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M. Kongolo

O. O. Bamgose

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Participation of Rural Women in Development: A Case Study of Tsheseng, Thintwa, and Makhalaneng Villages, South Africa

By Kongolo M.ⁱ and Bamgose OOⁱⁱ

Abstract

This study investigates factors which influence limited participation in the development process by women in South Africa's rural areas. The influence of government development policy, education and cultural values on rural women was sought and investigated in this study. The results suggest that most women in rural areas are illiterate. They lack initiatives, innovations and self-reliance attitudes. Women in rural areas are isolated, confined and marginalized through the non-interactive government policies on rural areas. These symptoms reflect a lack of structured development strategy to create needed opportunities in these areas. As a result, there is a high rate of unemployment, because the present development policy clearly has failed to enhance the welfare of most rural women in the country.

Key Words: Developing Countries, Development Policy, Rural Women, Economic Empowerment, South Africa

Introduction

Rural women's participation in the development process has been the focus of intensive debates by most international forums in the past years. Among forums that have recognized the plight of Third World's women's participation in the development process are the 1995 Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women held in Kenya, the 1995, The Beijing Declaration, and the United Nations Development Fund for Women (2000). According to the philosophy of these forums, each member state should promote women's economic independence, which includes the creation of employment, access to resources and credit, the eradication of the persistent and increasing burden of poverty, malnutrition, poor health and illiteracy on women. Although such declarations have been able to increase an awareness and understanding of the problems facing women and their needs, as such they have not yet resulted in significant development priorities for rural women (UNIFEM, 2000).

The impact of development on women in South Africa is quite different for both urban and rural women. In fact, there is substantial evidence that rural women are mostly neglected, and consistently have lost in this process (Meer, 1998). There is also overwhelming evidence of development policies and projects formulated bypassing the involvement of rural women in most African countries (Hunger Project, 2000). The majority of the population in LDCs lives in rural areas, approximately 70% being women (Cartledge, 1995).

Development, according to Olopoenia (1983) and Pradip (1984), is not an isolated activity, for it implies a progress from a lower state to a higher and preferred one. Development is a process by which people are awakened to opportunities within their reach. Development, therefore, starts with people and progresses through them (Seer, 1981; Gwanya, 1989). This is the reason, according to these authors, why rural women should be involved in on going development initiatives. They are the most marginalized

group in terms of their needs, while being the people who produce almost 80% of the food consumed in most of Africa's rural areas (Hunger Project, 1999).

The focus on rural women in this study is a concern; it implies that these people have a certain consciousness about their position as rural women, although there are no strategies developed to affect change on them (McIntosh and Friedman, 1989). Following the Lagos Plan of Action for Economic Development of Africa, it is advocated that the needs, rights and concerns of all women be fully integrated into individual country's development planning to benefit all sections of the population (Hunger Project, 2000).

This paper investigates factors that act as bottlenecks to the active participation of rural women in development in South Africa. It is assumed that if these factors are not investigated and analyzed, they are likely to cause a continuous impediment on rural women's participation in on-going developments, as well as on the viability of development efforts in the country itself. This helps to increase our understanding and commitment toward upliftment and empowerment of rural women, by eliminating plans, policies and projects that constrain their increased participation in developments. The critical levels of poverty and unemployment currently experienced in South Africa mean that considerable pressure must be exerted on the economy to increase growth rates and to provide all people with access to economic opportunities (Lightelm and Wilsenach, 1993). The two main research questions investigated in this paper are:

- (i) What could be the possible reasons for the low participation rate by women in rural areas in development?
- (ii) Do rural women have capacities that are underestimated due to higher levels of illiteracy and/or traditional values and beliefs?

Review of important concepts

Given that rural women have an important role to play in development, this section examines different contributions made by them to the improvement of their communities. The section provides a review of work done on women's involvement in developments in LDCs by various scholars.

