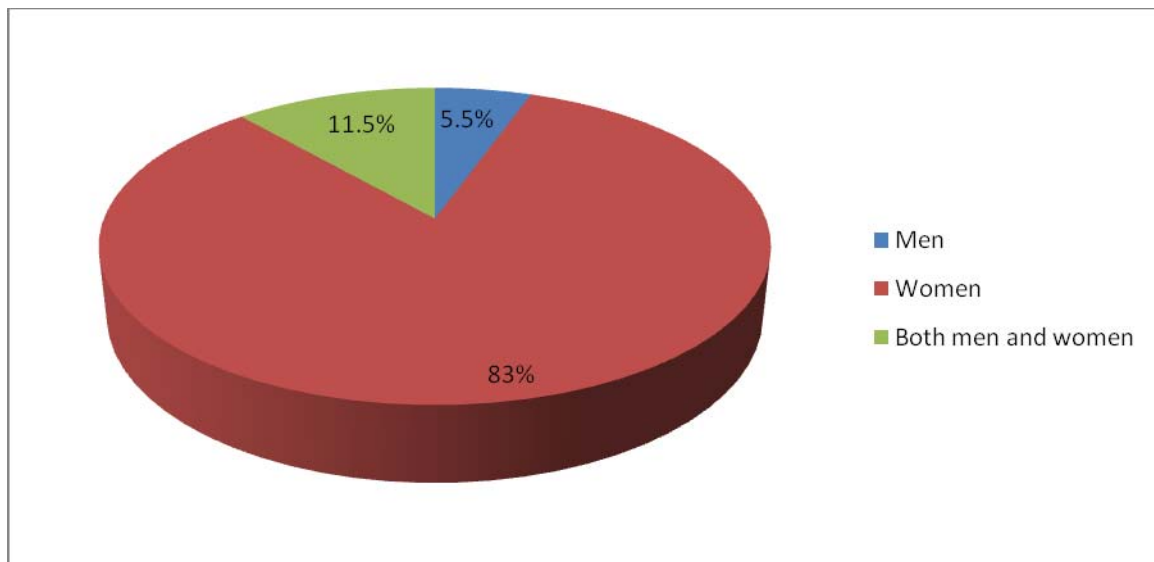


Figure 5.4 illustrates the level of gender inequality with regard to who is responsible for the domestic work of the households. Culture, nature, and tradition have designed and viewed men and women differently. These three aspects have associated women with domesticity rather than economic duties, and men with an economic realm. Women of Sebayeng village just like other women in most rural areas are the main designers and

managers of their households and their community at large. These women are responsible for cooking, washing dishes, doing laundry, volunteering for development of their village, taking care of the children, the sick and the elderly. They are also responsible for taking care of their family farms without getting any remuneration and payment. They are forced to work at their family farms and also do households duties at the same time. Despite all these, their efforts and participation are still undermined and unacknowledged by their communities and their society. The main reason is that culturally and traditionally women are supposed to perform these particular duties which are seldom regarded as 'real work'.

The results show that 83% of women are responsible for domestic duties such as cooking, cleaning, washing dishes, doing laundry, and taking care of the children, the sick and the elderly. The results indicate that women are the ones who take good care of their households by cooking, washing dishes, doing laundry, taking care of the children, the sick and the elderly. According to one woman in the village, *“Culturally, it is not a man’s job to do all these domestic duties, unless the man is unmarried. Women are taught all the domestic duties from a young age; it is within them to know what their responsibilities are as far as domesticity is concerned. A man’s duty is to provide for the household and a woman’s duty is to take care of her husband and their children.”* However there are men who prefer to help with domestic chores. As an evidence of the latter statement, figure 5.4 also illustrates that 5.5% of men are responsible for taking care of the households by doing the domestic duties, but they are not doing all the domestic duties. Most of these particular men can cook and help on ploughing in their family farms. The activity for doing laundry and taking care of the children, the sick and the elderly is seen as a woman’s responsibility. In certain households men and women assist each other where it is necessary. For example, 11.5% (see figure 5.4) of both men and women share domestic duties among themselves, when a woman is doing laundry the man cooks and washes dishes, and this takes the burden off the women. Most women highlighted that it will be useful if men can assist in domestic duties. However, some men still feel that it is not their responsibility to do domestic duties. One source adds that *“it is a taboo to see a man with a baby at the back or to see a man*

doing laundry while he is married. One of the reasons I married my wife is for her to take care of me and the rest of the household”.

5.4.5. Access to Livelihoods Assets

Many rural households need to survive by fulfilling their fundamental basic needs through accessing and utilising their basic assets and resources (Quisumbing, 2003; Ndoye, 2009). However, in fulfilling those needs, household members may in many instances attempt to make separate decisions concerning the use of gender-specific assets and gender-specific production functions in the pursuit of their survival strategies (Quisumbing, 2003). Some of the important livelihoods assets include: human assets (e.g. labour, skills), physical assets (e.g. land, and water), and financial assets (income and capital). It has been well documented that lack of access to assets affects women more than men within the community and households (Rakodi and Lloyds-Jones, 2002). Women's lack of access to livelihoods assets is related to gender inequality. Consequently, this inequalities increase women's vulnerability to poverty. It is vital for women to also have equal access to assets as men as this will provide women with flexible opportunities to earn a living. It is in this context that this subheading investigates the issue of women's access to livelihoods assets both at a community and household level. The fundamental reason for investigating this aspect is to draw a consensus that equal access to resource is vital, and it is a strategy to combat gender inequality. Eventually this will eradicate poverty among rural women. The probed aspects in this subheading were accessibility to human, physical, and financial assets in the village of Sebayeng.

5.4.5.1. Accessibility to human assets in Sebayeng Village

Human assets are related to education, skills, labour, and capacity. Human assets refer to the labour available to the household, its education, skills, and capacity. Human assets are increased by investment in education and trainings, as well as by the skills and capacity acquired through pursuing one or more occupations. Lack of access to human assets is one of the indicators of the level of gender inequality. In rural areas

access to human assets is mostly not open to everyone especially women. This is mainly due to the fact that women do not have equal opportunities as men. Figure 5.5 below presents the results on the accessibility to human assets between men and women in Sebayeng Village.

Figure 5.5: Access to Human Assets Such as Education, Skills, Knowledge and Capacity

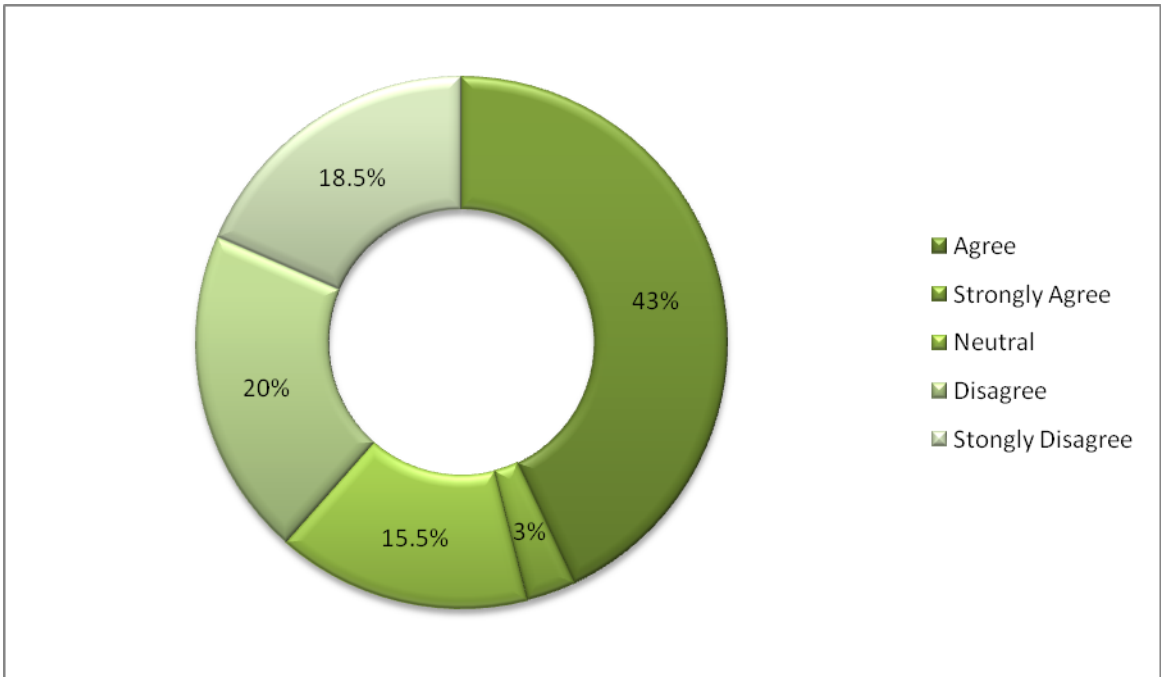


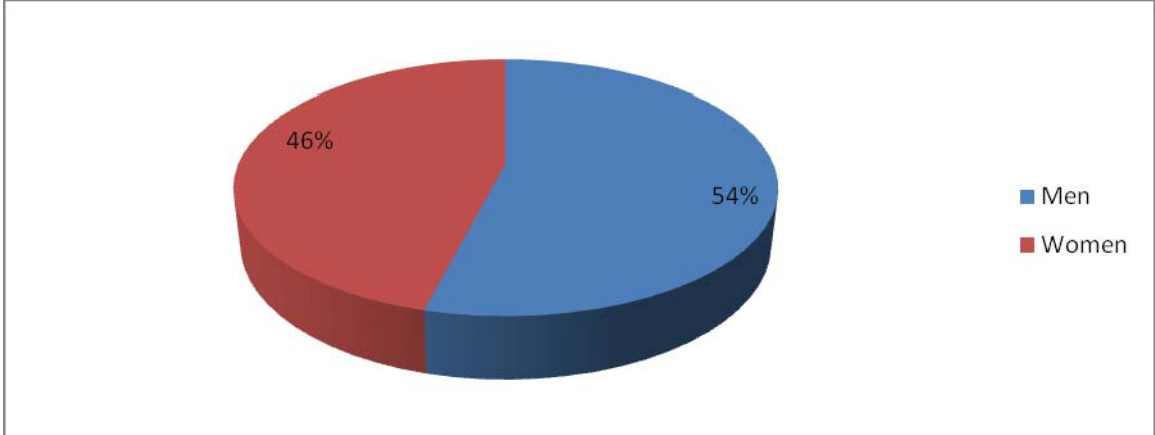
Figure 5.5 shows the level of access to human assets among men and women in the households of Sebayeng Village. Forty six percent (46%) of the households agree that women have access to human assets such as education, skills, capacity, and labour. The households have indicated that both men and women in the households have access to human assets especially education. The households indicated that education is very important; therefore, both genders in the households have the rights to access it. It has been highlighted that having access to education has provided both men and women with skills and capacity, and these has improved women’s ability to make use of those educational skills, knowledge, capabilities, and capacity.