Background

To date, many scholars have written on the issue related to the participation of women in development in LDCs. The impression gained suggests that these on-going investigations seem to have not yet resulted in specific solutions to the problems facing rural women and development. Although each rural settlement in South Africa has its own particularities, there are still specific solutions or universally accepted development strategies to deal with development problems in these areas. Meer (1998) strongly expresses the opinion that unless more effort is put into organizing women in poor rural communities around their common interests, they are unlikely to benefit from favourable development policies. In the same way, Friedman (1999) stresses that unless development policies include guidelines for the process and practice of delivery, they are unlikely to challenge unequal power relations.

Women and official planning in LDCs

A report by the Hunger Project (2000) reveals that when women are included in official planning, they are often treated as powerless individuals who should be given assistance. In the foreword to the alternative framework for structural adjustment programmes for socio-economic recovery and transformation, it is recognized that women play a crucial role as producers and agents of change in rural transformation, and that the negative effect on rural development is brought about by their marginalization. Ntomb'futhi Zondo (1995) advocates that our very tradition regards women as inferior to men. The situation in rural areas is such that if you are female, you do not play any role in the societal debates. Even the 1994 African Common Position on Human and Social Development Forum describes women as part of the marginalized, vulnerable sections of the population and they are grouped with children, youth, elderly and the disabled. No matter which rural government option is chosen, it seems that women in rural areas will always remain where they are, and ultimately will end up in a worse position (Hunger Project, 2000).

For this reason, to see any change coming to their ways, they themselves need to stand up for it (Ntomb' futhi Zondo, 1995). A situation of past practices of relegating women to an inferior position in a society cannot be allowed to continue. To do otherwise will be a negation of our commitment to social justice and equality (Mwamwenda 1994). As part of our development goals, there ought to be specific policies geared to the promotion of women's participation in local planning in most rural areas to contribute to overall welfare in society (Kelly, 1987a), so that whatever resource rationalization is undertaken, it is not executed to the detriment and disadvantage of rural women, because these women have attributes of which outsiders are unaware (Kelly, 1987b).

Women and development related work

A study by Buvinic et al (1978) observed that women in most African rural areas work an average of 12 to 18 hours per day compared to an average of 8 to 12 hours per day by men. Sneyder and Tadesse (1995) comment on rural women who worked almost 90% of roadwork under the "Food-for-work" programme in Lesotho. They expressed that the role of rural women is not only central to social, but also to economic progress in their respective countries. They also recommended work done by rural women in Gabon and Tanzania during the 200 days in a year, saying that men worked only 1,800 hours compared to 2,600 hours by women in agriculture, and that rural women worked harder than anyone else in these countries.

Women in South Africa's rural areas are the ones who run the families, while their husbands are working in the cities. Traditionally, women in rural areas have been regarded as people who belong at home, expected to minister to their husbands and children, but when it comes to making decisions on economic and political issues, men take the lead (Ntomb'futhi Zondo, 1995). In most African countries, rural women are the food farmers, and carry the burdens of life. Africa's 100 million rural women grow almost 80 % of Africa's food, including food for subsistence and food for markets. This amounts to food production of 3 metric tons each year per woman. Rural women do almost 80% of the work to provide the proper transport and storage of Africa's food. They do almost 90% of the work to process Africa's food, including the tasks such as

threshing, drying, winnowing, peeling, grating, sieving, and pounding. They also do almost 60% of the work related to marketing Africa's food. Yet they face gender-specific barriers in accessing financial services, and can receive less than 1% of the total credit to small farmers and 10% of the total credit to agriculture (Hunger Project, 1999).

Women and economic progress

While it does not directly address the role of women in agriculture, the African Charter for Popular Participation in Development held in Arusha (Tanzania) in 1990, recognizes the critical contribution made by women to African societies and economies, and the extreme subordination, including discrimination, which they face. This forum posits that the attainment of equal rights by women in social, economic, and political spheres must become a central feature of a democratic and participatory pattern of development (Hunger Project, 2000). The majority of women in rural South Africa believe that rural governments offer them no real hope for change or empowerment in terms of community power relations. Their experiences of these actions suggest that the more they are exposed, the more worried they become. This is mainly because whatever decision is reached, they are the ones who live with the implications (Ntomb'futhi Zondo, 1995).