Contrary to the 46% of the respondents that agree that in their households both men and women have equal access to human assets, 35.5% of the respondents indicated that in their households men and women do not have equal access to human assets. The households argue that men always get first preference when it comes to accessing human resources, particularly skills and capacity building strategies. This is due to the fact that men have too much time in their daily lives because they do not have triple roles (i.e. reproductive, productive and community roles) that they are supposed to play. Women do not have time to participate on development issues because they have to do their economic work, of which after that they have to do their domestic work by taking care of their households. Their time is consumed by domesticity in many occasions. Therefore, it is evident that men and women do not have equal access to human resources in the village of Sebayeng.

5.4.5.1.1. Men and women’s access to human assets

This is an extension of the above subsection on accessibility to human assets in Sebayeng. This subsection presents the results on the equality with regard to access to human assets between men and women in the households of Sebayeng. Figure 5.6 presents the exact percentage of the gender that normally gets more access to human assets in the households.

Figure 5.6: Men and Women’s Access to Human Assets



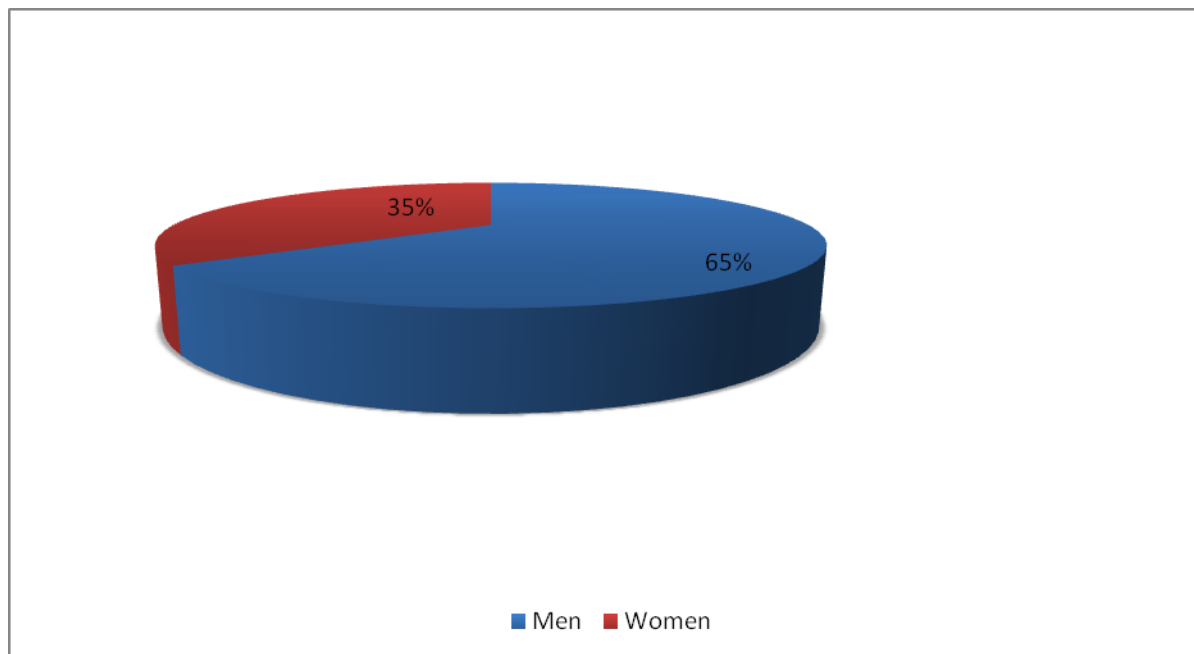
According to figure 5.6, the results continue to show that 54% of men in Sebayeng have full access to human assets such as trainings, labour, capacity, education, and skills. Evidence also shows that the remaining 46% who have access to human assets is made up of women only. Human assets are one of many important assets in achieving sustainable livelihoods diversification. Human assets comprises of capacity, skills, knowledge, education, labour and capability. With no access to this particular asset, it tends to be difficult for women to attain and sustain their livelihoods. In Sebayeng most of the household livelihoods activities especially those that are practiced by women are not easy to maintain and sustain due to poor and lack of access to human resource.

5.4.5.2. Accessibility to physical assets in Sebayeng Village

Physical assets comprise capital such as economic production processes, which includes land, water, buildings, irrigation systems, roads, tools, and machines. Physical assets are very important in the attainment of livelihoods activities and it is regarded as the engine of achieving sustainable livelihoods diversification. Sebayeng Village like many other South African villages depends on subsistence production such as agricultural production. For these households to have massive agricultural production, they should have access to physical assets such as land, water, and machinery like tractors and irrigation systems in order to provide for themselves.

Physical assets such as land and water are very essential in the practice of agricultural activities. Most rural households in Sebayeng Village practice subsistence agriculture. Therefore, lack of access to some if not all of the important physical assets negatively affects the ability of the households to meet its standard needs and priorities. Most households practice agriculture as their survivalist strategy. Physical assets are essential in poverty reduction. It is in this regard that figure 5.7 presents the accessibility of physical assets among men and women in the households of Sebayeng Village.

Figure 5.7: Access to Physical Assets Such as Land



The findings clearly indicate an unfair distribution of physical resources as another major indicator of gender inequality at both a community and a household level in Sebayeng. In this regard, the level of gender inequality is reflected in the allocation and distribution of resources such as physical assets. The findings in Sebayeng revealed that 65% of men only have full access to physical assets in their households. This is the case mainly because men are the ones who take the responsibilities of allocating and distributing assets in the households. Therefore, there is a greater likelihood that they get to allocate more shares of those particular resources to themselves and less shares for their women. This implies that men have the ability to exploit opportunities, especially agricultural opportunities that may arise.

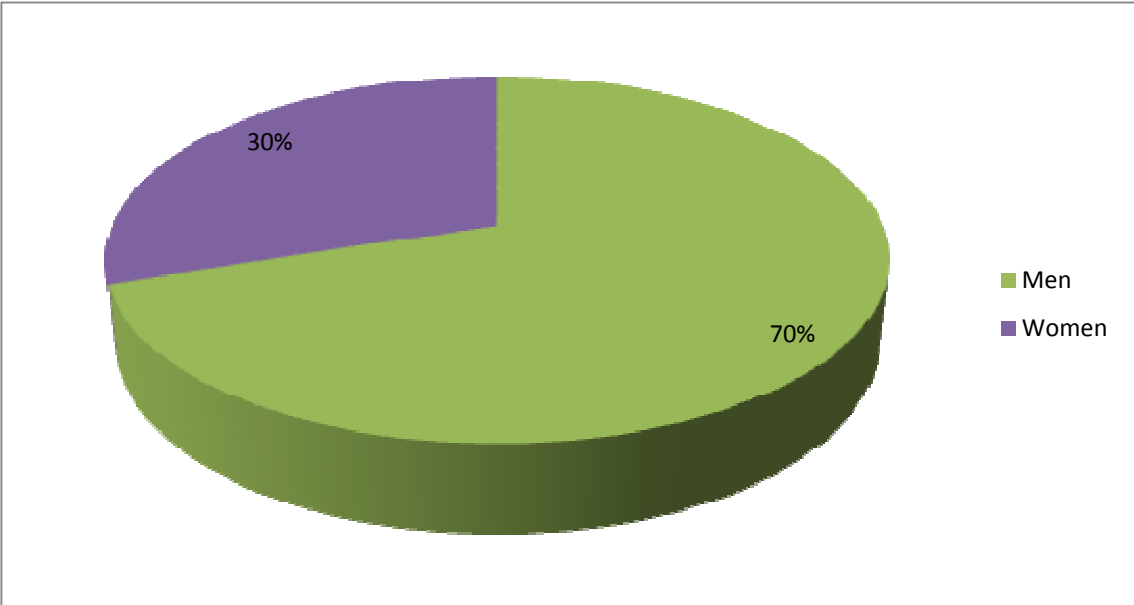
The findings show that only 35% of women have access to physical assets. This basically implies that a large number of women in Sebayeng do not have full access to physical assets. This results in women experiencing the inability to pursue their livelihoods, especially agricultural related practices. It has been discovered that a major reason for women to lack access to physical assets is culture and tradition, which limits women from accessing assets such as land. In Sebayeng Village women are only

allowed to have land to their name if they are widowed or unmarried. Married women can only access land through their men. The issue of inheritance is also another factor that results in men and women not having equal access to physical assets. Culturally, men and women do not inherit the same equal resources. Unlike women, men inherit valuable resources such as land and livestock. Culture, tradition, and nature have their own way of influencing gender inequality in our societies, communities, and households. All these facts have been revealed in Sebayeng Village.

5.4.5.3. Accessibility to financial assets in Sebayeng Village

Financial assets are very important in the household's goal in eliminating poverty and inequalities. The financial assets refer to income from selling the household's livestock and from the paid work and capital such as the money from the small businesses such as *spaza shops* (i.e., small retail enterprises operating from a neighbourhood) and car wash. Figure 5.8 presents the accessibility to financial assets among men and women in the households.

Figure 5.8: Access to Financial Assets Such as Income



The allocation and distribution of financial assets lies in the hands and power of men. The results show that 70% of men in Sebayeng have access to financial assets such as income from the sales of the livestock, paid work, small businesses like *spaza shops* (i.e., small retail enterprises operating from a neighbourhood). This implies that the control and allocation of the finances is a men's responsibility. Men decide what to do with the money and how to distribute it in the family affairs. For example, the sales of agricultural and livestock products (i.e., who is in charge of the sales), the control of the money earned through the sale (i.e., who decide on the spending of the money provided by the sale). The findings in this study show that men as the heads of the households have an absolute control over the sales of the main products from the crop and livestock farming. The sale of agricultural products such as maize and of animals such as oxen, pigs, goats, and sheep, is under the control of men in the households.

The findings illustrate that 30% of women also have access to financial assets in their households. In comparison to men, women have little access to financial assets. The data gathered highlight that, despite their participation, contribution, and efforts in agricultural activities, women have little decision making powers in the spending of the money and in the trading of the main products. It was also found that women manage the sale of poultry and dairy products only (milk and eggs), and the sale of little agricultural products such as vegetables such as cabbage and spinach. This expresses a perception that there is a high level of inequality access to monetary resources between men and women in the village of Sebayeng.

5.5. The Types of Livelihoods Activities Practiced in Sebayeng Village

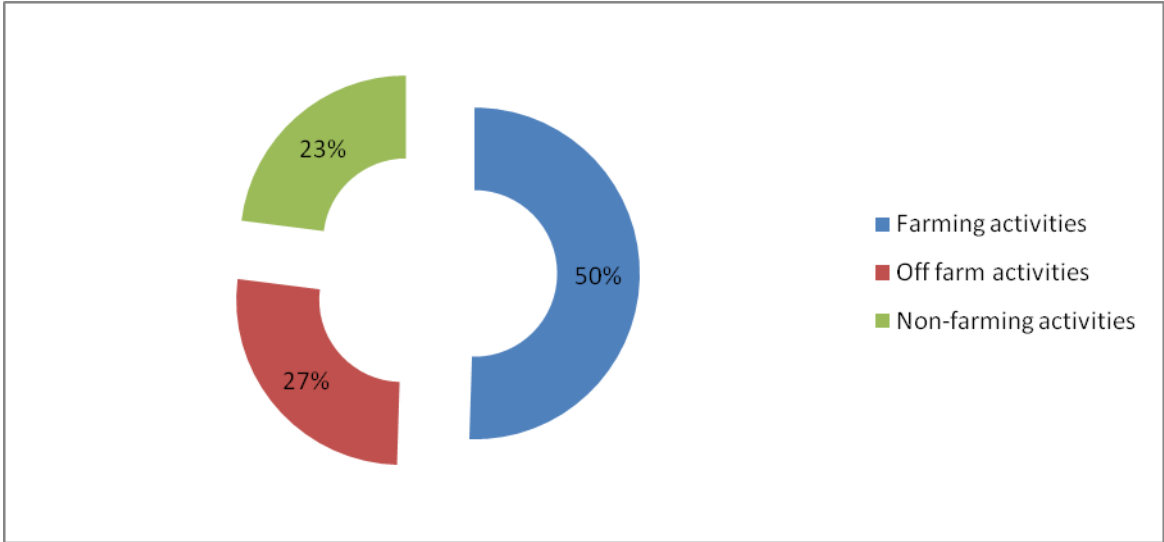
There are number of livelihoods activities that are practiced in Sebayeng Village. Most of the households in the village depends on various livelihoods activities for survival. These rural households typically practice a diversity of survivalist livelihoods. The Sebayeng community is engaged in a wide range of livelihoods activities in order for them to get out of the poverty trap, to achieve food security, and to generate income. For instance, these households have created a living from various sources such as

agricultural production, trading, self-employment, casual and permanent employment, remittances and grants. These livelihoods activities are associated with poverty reduction strategies that are adopted by poor households. These strategies are also regarded as goals for achieving food security. It is in this regard that this subsection is based on investigating the types of livelihoods activities that Sebayeng households are engaged in. The aspects that are investigated in this subheading are farming activities, off-farm activities, and non-farming activities.

5.5.1. Farming Activities

In this thesis, (*Supra*: 35) it was highlighted that farming is important in the rural households as both a poverty reduction mechanisms and as a strategy to achieve food security. Subsistence farming brings opportunities for the households; it can also be associated with the withdrawals of critical labour inputs from the family farms; it also exploit women by overburdening them with too much work such as harvesting, planting, cultivating and weeding. The products that are produced in subsistence farming include foods such as maize, beans, spinach, beetroots, cabbage, and carrots. In certain cases, these products serve as an income generating mechanisms whereby they are sold to other community members.

Figure 5.9: Farming Activities as a Main Livelihoods Activity Practiced in Sebayeng Households

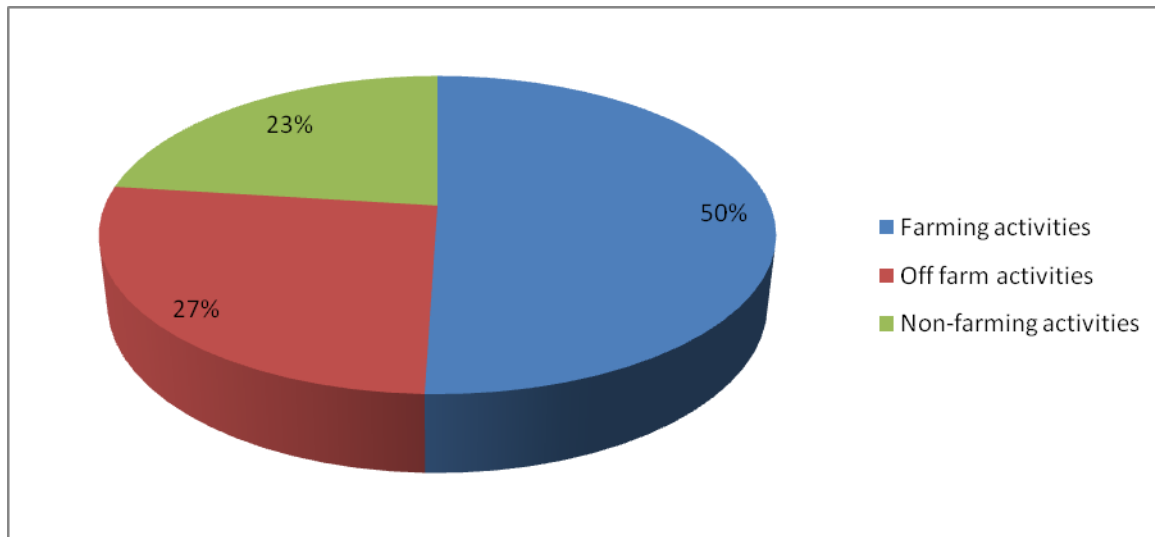


According to figure 5.9, the findings that were revealed from Sebayeng Village during data collection highlight that 50% of the households practice farming activities as their main livelihoods activity. Farming activities comprises two types: crop farming and livestock farming which includes poultry. Farming is very much common in rural households of Sebayeng and it is regarded as the major survival strategy. It contributes positively to the households because it reduces food insecurity, and poverty, and it also brings socio-economical opportunities for the households. Farming is practiced in household's yards, in the farms that belong to the households, or on any piece of an empty space. The crops are mostly associated with basic foods such as maize, beans, spinach, beetroots, carrots, and cabbages, and these crops are primarily for self-consumption. In other cases, crops are sold to other community members as a way of generating income. Livestock farming is also very common in the households. Livestock farming in Sebayeng comprises cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, and chickens. These animals are sold to other members of the community, for example cows are sold in social gatherings such as weddings and funerals. Livestock provides products such as milk, eggs, and meat, and by selling these products households generate an income. In a nutshell, for poor households of Sebayeng farming constitutes a major food source and for the better-offs farming is an additional source of foods for the households.

5.5.2. Off-Farm Activities

In this thesis (*Supra: p.39*), it has been well documented that off-farm activities is recognised as the most common method of generating income, and it is also an important factor driving poverty reduction. It has been indicated that off-farm activities is rising steadily in the rural areas of many developing countries (Fan, Zhang and Zhang, 2002). Off-farm employment does not only provide the households with income, it also provides them with job opportunities, skills and capacity building opportunities that they can utilise in future. Off-farm employment has improved the lives of the rural households. Figure 5.10 presents off-farm activities in Sebayeng Village.

Figure 5.10: Off-Farm Activities as a Main Livelihoods Activity Practiced in Sebayeng Households



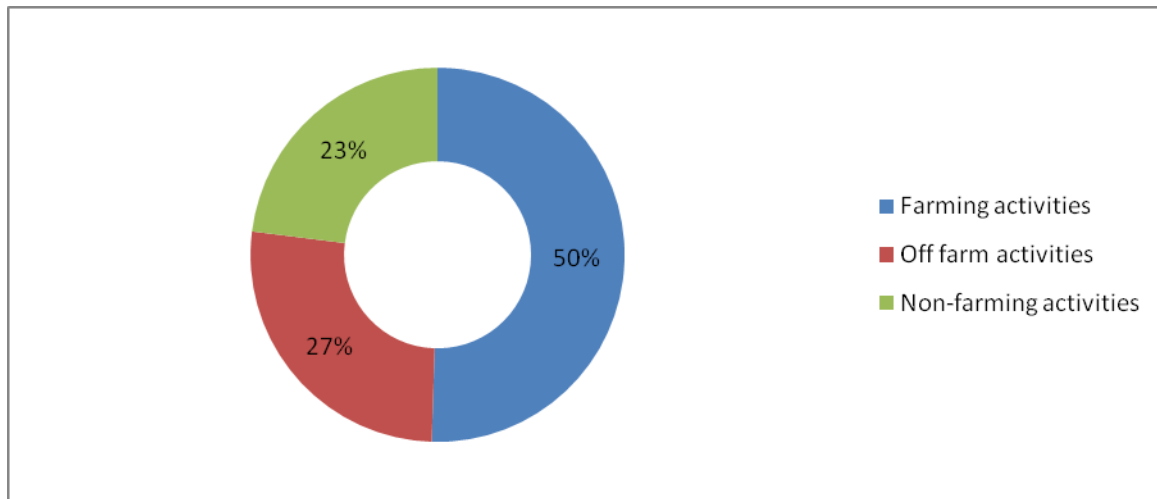
The findings in figure 5.10 show that 27% of the households in Sebayeng depends on off-farm activities as their main livelihoods activities. The Sebayeng off-farm livelihoods activities comprises of permanent jobs such as nursing, teaching, police work, secretarial and administration clerk related employment, seasonal or casual jobs, wages related jobs such as shop keeping, security guarding, domestic, labour work, and work in neighbouring commercial farms. This activity is recognised as an income generating factor in most of the households in the community. The 27% of the households that are relying on off-farm activities believe that this particular activity provides them with better sustainable income than farming, remittance, social grants, and non-farming activities.

5.5.3. Non-Farming Activities

This activity is associated with both earning and unearning of income. Earning of income refers to activities such as traditional healing, shoe repairing, welding. The non-earning part is associated with fetching of fire woods and collection of water from the water sources. This particular activity is unreliable and unviable as it provides low

income for the households. This normally depends from community to community in rural settings (DFID, 2000). This subsection presents the results with regard to the impacts that are made by these particular activities.

Figure 5.11: Non-Farming Activities as a Main Livelihoods Activity Practiced in Sebayeng Households



The above figure 5.11 illustrates that 23% of the respondents in the households practice non-farming activities. These activities are associated with traditional healing, shoe repairing, welding, and local trades as their main livelihoods activities. However, the households that are practicing non-farming activities as their main livelihoods activities have highlighted that these livelihoods activities are totally unreliable as they are not feasible and viable for their household's survival. They have indicated that the income that they are generating from their non-farming activities is not enough to meet their household needs and priorities. For example one source who is a traditional healer adds that she does not find this particular activity feasible because she has to *"wait for people to come for consultation in order to have income, if they do not come it means there will not be any income. This is a problem because these days most of the people prefer to consult with medical doctors than traditional ones."* It is very important to indicate that most of the households that are practicing this particular activity have to add more activities as a way of diversification.

5.6. The Effects of Gender Inequality on Rural Household Livelihoods Diversification in Sebayeng Village

Gender relations have a way of influencing livelihoods diversification processes. They can influence the relative access to diverse household capital assets by constraining and discouraging the ability to mobilise resources along gender lines. Gender disparities result in a high degree of discrimination with regard to livelihoods diversification among men and women in the households and the community at large. Eventually, this leads to unfair and unequal distribution of resources, poor decision makings, poor participation between genders, poor livelihoods sustainability, and poor or lack of women empowerment. These facts have been proven by the findings in Sebayeng Village. The probed aspects in this section were unfair and unequal distribution of resources, poor decision makings, poor participation between genders, poor livelihoods sustainability, and poor women empowerment.

Based on the results from the study, the majority of the households practice rural household livelihoods diversification as a strategy to survive, but those particular livelihoods more especially those that are practiced by women are not as feasible as they should be. There are a number of reasons why this is normally the case, and these reasons include the issue of gender inequality with regard to management, allocation and distribution of resources both in respective households and in the community at large. Most of the households practicing livelihoods activities lack resources. For instance, in this study area women do not have equal access to resources as men; they do not have access to productive resources and assets such as land, capital, and labour. It is in this context that the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification were investigated in this subsection.