Women make a major contribution to the economic production of their communities and assume primary responsibility for the health of their families. Their active support is crucial to the utilization of development objectives. There can be no societal transformation without their involvement, support, and leadership (Adams and Kruppenbach, 1987). Addressing the effects of gender discrimination and inequality is a necessary part of the socio-economic project of transformation. Despite the equality provisions in the South African constitution and land restitution process established since 1994, it has become highly unlikely that rural women will be in a position to make claims as individuals (Friedman, 1999). Rural women are typically allocated small pieces of land, usually about 1000 to 5000 square metres, which are used to produce food crops such as vegetables, chickpeas and groundnuts for home consumption and, to a very limited extent, for sale. The family plot used to grow cash crops takes first priority, leaving the women only limited time to work on their plots, either very early in the morning or in the afternoon when they are not cooking, tending to the children, gathering firewood or otherwise engaged by their husbands (Hunger Project, 1999). The restructuring of the South African agricultural economy requires affirmative measures to give effect to the principal of equality of opportunities (Van Rooyen et al, 1993). Women in Africa have a long tradition of participating in savings, production, marketing and mutual-aid organizations. Many rural women rely on cooperatives and market groups as a way to pool resources, reduce their workload, and optimize limited income. Micro-credit programme results have shown that women tend to be more prompt and reliable in their repayment of loans, and spend their increased earnings on children first, thereby improving nutrition, health and educational opportunities (Hunger Project, 2000).

There has been insufficient political will and sustained commitment to meeting economic needs and interests of most rural women by the local authorities and governments. While many African countries have ratified the UN agreements on this issue, there seems to be no subsequent informed policy decisions. Most governments' macroeconomic policies do not incorporate gender perspectives in their design in order to

enforcing its application and implementation. As well, they often ignore the structure of households in Africa and the social relations that influence women's roles in production (Hunger Project, 2000). To this effect, the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) acts as a catalyst within the UN system, to support efforts that link the needs and concerns of women to all critical issues on the national, regional and global agenda. It works to ensure the participation of women at all levels of development planning and practice. It plays a strong advocacy role, and concentrates on fostering a multilateral policy dialogue on women's empowerment (UNIFEM, 2000).

Women and education in Africa

The most fundamental reason for the existence of an educational system is that education plays a significant role in the economy of any society. In view of this, it is essential that the education provided meets the economic needs of that society, thus enhancing efficiency in the use of social and economic resources, ultimately leading to improved economic growth and social well-being (Mugisha et al, 1991; Mwamwenda, 1994). Ideally, education should contribute to economic development, equalize opportunities between social classes, reduce disparities in the distribution of income and prepare the labour force for a modern economy (Krieger, 1985). International Organizations such as the United Nations, UNESCO, the World Bank and the Third World Countries are becoming increasingly aware of the importance of women in national development, and the fact that education can contribute to their playing a much more meaningful role in development (Kelly, 1987a; Browne and Barrett, 1991).

There are many reasons as to why the education of women is important. Research has shown that there is a strong association between education and better life, nutrition, improved hygiene, low mortality and fertility rates, and economic development (Browne and Barrett, 1991). Education for women in Sub-Saharan Africa has been noted to have a powerful developmental effect in light of their cardinal role of nurturing, upbringing, socialization and education of children. Women are well known for being active economically, as both producers and consumers of goods. Their capacity to serve actively in these areas can be enhanced if they are provided with adequate levels of education (Browne and Barrett, 1991). A lack of education on the part of women deprives them of their productivity levels in the rural areas, because they will remain ignorant of ways and means of producing more on the farm (Kelly, 1987a). Cultural values, as well as economic realities of limited family resources and employment opportunities for women, which in the past have inhibited girls' entry into primary and secondary education, may now be prominent factors inhibiting Nigerian women from entering university (Biralma, 1987).