5.6.1. Unfair and Unequal Distribution and Allocation of Resources

South African rural areas have been known of having a problem of gender disparities that usually led to gender biased. Male society has always been the most beneficiary

compared to female society; resources such as land were and are still distributed in their favour. This has been encouraged mostly by the customary laws such as customary marriage law which did not allow women to own property especially productive properties such as land. The law was applied in terms of *the Black Administration Act 38 of 1927*, this law regarded women as perpetual minors and their husbands were regarded as their guardian. This particular law left South African women in a high level of poverty due to the fact that they could not have any kind of ownership, hence the dispossessions that women suffered. The consequences of this law are still reflected in many rural areas even after its annulment.

It has been argued that unfair and unequal distribution of assets between men and women is due to gender disparities. While this encourages men to maintain control over resources, it also encourages women to be subordinates of men. The unequal distribution of assets and opportunities give rise to the level of gender inequalities in the households and communities. This aspect investigated unfair and unequal distribution of assets in the households in the study area. Figure 5.12 illustrates the findings revealed during data collection in the study area.

Figure 5.12: Unfair and Unequal Distribution and Allocation of Resources is an Effect of Gender Inequality on Rural Household Livelihoods Diversification in Sebayeng Village

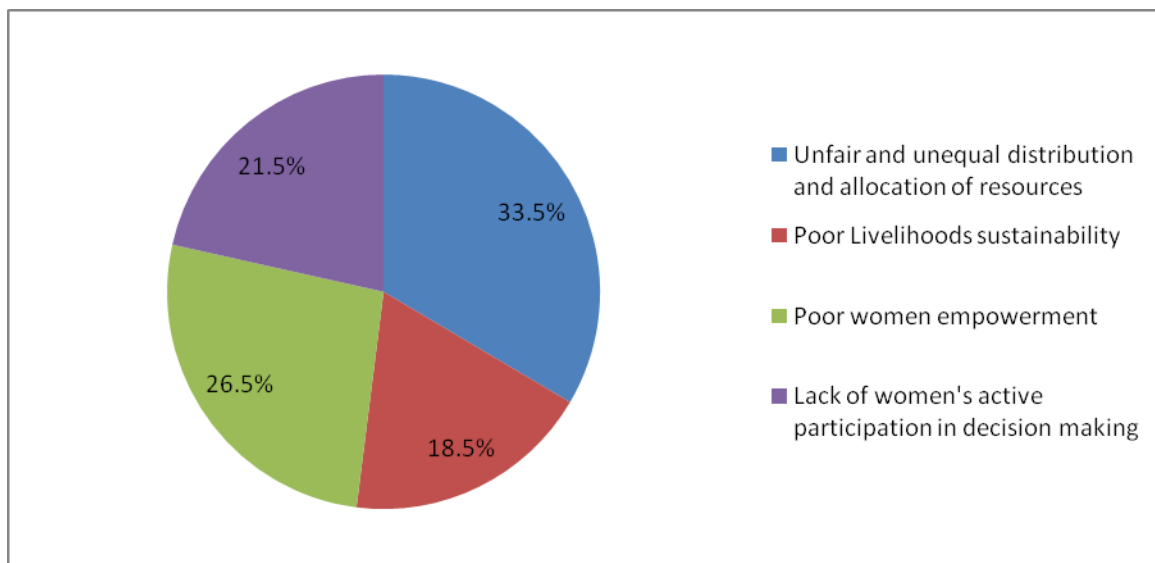


Figure 5.12 illustrates that about 33.5% percent of the households in Sebayeng Village have strongly highlighted that the issue of unfair and unequal distribution and allocation of productive resources is one of the primary factors that affect household livelihoods diversification in a negative manner. These resources include, land, time, finance, credits and loans, livestock, buildings, technological machineries like tractors and irrigation systems, information, and skills trainings. Some respondents have clearly indicated that they do have access to some of these resources but the issue is that they do not have full ownership of those assets. They have to ask for permission every time they need to use them, and in some cases, these resources are distributed in an unequal manner. Most people who are suffering from this problem are women and girls.

One respondent revealed that in her household and many other households in the community *“it is not allowed for women to own a piece of land for agricultural purposes without the husband’s consent.”* The source continues by adding that *“a man is the one who is responsible for assets allocation and distribution especially land and money”*. According to this respondent the issue of resource distribution and allocation is one of the leading factors that hinder the chances of achieving a sustainable livelihoods diversification in the households. However, despite all these challenges, an increasing number of women in Sebayeng Village choose to run their own businesses and livelihoods activities using their skills, knowledge, and the little resources that they have. In so doing, they might be able to achieve sustainable livelihoods diversification that might eventually assist in combating poverty both at a household and community level

The question may arise as to why is there unequal and unfair distribution and allocation of resources in our households and communities. The answer is that there is poor management of resources in the households. The household resource management basically refers to being included in decision making, resource allocation, flexibility in assignment of roles and responsibilities despite one’s gender, and access to and control over resources. In many households of Sebayeng, the decisions are centralised around the management of resources, and decisions are normally taken by men. Generally,

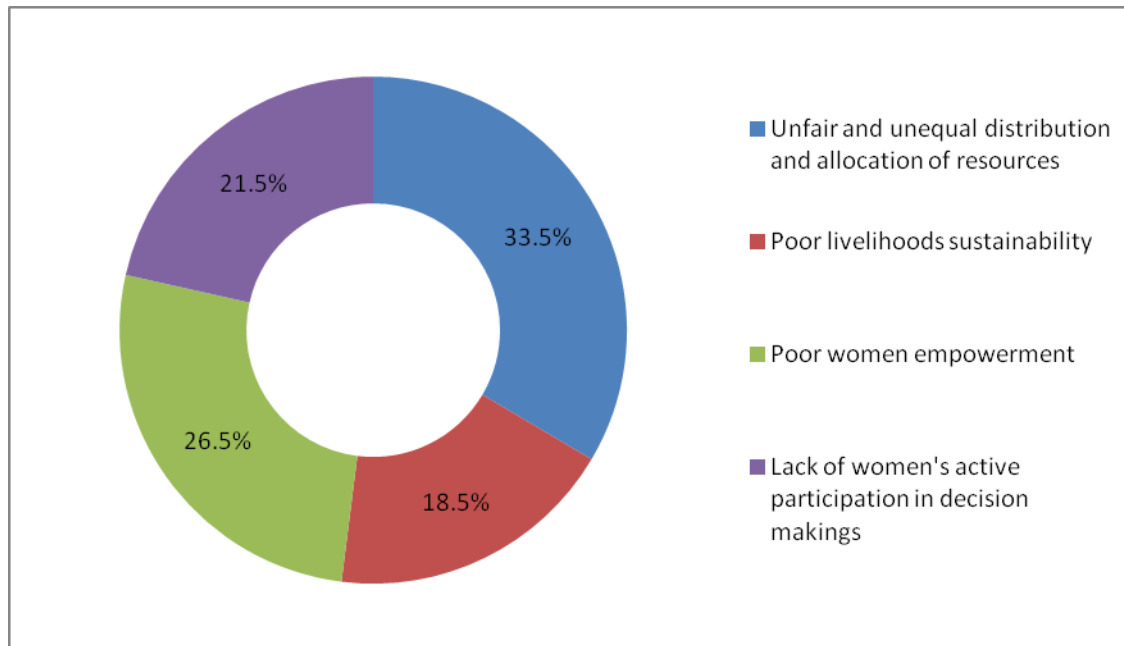
men are dominant in decision making. In most cases women are not vocal when it comes to decision making and distribution of resources.

5.6.2. Poor Livelihoods Sustainability

Gender inequality affects the sustainability of the households' livelihoods. It is difficult for women to sustain their livelihoods; this is due to unequal access to resources between men and women. The process of sustaining the households' livelihoods is complex as it should include the issue of gender equality within its scope. Both men and women should benefit from the livelihoods, but this usually depends on where they live, the household resource management settings, the work they do, and the role they play in the household livelihoods. The sustainability of livelihoods is crucial and it should be associated with both socio-economic opportunities and economic restructuring. These should benefit both men and women (Ellis, 1998, 1999, 2000; D'Hease and Kirsten, 2006).

There is a growing argument that quantitative increases in women's economic participation are not matched by qualitative improvements or better working conditions that can sustain their livelihoods. Relative to men, women still face unequal opportunities for training and retraining, unequal access to productive resources, segregation, unequal participation in economic decision making, unequal sharing of family responsibilities, and greater likelihood of unemployment and of being poor (Ellis, 1998). All these aspects are highly contributing to the issue of poor sustainability of livelihoods among rural women. This subsection investigated the findings that were discovered in Sebayeng village during data collection. Figure 5.13 shows the results from the household with respect to the aspect of poor livelihoods sustainability.

Figure 5.13 Poor Livelihoods Sustainability is an Effect of Gender Inequality on Rural Household Livelihoods Diversification in Sebayeng Village



The results show that poor livelihoods sustainability is also regarded as one of the major cause of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification. According to figure 5.13, 18.5% of the households indicated that gender inequality results in them not being able to sustain their livelihoods. This is mainly because the gender inequalities in their household limit women’s ability to manage and sustain their household livelihoods. In Sebayeng, some women have rights to use land for household and personal crops and as such this results in viable and feasible production of agricultural and economical achievements. While in some households women are allowed to use land through men, this normally results in women not being able to produce viable agricultural products and strengthening their household livelihoods.

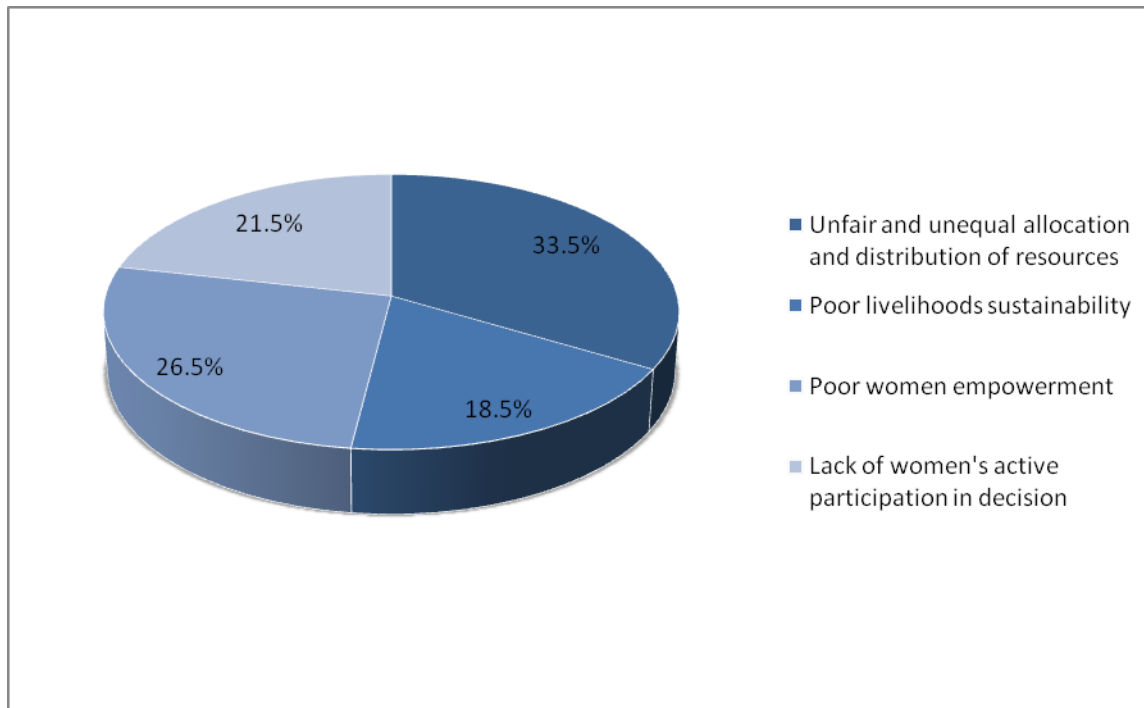
Women should have equal access to resources as men since they are regarded as the managers and designers of the households. Therefore, it is important for them to experience fair and equal distribution of resources because they are the main users and managers of the resources. According to the findings, lack of access to various,

important, and productive resources have resulted in poor livelihoods sustainability, especially those that are practiced by women. Therefore, it is important for women to have full access to resources. The main reason is that women are responsible for providing foods for their households. They secure overall family welfare, and they are somehow the backbone of small-holder of agricultural production.

5.6.3. Poor Women Empowerment

Gender equality and women empowerment complement one another. These two aspects are human rights that lie at the heart of sustaining livelihoods. The aspect of women empowerment should be integrated in the sustainability of the livelihoods and in the poverty reduction in the households of the developing countries. Poor women empowerment is one of many faces of gender inequality. It has been documented that discrimination against women and girls - including gender-based violence, economic discrimination, and harmful traditional practices remains the most pervasive and persistent form of inequality (World Bank, 2006). This is predominant despite all the attempts of introducing women empowerment as an indispensable tool for achieving gender equality, sustainable development, poverty reduction and livelihoods sustainability. Part of mainstreaming gender is to ensure that specific attention is paid to the improvement of the status of women. Since women make up the largest percentage of the poor and unemployed, all poverty alleviation programmes and projects are suppose to target women. Furthermore, because women continue to be the primary care givers in communities, programmes aimed at other vulnerable groups such as children, the elderly, disabled and sick also should target them. Women and girls bear enormous hardship in their communities and households. It is in this regard that this subsection investigated the poor women empowerment as one of the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng Village.

Figure 5.14: Poor Women Empowerment is an Effect of Gender Inequality on Rural Household Livelihoods Diversification in Sebayeng Village



Women in Sebayeng Village have innovative and creative ideas, but they often lack skills, training and capacity to produce them into reality. This is evident where women have initiated their own businesses, vegetables and poultry projects but due to lack of resources some of those businesses and projects have failed. The fact that women initiated those particular projects really shows how innovative and creative women are. Due to poor women empowerment those projects failed because of lack of support, knowledge, skills, capacity and resources. All these facts have been discovered and proven by in the study.

Figure 5.14 shows evidence that 26.5% of the households in Sebayeng indicated that most women are not effectively empowered. This is the case because women do not have access to many opportunities as men do; hence, it is important for women to be given preferences with regard to empowerment. As stated earlier, women are keen to do businesses in order to improve their household's standard of living. The most important thing in pursuing their businesses and their household's livelihoods activities

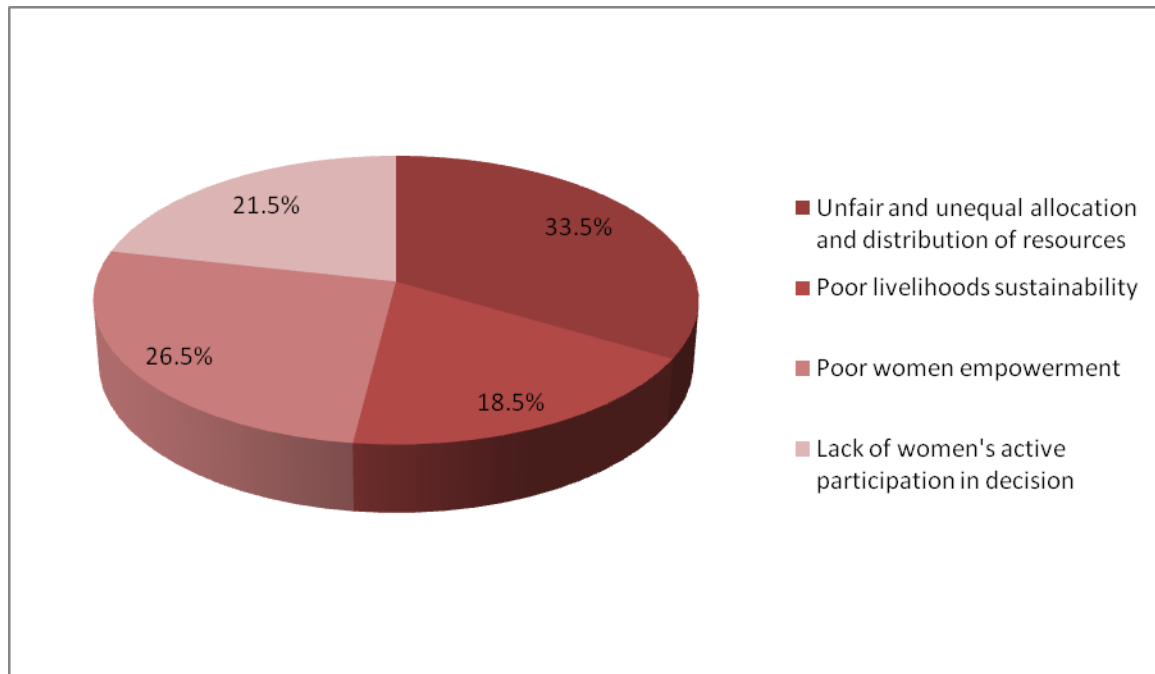
is having access to information, support, skills and trainings that will eventually improve their capacity and capabilities. This will empower women, and it will also ensure sustainability in their livelihoods activities.

5.6.4. Lack of Women's Active Participation in Decision Making

Traditional gender roles, allowed few rights to women. Women rarely take part in decision making, women's share of decision-making and leadership is small. In certain rural areas, women are unable to participate in external social roles and most are illiterate. Traditional and cultural systems are used to prevent women's participation in community life. Many lack proper identification as women, their inputs and ideas were not deemed important.

Heads of households need to ensure women's equal access to and full participation in power structures and decision-making in order to increase women's capacity. Since women and men play different roles in society and therefore have different needs, interests and priorities, it follows that women also cannot be adequately represented in decision-making by men. For effective transformation with regard to allowing women the platforms to actively participate in decision making, recognition and consideration should be based on the fact that women and men have different needs, ideas, interests and priorities arising from their specific roles, experiences, and situations. It should be recognised that women's equal participation in decision making and political life is vital for the advancement of women. Women remain in a position of inequality compared with men partly because their situation, needs and concerns are not even considered in current decision making. This subsection investigated the results that were discovered in Sebayeng village with regard to the issue of lack of women's active participation in decision making on livelihoods as one of the effects of gender inequality on livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng Village.

Figure 5.15: Lack of Women’s Active Participation and Decision Making on Livelihoods Activities



There are various factors that motivate women’s poor participation in decision making both at a community and household level of Sebayeng. These constraints are normally due to cultural, traditional, religious and social norms and beliefs; low level of literacy, lack of information and knowledge, support, and lack of confidence. According to the findings revealed in Sebayeng, it has been indicated that in many cases lack of husband support leads to women’s lack of participation on decision makings with regard to livelihoods activities.

Twenty one and half percent (21.5%) of households in Sebayeng village (see figure 5.15) indicated that gender inequality results in poor participation of women’s ability to make decisions about issues that affect them, especially livelihoods related issues. It has also been highlighted that it is difficult for women to participate mainly because of their multiple reproductive, community, and productive work. It is therefore important to ask women which key activities they would want to participate on. This is mainly because women and men have different needs, ideas, interests, and priorities arising from their specific roles, experiences, and situations. The findings also indicated that

lack of support from husbands and men in the families is a major obstacle for women to participate in decision makings. It is therefore important to consider trainings and other skills development initiatives and gender awareness for both men and women. Venues and time schedules for those particular trainings need to be accessible for women as this will encourage their participation.

5.7. Conclusion

The findings confirm the general observation that gender inequality is still a major problem in rural households of Sebayeng village. Overall, the traditional gender division of labour in the study area is still the dominant situation. This implies that men and women are considered to be unequal in a social, traditional, and economical point of view. Men and women are not assigned the same and equal roles; they do not access the same opportunities, and resources. It has been revealed and confirmed that women's main role and responsibility is housework and caring of children, the sick and the elderly while men are in charge of generating an income for the family.

It has been noted that culture and tradition is one of the main factors that motivates gender inequality in Sebayeng Village. However, the economic factors are changing this traditional division of women and men's work because women are increasingly engaging in various activities that contribute to an income of their families. Among the issue of culture and tradition as one of the factors that encourages gender inequality, other various areas have been discussed in order to have an improved life for all. Aspects such as unfair and unequal distribution of resources, poor women's participation, poor women's involvement in decision making, poor women empowerment, results negatively on household livelihoods diversification.

This chapter focused on the analysis and interpretation of data collected in Sebayeng Village through questionnaires and interviews. This chapter captured the most important and relevant aspects with regard to the effects of gender inequality on rural household

livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng Village. These aspects includes the nature and level of gender inequality in Sebayeng, the types of livelihoods activities in Sebayeng Village, and the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng Village. The researcher shared the opinions, feelings, perceptions and experiences of the respondents in order to achieve these findings and to reach a conclusive conclusion on the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng Village.

In the chapter that follows, the summary, recommendations, and conclusions of the research will be discussed. This Chapter will relate the findings of the study to the general assumption analysed in chapter 2 and 3.

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the summary of the research; it also provides out the recommendations and measures that should be taken into consideration in order to redress gender inequality and potentially improving the chances for livelihoods diversification in rural areas. This chapter also draws a conclusion for the entire research study.

6.2. Summary of the Research

The main purpose of the research was to investigate the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng Village. The research comprised six chapters that intended to realize and achieve research objectives. In achieving such research objectives, the researcher presented the following chapters:

Chapter 1: In this chapter the introduction and background of the study was discussed. The chapter clarified the purpose of the study, the problem statement, the research questions, aim and objectives, literature review, and the significance of the study. The research methodology and ethical considerations were also discussed. This chapter provided the background of the study with regard to the issue of gender inequality and its effects on rural household livelihoods diversification. The reader will be able to learn how the issue of gender inequality unfolds and manifests itself in the society.