Reasons for investigating rural women

There are good reasons to focus on, and to emphasize rural women's participation in development. The most fundamental reason is that they play crucial roles in both subsistence and market food production in Africa. Not only because they are working harder than the average man, but also because they are reliable and committed to their tasks (Burkey, 1993; Hunger Project, 2000). Not only are women the majority in rural areas in Africa, but they are responsible for more than 50% of all productive activities, even in those households where men are present (Burkey, 1993). In many rural areas of

LDCs, deforestation, loss of soil fertility, low productivity and poor living standards have been characterized as the features of these areas. All these have detrimental effects to the well-being of rural women. Therefore, overlooking the plight of rural women will have negative impacts on the development of rural areas and that of the nation. To this end, there is a need to reverse this negative approach to development by retrieving and revising the potential for participation by rural women (Buvinic et al, 1978). Equally important, those who are not in crisis are often the beneficiaries of development efforts, while those entrapped in poverty remain exactly where they are with no hope of release (Van Rooyen et al, 1993).

Methodology

Population survey and sites

The sources of data for the purposes of this study were rural women drawn from three different rural settlements namely: Thintwa (in Natal Province), Tsheseng and Makhalaneng (in Qwaqwa, Eastern Free State). These settlements were selected because of different particularities that allow for comparison. The purpose of such comparison was to determine if the same factors that contribute to the inactive participation of rural women in development were almost the same in these settlements. The study of these settlements included their respective land patterns and other relevant characteristics.

- (i) Thintwa rural settlement is situated between Bergville and Harrismith towns. Following its landscape, it is dry, valley and hilly village. Its soil is poor and lacks agricultural potential. It has a minimal potential for livestock farming, as crop farming is almost non-existent. This village is scarcely populated without electricity and roads. Access to the accurate population statistic was not possible, as they were neither Councillors nor traditional Chiefs representing the people during the time of survey. Based on the researchers' observations, it appears that Thintwa has, on average, more old women than young.
- (ii) Tsheseng rural settlement is in the former homeland of Qwaqwa, in the Free State Province. It has a low potential for crop production, but adequate for livestock farming. However, the potential for livestock farming is not well explored by many, and crop farming does not exist. This settlement is densely populated, and its soil is red, stony and hilly, symbolizing a rough landscape. This Village has also more old women, on average than young.
- (iii) Makhalaneng settlement is another rural village in the former homeland of Qwaqwa . This village is also densely populated. Rocks and hills characterize its landscape, and it is dry. The land available is of low potential for agricultural crops farming, but suitable for livestock farming. The study selected these two settlements in Qwaqwa to investigate their similar, or different characteristics, even though the two are both located within the same district.

Population sample and data collection

The final study sample comprised 152 respondents (rural women) compared to 240 respondents, as initially envisaged. The study interviewed 34% of respondents in Thintwa, 33% in Tsheseng and 33% in Makhalaneng respectively. The data was gathered using a non-probability sampling procedure. This method was used because of the lack of women's groups represented in these villages. Data collection basically involved traveling to the areas studied first, to familiarize with respondents for easy interactions as well as personal contact with them. Secondly, group discussions were organized by the researchers to facilitate an understanding of the whole study process. An easy designed questionnaire was used to collect data, and the filling in by respondents was carried out with the help of an interpreter, because most of the respondents could not read and write.

Interview levels

Interviews for this study were conducted at three different levels. Firstly, among the different age groups of respondents (old, middle-aged and young women). This classification was necessary since at the different age groups, priorities and levels of participation in development process are also different, according to the needs, aspirations and expectations of individuals. The interviews dealt mostly with important issues of women's involvement in development initiatives, activities they are involved in, and why they believe they are left out of this process. The second level of the interviews was carried out with traditional healers, community leaders and chiefs. These interviews were centered on the issues affecting rural women's participation in development. They were attempting to discover various reasons for the disadvantaged position of rural women, and their contributions as the custodians of rural values. These were closed-ended interviews based on pre-made appointments with the respondents. The third level of interviews was carried out with the students and lecturers at the University of the North, Qwaqwa Campus, and Graduate School for Development Studies and Conflict Resolution. These interviews were aimed at seeking academic advice, knowledge, skills and their contributions in involving rural women around the University community into the on-going development processes and programmes on campus.