Chapter 2: In this chapter both the theoretical and conceptual frameworks were discussed as part of the literature review. The general overview of gender inequality and its effects on rural livelihoods diversification in developing countries was discussed. The key lessons that should be learned in this chapter are: The *first* lesson is gender inequality and rural household livelihoods diversification in this the relationship of both the two concepts is discussed. The *second one* is gender inequality and household resources management; the *third* lesson is gender inequality and allocation of resources

in the households; the *fourth one* is the *triple* role of women; the *fifth* lesson is the nature and level of gender inequality; the *sixth* lesson is the cultural stereotypes and gender inequality; the *last* one is gender inequality and apartheid.

Chapter 3: This chapter also formed part of the literature review. It discussed the importance of rural livelihoods diversification in developing countries. Both the theoretical and conceptual frameworks were adopted in this chapter. Important lessons that should be learned in this chapter are: *firstly*, the types of rural household livelihoods, and the characteristics of rural household livelihoods; *secondly*, rural household livelihoods diversification; *thirdly*, the significance of rural livelihood diversification in this the reader should be able to learn why do rural people diversify and how do rural people diversify; the *fourth*, lesson should be the impacts of livelihoods diversification on rural households in developing countries; and *lastly*, poverty should be reduced by addressing food security through livelihoods diversification.

Chapter 4: This chapter presented the research design and methodology. The study used both a qualitative and quantitative research design. The targeted groups were from the selected households within the Sebayeng Village. Both a purposive sampling and simple random sampling method were adopted and utilised. These methods were advantageous and easier to understand. Each household in the population had an equal chance of being selected for the sample. The reader should be able to know and learn about: the types of research designs that were adopted in the study, the sampling methods that were utilised, and the targeted groups that were selected for the study.

Chapter 5: This chapter discussed the analysis and interpretation of data collected in Sebayeng Village. The responses drawn from both the questionnaire and interview were analysed and interpreted. The researcher was able to come up with good results because during data collection the researcher and the enumerators together with the respondents shared opinions, experiences, views, and perceptions with regard to the issue of gender inequality and its effects on rural household diversification. This chapter

aimed at disseminating information about the findings that were discovered in Sebayeng Village during data collection. There are useful lessons from this chapter:

- *Firstly* the nature and the level of gender inequality.
- *Secondly* the way in which culture and tradition encourages gender inequality in the households.
- The *third* lesson will be on the responsibility of productive roles (i.e. paid work and self-employment) between men and women in the households.
- The *fourth* one is on the responsibility for domestic duties (i.e. child care, care of the sick and the elderly) between men and women.
- The *fifth* lesson is on the accessibility to human assets (e.g. skills and education) between men and women.
- The *sixth* one is on the accessibility of physical assets (e.g. land) between men and women.
- The *seventh* one is on the accessibility to financial assets (e.g. income and capital). The *eighth* one is the types of livelihoods activities practiced in the village.
- And *lastly* the effects of gender inequality in the households which includes: Unfair and unequal distribution and allocation of resources, poor livelihoods sustainability, poor women empowerment, and lack women's active participation in decision making.

Chapter 6: This chapter discussed the conclusions from the research findings. The recommendations and suggestions were also highlighted. The key lesson that should be learned from this chapter is that there is a need for putting measures that could be important in redressing gender inequality and potentially improving the chances for livelihoods diversification. The suggested measures that the readers can benefit from include: fair and equal distribution and allocation of resources, proper household resource management, women's active participation in an economic realm, women empowerment, government's interventions and gender equality awareness campaigns, and the need for future research.

6.3. Recommendations

Gender inequality has negatively affected livelihoods diversification in most of the households in Sebayeng. This research has shown that gender inequality is very predominant in the households and in the community of Sebayeng Village. Based on the findings that were revealed during data collection, the researcher therefore makes recommendations to redress gender inequality and potentially improve the chances for livelihoods diversification in rural areas.

6.3.1. Fair and Equal Distribution and Allocation of Resources

This aspect puts an emphasis on fair distribution of resources among individual household members. The process of distribution of resources should be done in a fair and equal manner, mainly because households' members need to survive by fulfilling their fundamental basic needs through the utilisation of their basic assets and resources. Unfair distribution of resources and assets is one of the main factors that influence gender inequality in both the household and community level. Consequently, women are always the victims of unfair allocation of resources. This is the case because the control and allocation of resources and assets such as education, labour, capital, technology, land, and fertiliser lies in the hands of men. Women have access to these resources and make use of them, but the control and ownership remains in the hands of their men.

6.3.2. Proper Household Resource Management

This aspect is a very crucial mechanism for eradicating and combating gender inequality in the society, community, and households. Household resource management refers to having access and control over resources. Household resource management puts an emphasis on dynamics that are related to decision-making, assigning priorities, resource allocation, and access to and control over resources such as land, water, time, income, capital, and savings.

The findings of the study show that for most households in Sebayeng the decisions around the management of resources are taken by men; generally, men are dominant in decision making. Meaning that women do not have a say in serious and rational matters, men are taking decisions on behalf of women. This is due to the belief that a woman is a subordinate of a man. Therefore, a man as a main decision maker in the household is entitled to make decisions and a woman is forced to give her full support without interrogating any decisions made by a man.

It is important for the government to come up with effective and efficient gender awareness campaigns and projects that will reach all women of the country especially in the remote rural areas. The campaigns should provide women with information on how to exercise their rights, where to go for financial assistance for business purposes, how to come up with an impressive business plan, and how to exploit opportunities and resources available to them. Those particular campaigns should target women and girl children. These will eventually provide them with knowledge, capacity, skills and information that they will use to sustain their livelihoods.

6.3.3. Women's Active Participation in Economic Realm and Women Empowerment

In South Africa women have been previously disadvantaged, oppressed, and discriminated against. This has been the case because of the apartheid system and the cultural and traditional systems. Women's oppression and discrimination is still persistent in both work places and households. Women are discriminated against and continue to be second-class citizens. Due to the high level of gender inequality that is dominating the communities and the households of South Africa.

The study therefore recommends that women should be encouraged to organise and mobilise various resources to improve their situation. Putting issues of gender equality on the agenda of countries and the world is very important because it gives women a

platform to become vocal. This enables them to be active participants and to make crucial and rational decisions. Part of mainstreaming gender is to ensure that specific attention is paid to the improvement of the status of women. Since women make up the largest percentage of the poor and unemployed, all poverty alleviation programmes and projects should target women. Furthermore, because women continue to be the primary care givers in communities, programmes aimed at other vulnerable groups such as children, the elderly, the disabled, and the sick should also target them. Women's rights to valuable resources such as having access to land, credit and education should be at the centre of any women empowerment initiatives. These will be a good mechanism for empowering women and exposing them to new opportunities that will give them capacity, skills, and knowledge.

6.3.4. Government's Interventions and Gender Equality Awareness Campaigns

South African Government is aware of the gender imbalances in social, economic, cultural and political spheres which have prevented females from contributing effectively to and benefiting from the development process of the country. Consequently, the government recognises the importance of gender and the fact that gender issues cut across all areas of development including livelihoods diversification as one of the poverty reduction mechanisms. The government has decided to streamline the institutional framework for gender mainstreaming. However, some of the frameworks, campaigns and initiatives that aim at addressing gender inequality by promoting gender equality and women empowerment are ineffective with regard to implementation, co-ordination, monitoring, and evaluation. It is therefore important for the government to revisit and review its gender equality related frameworks and evaluate what needs to be done in order to achieve gender equality.

Gender is a cross-cutting issue, hence all governmental programmes, projects and campaigns should be gender sensitive. In addition to fostering women's groups and sensitising women, the government should sensitise men at the village level institutions

to encourage constructive debate and synergy on gender issues and strategies. This strategy will help weed out the wrong feeling that gender is against men.

6.3.5. Future research

Putting issues of gender equality on the agenda of every country is very important; hence there is a need for future research. The need for further research is important for these reasons: *Firstly*, since the findings discovered and highlighted that culture and tradition encourages gender inequality in the households, further research should be done on whether the cultural paradigms in rural areas are still the same. The customary laws that treat men and women differently in the rural areas should also be investigated in the future on whether they are still persistent, or if there are any improvements. *Secondly*, the issues caused by gender inequality are dynamic and complex. Therefore, there is a need for future research that should focus on the governmental interventions on the issues of gender awareness campaigns that should make the citizens of the country aware about the necessity of gender balances in the social, economical, political, cultural, and spiritual spheres of life. *Thirdly*, since the study has highlighted women empowerment as one of the recommendations that will assist in the achievement of gender equality, future research should be conducted with regard to women empowerment initiatives their feasibility. Additionally, future research should focus more on the issue of women empowerment and how important it is with regard to poverty reduction and mobilization of resources as a way of improving women's standards of living. *Lastly*, there is a need for future research that should be conducted in order to cover the issues of gender analysis and sustainable livelihoods analysis that will focus on understanding the disaggregation of the rural households and also to have an understanding that the households may have different priorities with regard to livelihood diversification and allocation of opportunities for both women and men in the households and in the communities at large.

6.4. Conclusion

The general observation is that livelihoods diversification is a phenomenon that characterizes the survival and income strategies of individuals and household in rural areas of the developing countries. Additionally, the diversity of livelihoods is an important feature of rural survival but often overlooked by the architects of policy. The study has noticed that gender inequality is traditionally, culturally and socially motivated and constructed; therefore, those particular constructions are the limiting factors for women's active participation in livelihoods diversification at a community and household level.

The findings have revealed that livelihoods that are normally practiced by women are not feasible and viable. This is due to lack of resources, lack of husbandry support, poor household resource management, unfair and unequal distribution of resources, lack of information and knowledge, and lack of skills and opportunities. The already mentioned factors are persistent and dominant in most of the rural areas. The main reason is the high rate of gender inequality in the community and households especially in these rural areas. The cultural stereotypes also encourage the level of gender inequality, which eventually leads to poor viability and feasibility of livelihoods strategies.

The findings continue to reveal that in some households, women have full accesses to resources and assets that they can use to sustain and maintain their livelihoods diversification strategies. However, the ownership and control of those particular assets lies in the hands of the man. No matter how much efforts women puts in their work the credits go to men. Therefore, women's efforts and hard work are not acknowledged and considered.

Gender is a sensitive subject to discuss in the rural areas; it is regarded as a foreign or Western subject. Due to lack of understanding and knowledge, the concept has been accused of discriminating against men. This study therefore recommends constructive debates about gender related issues so that people can have a clear understanding

about the intentions of addressing gender disparities and women empowerment related issues. It is in this way that the society will be able to understand gender issues, and this will help weed out the wrong feeling that gender is against men. Gender is a development issue; hence it forms part of the Millennium Development Goals. Therefore the success of eradicating and combating gender inequalities will determine the success in achieving development that will improve the lives of both men and women in the households, communities, country and worldwide, especially in the developing countries. It is in this regard that the study concludes that one of the tests for the success in gender transformation in South Africa is in releasing the energies of women in the sphere of livelihoods diversification.

REFERENCES

- Abdulai, A. and Crole Rees, A. (2001). Determinants of income diversification amongst rural households in Southern Mali. *Journal of Food Policy*. 26:437-452.
- Adar, G. (1996). *Women in the Changing Kibbutz*. Haifa: Institute for Research on the Kibbutz.
- Adetunji M.O. and Adepoju A. (2009). Household resource management by rural women in Ibarapa East Local Government Area of Oyo State. *Journal of Applied Sciences Research*. 5(6):636-644.
- Akram-Lodhi, A.H. (1997). The unitary model of the peasant households. *Journal of Economic Issues*. 2(1):27-42.
- Argawal, B. (1999). The gender and environmental debate: Lessons from India. *Journal of Feminist Studies*. 18(1):119-158.
- Barrett, C. B., Reardon, T., and Webb, P. (2001). Nonfarm income diversification and household livelihood strategies in rural Africa: Concepts, dynamics and policy implications. *Journal of Food Policy*. 26(4):315–331.
- Barrett, C. B. and Reardon, T. (2000). *Asset, Activity and Income Diversification Among African Agriculturalists, Some Practical Issues*. Project report to the USAID BASIS CRSP, March 2000.
- Berkhout, F., Leach, M., and Scoones, I. (2003). *Negotiating Environmental Change: New Perspectives from Social Science*. UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Berkvens, C.B. (1998). Immerized growth in liberalized agriculture. *Journal of World Development*. 26(5):745-753.
- Briones, A. (2002). *Organic Agriculture and Rural Poverty Alleviation: Potential and Best practices in Asia*. Bangkok, Thailand: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia
- Bryant, L. and Pini, B. (2009). Gender, class and rurality: Australian case studies. *Journal of Rural Studies*. 25(1):48-57.
- de Bruaw, A. and Rozelle, S. (2002). *Household Investment through Migration in Rural China. Working Paper*. University of California: Department of Agricultural and

Resource Economic.

- de Bruaw, A., Huang, J., Rozelle, S., Zhang, L. and Zhang, Y. (2002). The evolution of China's rural labor markets during the reforms. *Journal of Comparative Economics*. 30:329-353.
- Bryceson, D. (2002). The scramble in Africa: Reorienting rural livelihoods. *Journal of World Development*. 30(5):725–739.
- Carr, E.R., (2005). Development and the household: Missing the point? *Journal of Geojournal*. 62(1):71-83.
- Carr, E.R., (2008). Men's crops and women's crops: The importance of gender to the understanding of agricultural and development outcomes in Ghana's Central Region. *Journal of World Development*. 36 (5):900–915.
- Campbell, S., Kozanayi, W., and Luckert, M. (2002). *Household Livelihoods in Semi-Arid Regions: Options and Constarints*. GFOR.
- Countryside Agency (2003). *The Role of Women in the Rural Economy: An Important Rural Resource*. Wetherby: Countryside Agency.
- Chambers, R. and Conway, G. (1992). *Sustainable Rural Livelihood: Practical Concepts For the 21st Century*. UK: Institute for Development Studies.
- Chambers, R. (1997). *Whose reality Counts? Putting the First Last*. Intermediate. London:Technology Publications.
- Chant, S. (1994). Women, work, and household survival strategies in Mexico 1982-1992: Past trends, current tendencies and future research. *Journal of Latin American Studies*. 13(2):203-223.
- Cleaver, F. (1998). Choice, complexity and change: Gendered livelihoods and management of water. *Journal of Agriculture and Human Values*. 15(4):293-299.
- Deere, C.D., Duran, R.L., Mardon, M., and Masterson, T. (2004). *Female Land Rights and Rural Household Incomes in Brazil, Paraguay and Peru*. Working Paper, 2004-08. Amherst: University of Massachusetts.
- Department For International Development(DFID), (1999) *Sustainable livelihood guidancesheets*. http://www.livelihoods.org/info/info_guidanceSheets.html 05 July 2008.

- Dercon, S. and Krishnan, P. (1996). *Changes in Poverty in Rural Ethiopia 1989-1995: Measurement, Robustness, Tests and Decomposition. The Centre for the Study of African Economies Working Paper Series, Paper 71.*The Berkeley Electronic Press, Berkeley.
- D' Hease, L. and Kirsten, J. (2006). *Rural Development Focusing on Small Scale Agriculture in Southern Africa.* Pretoria: University of Pretoria.
- Devereux, S. (1993). *Goats Before Ploughs: Dilemmas of Household Response Sequencing During Food Shortages.* Brighton: Institute for Development Studies.
- De Vos, A.S. (1998). *Research at Grass Roots: A Primer for the Caring Professions.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Dolan, R.J., (2002). Emotion, cognition and behaviour. *Journal of Science.* 298:1191-1194
- Ellis, F. (1998). Survey article: Household strategies and rural livelihood diversification. *Journal of Development Studies.* 35(1):1–38.
- Ellis, F. (1999). The Determinants of rural livelihood diversification in developing Countries. *Journal of Agricultural Economics.* 51(2):289-302.
- Ellis, F. (2000). *Rural Livelihood Diversity in Developing Countries: Analysis, Policy, and Methods.* Cambridge: Cambridge University.
- Ellis, F. and Mdoe, N. (2003). Livelihoods and rural poverty reduction in Tanzania. *Journal of World Development.* 31(8):1367-1384.
- Fan, S., Zhang, L. and Zhang, X. (2002). *Growth, Inequality and Poverty in Rural China: The Role of Public Investments.* International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) Research Report No. 125. Leading Group for Poverty Reduction (LGPR) and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), and the World Bank. 2000. China Overcoming Rural Poverty. Report No. 21105-CHA.
- FAO. (2003). *Gender and Development Plan of Action.* FAO.
- Foeken, D., and Owuor, S.O. (2001). *Multi-Spatial Livelihoods in Sub-Saharan Africa: Rural Farming by Urban Households: The Case of Nakuru Town, Kenya.* Kenya: Brill Publications.

- Friedman, E., and Marshall, J. (2004). *Issues of Gender*. New York: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Gladwin, C.H. (2001). Addressing food security in Africa via multiple livelihood strategies of women, *Journal of Food Policy*. 26(2):177-207.
- Hargreaves, J. (1997). *Sporting Females: Critical Issues in the History and Sociology of Women's Sport*. Routledge: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group.
- Illiya, M.A. (1999). *Income Diversification in the Semi-Arid Zone of Nigeria: Gigane, Sokoto, North-west Nigeria. Working Paper, 39*. Kano: Center for Documentation and Research and Leiden. African Studies Center.
- International Labor Organisation (ILO), (2000). *Gender and Natural Disasters. In Focus Programme on Crisis Response and Reconstruction Working Paper 1, September 2000*, Compiled By E. Enarson for ILO, Geneva.
- Jerry, A. and Gerson, K. (2004). *The Time Divide: Work, Family, and Gender Inequality*. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.
- Kabeer, N. (1994). *Reversed Realities: Gender Hierarchies in Development Thoughts*. London: Verso.
- Kabeer, N. (2000). Social exclusion, poverty and discrimination. *IDS Bulletin*. 31(4):83-97.
- Kepe, T. (1997). Communities, entitlements and nature reserves: the case of the Wild Coast, South Africa. *IDS Bulletin*. 28(4):47–58.
- Kepe, T., Cousins, B. 2002. *Radical Land Reform is Key to Sustainable Rural Development in South Africa*. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape.
- Kirjavanien, L.M. (2008). *Time Use and its Value in Household Production in Finland and the US*. Helsinki: The University of Helsinki.
- Kleinbooi, K. and Lahiff, E. (2007). Die man is die hoof en vat voor: Women's attitudes to land and farming in the communal areas of Namaqualand. *Journal of Arid Environments*. 70:799–817.
- Kunfaa, E.Y. Dogbe, H.J. Mackay, C and Marshall, (2001). Empty pockets. *In Voices of The Poor. From Many Lands*. Accra: Ghana Publishing Corporation.
- Laurie, N. Dwyer, C. Holloway, S. Smith, F. (1999). *Geographies of New Femininities*. Harlow: Pearson Education.

- Leedy, P. (1997). *Practical Research Planning and Design*, (6th edn). New York: Prentice-Hall Inc. Publisher.
- Little, J. (1997). Constructions of rural women's voluntary work. Gender, place and Culture. *Journal of Feminist Geography*. 4(2):197-210.
- Maxwell, S. and Kenway, P. (2000). *New Thinking on Poverty in the UK. Any Lessons for the South?* ODI Poverty Briefing No.9. London: ODI.
- May, J., Carter, M. R. and Posel, D. (1995). *The Composition and Persistence of Rural Poverty in South Africa: An Entitlements Approach*. LAPC Policy Paper No. 15, Land and Agricultural Policy Centre, Johannesburg, July.
- Meagher, K. (2001). *The Bargain Sector: Economic Restructuring and the Non-Farm Sector in the Nigerian Savanna*. Aldershot: Ashgate
- Meer, Y., and Mlaba, D. (1982). *Apartheid our Picture*. South Africa: Institute for Black Research.
- Meer, S., (1997). *Introduction in Women, Land and Authority: Perspectives from South Africa*. Cape Town: Oxfam.
- Midgley, J. (2006). Gendered economies: Transferring private gender roles into the public realm through rural community development. *Journal of Rural Studies*. 22(2):217–231.
- Moser, C. O. N. (1993). *Gender planning and development: Theory, practice and training*. London: Routledge.
- Moser, C.O.N. (1996). *Confronting Crisis: a Comparative Study of Household Responses to Poverty and Vulnerability in Four Poor Urban Communities*. *Environmentally Sustainable Development Studies and Monographs Series No. 8*. Washington DC: The World Bank.
- Mudege, N. and Ezeh, A. (2009). Gender, aging, poverty and health: Survival strategies of older men and women in Nairobi. *Journal of Aging Studies*: 23:245–257.
- Mustapha, A.R. (1999). *Cocoa Farming and Income Diversification in South-western Nigeria*. *Working Paper, vol. 42*. Kano: Center for Documentation and Research

- and Leiden. African Studies Center.
- Neuman, S. (1991). *Occupational Sex Segregation in the Kibbutz: Principles and Practice*. Kibbutz: Institute for Research on the Kibbutz.
- Neuman, W. (2003). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.
- Nevo, N. (1986). *Unpaid Work in the Rural Family in Cooperative Farming*. Israel: Israeli Social Science Research.
- Niehof, A. and Price, L.L. (2001). *Rural Livelihood Systems: A Conceptual Framework. Wageningen-UPWARD Series on Rural Livelihoods no. 1. WU-UPWARD*. Netherlands: Wageningen.
- Niehof, A. (2004). The significance of diversification for rural livelihood systems. *Journal of Food Policy*. 29(4):321-338.
- Orr, A. (2001). Adapting to adjustment: smallholder livelihood strategies in Southern Malawi. *Journal of World Development*. 29 (8):1325–1343.
- Palgi, M. (1994). *Women in the Changing Kibbutz Economy*. Haifa: Institute for Research on the Kibbutz.
- Papanek, H. (1990). To each less than she needs, from each more than she can do: Allocations, entitlements, and value. In *Persistent Inequalities: Women and World Development*, Tinker, I. (edn). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Pearce, J., Ngwira, A. and Chimseu, G. (1996). *Living on the Edge. Save the Children*. UK, London.
- Petersen, J.S., Tembo, L., Kawimbe, C., and Mwang'amba, E. (1999). *The Zambia Integrated Agroforestry Project baseline survey: Lessons Learned in Chadiza, Chipata, Katete and Mambwe Districts, Eastern Province, Zambia*. Zambia: Ministry of Agriculture, Food, and Fisheries.
- Pini, B. (2005). The third sex: women leaders in Australian agriculture. *Journal of Gender, Work and Organisation*. 12(1):73-88.
- Pini, B. (1994). A critique of new regional governance: the case of gender in a rural Australian setting. *Journal of Rural Studies*. 22(4):383-402.
- Quisumbing, A. R. and Haddad, L. (1998). Gender issues for food security in developing countries: implications for project design and implementation. *Journal of*