Results and Discussion

The study sampled 72 households representing a total of 152 female respondents. In terms of their age structure, they were classified into four groups, namely: under 40 years; middle-aged group; under 65 years and over 65 years (or old women) (see table 1). Following this table, women who are below 20 years represent 7.2% of the sample. Those between 21 and 35 years represent 16.5%, those aged 36 to 50 years represent 30.3%, and those between 51 and 65 years represent 27.6%, while those above 65 years represent 18.4% of the total sample. The highest percentage of 30.3% is attributed to the economically active group of women, comprising the 36 to 50 years age class. In terms of development strategies, great efforts should be made by planners to include this group of women in any development initiatives, because they are the majority. Women head of households represent the majority of South Africa's rural households (National Social Development Report, 1997). Women significantly outnumber men in most rural areas of South Africa, because they always remain behind, while men are away in search for jobs in urban areas. The number of poor rural women has increased dramatically in the past

decades, notwithstanding the increasing female responsibility for agricultural production and income generating activities in the rural areas (Cartledge, 1995).

Table 2 presents the marital status of the respondents. Its results suggest that all the three villages are characterized by single, married, divorced and widowed women, as well as those separated from their husbands because of the jobs. Following this table, 11.8% of women are single; 13.2% are married women; 23.0% are divorced; 18.4% are widowed and 33.6% are separated from husbands in search for jobs, and as a result they became the household heads. A study by Mazuri (1990) shows that in South Africa the migration of men to mines became more problematic when the government enforced regulations against families joining their husbands at the places of work. In return, this has exacerbated the high rate of women separated from their husbands. The results of table 2 indicate also that Thintwa has the highest percentage (25%) of widowed women (head of households) compared to 14% in Tsheseng and 16% in Makhalaneng respectively.

Twelve and a half percent represents the number of children not stated either because of having none or death. The number of children less than four represents 25.7%. The number of children less than seven children represents 29.6%, while the respondents with more than nine children represent 32.2% (see table 3). Tsheseng and Makhalaneng have 14% and 16% of more than nine children respectively compared to Thintwa with only 9.6%. The high birth rate is not only an attribute of the dense rural areas in South Africa, but also because rural urban villages share this problem in common. This paper reveals that not all rural areas in South Africa are densely populated. Meanwhile, the study by Momsen (1993) and Kibuka (1990) has shown that all LDCs rural areas are almost overpopulated because of the high birth rates.

Educational levels of respondents include both formal and informal education. Data on educational level of respondents suggest characteristics that discourage their active participation in development process, because most of them (respondents) are not educated (see table 4). The number of respondents not educated represent 47.4%, with 23.0% of those having primary education, 9.2% of those with secondary education, 2.6% of those with college education and 17.8% of those with other types of informal education with skills such as sewing, candle making and to some extent small-scale business. It was also observed that among those respondents with primary and secondary education, many did not even complete the levels required. As a consequence, this has led to a higher illiteracy rate among inhabitants of the study area. This implies that they had no opportunities to attend formal education.

Educational level is an important tool, and is needed to stimulate, create, achieve and enhance active participation of rural women in development. The rate of women's participation in development initiatives is strongly influenced by their educational levels. The higher a woman is educated, the greater the likelihood she would be included in the labour force, and the lower the likelihood she would be unemployed (Kriefer, 1985; Browne and Barrett, 1991). A lack of education is enhanced by inequalities and disparities in the labour markets, including absolute poverty in the rural areas (Adams and Kruppenbach, 1987).

All respondents were asked to provide the researchers with the kind of jobs, occupations, employment, or economic activities involved in as income generating ventures. An analysis of the various kinds of these activities is presented in table 5. This

table provides respondents in the formal sector, those active and self employed, those unemployed and those in informal sector (such as households work). According to table 5, 57.2% of respondents are not engaged in any kind of income-generating activities as sources of income. This implies that only a few respondents were employed in formal or private sector with 9.2% having salaries, 13.8% engaged in trade, 11.8% involved in farming and 8.0% in other activities. Most respondents revealed that they are solely dependent on income from their husbands, and therefore they cannot survive independently.