- Development Studies*.19:185-208.
- Quisumbing, A. R. (2003). *What have we learned from research on intrahousehold allocation? In Household decisions, gender, and development: a synthesis of recent research*. Washington: IFPRI.
- Rakodi, C., and Lloyds-Jones, T. (Eds.). (2002). *Urban Livelihoods: A People-Centred Approach to Reducing Poverty*. London: Earthscan.
- Reardon, T. (1997). Using evidence of household income diversification to inform study of the rural nonfarm labor market in Africa. *Journal of World Development* 25 (5):735–747.
- Saith, A. (1992). *The Rural Non-Farm Economy: Processes and Policies*. Switzerland: International Labor Organisation (ILO).
- Seaberg, J.R. (1988). Utilizing sampling procedures. *In Social Work Research and Evaluation: (3rd edn)*. Peacock: Itasca.
- Schmeer, K.K. (2005). Married Women’s Resource Position and Household Food Expenditures in Cebu, Philippines. *Journal of Marriage and Family*. 67(21):399-409.
- Scoones, I. (1998). *Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: a Framework for Analysis. Institute for Development Studies, Working paper, 72*. Brighton, UK: University of Sussex.
- Sen, A. (1990). Gender and cooperative conflict. In *Persistent Inequalities: Women and World Development*. Tinker, I. (edn). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Shackleton, C.M., Shackleton, S.E., and Cousins, B. (2001). The role of landbased strategies in rural livelihoods: the contribution of arable production, animal husbandry and natural resource harvesting in communal areas in South Africa. *Journal of Development of Southern Africa*.18 (5):581–604.
- Shackleton, S.E. (2005). *The Significance of Local-level Trade in Natural Resource Products for Livelihoods and Poverty Alleviation in South Africa*. South Africa, Rhodes University, Grahamstown: Unpublished PhD Thesis.
- Swaminathan, P. (1998). *Reproductive Health from a Women and Work Perspective: Issues for Consideration” in Women on Track*. New Delhi: Women’s Health Studies Research Centre.

- Swanepoel, H., and De Beer, F. (2006). *Community Development: Breaking the Cycle of Poverty*, (4th edn). Lansdowne: Juta and Co Ltd.
- Tellegens, N. (1997). *Rural Enterprise in Malawi: Necessity or Opportunity?* Aldershot: Ashgate.
- Thomson, A.M., and Matz, M. (1997). *Implications of Economic Policy for Food Security: A Training Manual*. Rome: FAO
- Wang, X. (2007). *Grey Income and Income Inequality*. Beijing: China Reform Foundation.
- Warren, P. (2002). *Livelihoods Diversification and Enterprise Development: An Initial Exploration of Concepts and Issues. Livelihood Support Programme (LSP) Working paper 4*, December 2002. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO).
- Whatmore, S. (1997). *Farming Women: Gender, Work and Family Enterprise*. Basingstoke: Macmillan.
- Wombeogo, M. (2007). Gendered poverty in Northern Ghana: Multiple problems, few Solutions. *Africanus*. 37(11):36-53.
- World Bank (2000). *World Development Report 2000/2001: Attacking Poverty*. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Wood, J. (2008) *Gendered Lives: Community, Gender, and Culture*. University of Iowa: Cengage Learning Inc.
- Zhang, L., Huang, J. and Rozelle, S. (2002). Employment, recessions and the role of education in rural China. *Journal of China Economic Review*. 114:1-16.

Appendix A

HOUSEHOLD SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE IN SEBAYENG VILLAGE

Master of Administration in Development Management Research Project

Research Title: The Effects of Gender Inequality on Rural Household Livelihoods Diversification: A Case Study of Sebayeng Village, Polokwane Local Municipality, Limpopo Province

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect information on the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihood diversification in Sebayeng Village. The research project is registered with the Department of Development Studies at the University of Limpopo, Turfloop Campus. The survey results will only be used for academic purposes. No information will be used against any member of your household and the community at large. Anonymity of the respondents is guaranteed, and you do not have to write your name on this questionnaire.

Thank you

HOUSEHOLD SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

▪ Biographical Profile

1. What is the gender of the respondent?

1. Male
2. Female

2. What is the age of the respondent? Specific in years: _____

3. What is the marital status of the respondent?

1. Married
2. Single
3. Separated
4. Divorced
5. Widow

4. What is the status of the person to respond to these questions in the household?

1. Head of the household
2. Spouse
3. relative of the head of the household (specify) _____
4. Others: Specify _____

5. What is the highest education level has been completed by the respondent?

1. None
2. Specify: _____

6. How long has the respondent lived in this community? Specify years _____

7. What is the total number of people that live permanently in the household? (Including children and those who come home weekly/monthly) Specify_____

▪ **The nature and the level of gender inequality**

8. What is your opinion of gender inequality within the households and the community in Sebayeng? (Mark your choice below)

1. There is a high level of gender inequality (Expatiate)
2. There is a negligible level of gender inequality (Expatiate)

9. Who is responsible for productive roles such as paid work, self-employment and subsistence production in the household?

1. Men
2. Women
3. Both men and women

10. Who is responsible for domestic work, child care, and care of the sick and elderly in the household?

1. Men
2. Women
3. Both men and women

11. Who is responsible for community participation and voluntary work that benefits the community as a whole?

1. Men
2. Women
3. Both men and women

12. Who is responsible for community politics such as decision making and representation on behalf of the community as a whole?

1. Men
2. Women
3. Both men and women

13. The women in the village feel politically marginalised
 1. Agree
 2. Strongly Agree
 3. Neutral
 4. Disagree
 5. Strongly Disagree
14. More women participate in the community and voluntary work than males
 1. Agree
 2. Strongly Agree
 3. Neutral
 4. Disagree
 5. Strongly Disagree
15. Men and women have equal access to physical assets (e.g. land and water)
 1. Agree
 2. Strongly Agree
 3. Neutral
 4. Disagree
 5. Strongly Disagree
16. Men and women have equal access to human assets
 1. Agree
 2. Strongly Agree
 3. Neutral
 4. Disagree
 5. Strongly Disagree
17. Men and women have equal access to Physical assets
 1. Agree
 2. Strongly Agree
 3. Neutral
 4. Disagree
 5. Strongly Disagree

18. Men and women have equal access to social assets

- 1. Agree
- 2. Strongly Agree
- 3. Neutral
- 4. Disagree
- 5. Strongly Disagree

What livelihood assets and opportunities do men and women have access to?

	Capital/Resources/ Assets	Gender		
19	Human assets (labour, capabilities)	1.Men	2.Women	3.Both
20	Financial assets (capital, credits)	1.Men	2.Women	3.Both
21	Physical(water, land)	1.Men	2.Women	3.Both
22	Social assets (social networks, information)	1.Men	2.Women	3.Both

23. Who is responsible for decision-making with regard to household level such as household expenditure?

- 1. Men
- 2. Women
- 3. Both men and women

24. Who is responsible for decision making with regard to the allocation and distribution of financial resources such as income, capital and credit in the household?

1. Men
2. Women
3. Both men and women

25. Who is responsible for decision making in terms allocation and distribution of natural assets such as land?

1. Men
2. Women
3. Both men and women

26. Who is responsible for decision making with regard to allocation of human resources such as education?

1. Men
2. Women
3. Both men and women

27. Who is responsible for decision making with regard to allocation and distribution of social resources such as social networks and information?

1. Men
2. Women
3. Both men and women

28. Who is responsible for decision making with regard to community level issues such as decision making on the management of development related issues such as projects?

1. Men
2. Women
3. Both men and women

▪ **The types of rural household livelihood**

29. What are the main livelihood activities practiced in the household?

1. Farming activities (i.e. crop farming, livestock farming, and other farming activities)
2. Off-farm activities (i.e. permanent, seasonal or casual jobs, work in commercial farms)
3. Non-farming activities (i.e. traditional healing, repairs, businesses and local trades)
4. Non-income related activities (i.e. housekeeping, child care, fetching firewood and water)

30. What is the source of income in the household

1. Formal employment
2. Informal employment
3. Spaza shop
4. Brick making
5. Social Grants
6. Remittances
7. Crop farming
8. Livestock farming
9. Poultry
10. Domestic
11. Others (Specify) _____

▪ **Rural household livelihood diversification**

31. How does the household diversify their livelihood?

.....

.....

.....

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

32. What are the strategies used to diversify the livelihood in the household?

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

33. Are livelihood diversification strategies viable and feasible for household survival? If yes/no tell why?

1. Yes

2. No

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

▪ **Gender inequality and rural household livelihoods diversification**

34. Does gender inequality affect women's livelihood diversification?

1. Yes

2. No.

35. Does gender inequality affect male and female members of the household equally or differently?

1. Always

- 2. Sometimes
- 3. Equally
- 4. Not at all

36. What are the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihood diversification?

- 1. Unfair and unequal distribution and allocation of resources
- 2. Poor livelihood sustainability
- 3. No/poor empowerment on women
- 4. Lack and Poor women's participation and decision making on livelihoods activities
- 5. Other (specify)

▪ **Recommendations**

37. What measures could you recommend for redressing gender inequality and potentially improving the chances for livelihoods diversification in rural areas?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Thank you for your participation and Cooperation!!!!!!!

Appendix B

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR THE KEY INFORMANT IN SEBAYENG VILLAGE

Master of Administration in Development Management Research Project

Research Title: The Effects of Gender Inequality on Rural Household Livelihoods Diversification: A Case Study of Sebayeng Village, Polokwane Local Municipality, Limpopo Province

The purpose of this interview schedule is to collect information from the key informant in the village about issues around the effects of gender inequality on rural household livelihoods diversification in Sebayeng Village. The information will be used for academic purposes only. The respondents(s) will be asked if they will allow their names to be revealed. The respondents are requested to assist the interviewer with information as per question asked.

Thank you

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. How would you describe the nature of gender inequality in the community?
2. How would you describe the level of gender inequality in the community?
3. What are the cultural and traditional practices in the community?
4. What are the types of household livelihoods activities practiced in the community?
5. How viable are the commonly practiced household livelihoods in the community?
6. How do households diversify their livelihoods in the community?
7. How does gender inequality affect household livelihoods diversification in the community?
8. What could be done to redress gender inequality and improving the capacity of the households to diversify their livelihoods?