Literacy is a mechanism that can transform and boost women's participation in development, because it can stimulate and enhance individual initiative. Innovation is, by and large, a major way to increase skills to participate in development initiatives, to eliminate dependency syndrome (Mugisha et al, 1991). A lack of initiative as a result of illiteracy has blurred rural women's mind-sets of believing in themselves that they would be the "initiators of their own developments".

Respondents were also asked to identify problem areas hindering their active participation in the development process of their respective communities. Many problem areas were identified and mentioned, from which six were the most outstanding, namely: a lack of information; lack of resources; lack of government assistance; lack of education and skills; consideration and belief in cultural values, and the influence of discrimination practices (see table 6). From this table we observe that a lack of government assistance scores 30.9% of respondents. This score describes that there are high expectations by the people in rural areas for the government to be doing things for them instead of shaping up their own destiny. Lack of education scored 20.4%, lack of resources with 16.4%, influence of discrimination with 13.8%, lack of information with 13.2% and belief in cultural value with 5.3%. Although in the presence of all these problems, Popkin (1983) found that rural women often contribute to family earnings in various ways. They assist family farms, produce handcrafts, brew beer for sale, or can work somewhere else in the farm to support themselves.

Willingness by respondents to participate in projects was identified by asking them the following question: "If new approaches to taking part in development initiatives are made available, would you be willing to participate?" This question was asked to all the respondents to assess their attitudes and readiness to participate in development (see table 7). As a result of the above question, the "Yes" answers accounted for 77.6%, while the "No" answers accounted for 13.2%, with only 9.2% being "do not know". The "No" answers were mostly from women of 65 years and above, who claimed that they are no longer economically active to be involved in any development activities, while the percentage of "do not know" answers include the physically/mentally handicapped and other sick women. The results of table 7 provide demonstrate that the majority (77.6%) of rural women are willing to take part, and participate in developments in their respective areas. These women have the necessary know-how to initiate, plan, implement, participate and further the development process to high levels and so contribute meaningfully to its expansion. The local governments should address this issue by removing any barriers imposed on the development of rural women, presently preventing them from taking active part in these socio-economic development initiatives (Snyder and Tadesse, 1995).

Conclusion

Rural women continue to remain obscure and invisible in the process of economic development, although they comprise the majority of the population in rural areas of South Africa. Virtually none are selected to participate in development initiatives at the individual level especially where they entail significant power and responsibility (Madonsela, 1995). Participation of rural women in economic activities at all levels is crucial for the development of South Africa and for economic advancement of women. The economic framework needs to be hypersensitive to the gender implications for rural women and to any economic policy in the future. Such policies need to be adjusted in terms of the impact on rural women's employment, economic advancement and empowerment (Agenda Collective, 1995). Investigating rural women's is crucial, because they are the backbone of rural economy, notwithstanding being discriminated against (Momsen, 1993; Allen and Thomas, 1992).

Rural women's work is never done, farm work is part and parcel of their day's activities on top of household burdens of taking care of the children (Kaplan, 1993). Rural women in most African households carry out subsistence and near-subsistence agriculture, being over 80% of agricultural labour force. They are also responsible for many other tasks such as: planting, weeding, watering, harvesting, and storing of crops (Burkey, 1993).

This study observed that a lack of information, lack of resources and government assistance, lack of education, cultural values and discrimination against rural women were the most important factors contributing to the inactive participation of rural women in developments. Further inferences can be drawn in relation to the age structure of respondents, that it has impacted negatively on rural women participation, mostly for those in the category of 65 years and above. This study also found that each of the three settlements studied has its own distinct characteristics and particular problems, based on geographical location, status of respondents, educational background, occupation and age structure. To this effect, it is important to understand that what could be applied as a solution to one settlement could not be applied to another. As a result of this dilemma, the principle that expresses "multiple problems necessitate multiple approaches" as solutions should be applied.

Appendices

Table 1: Age structure of respondents in study area

Age group	Thintwa		Tsheseng		Makhalaneng		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1 - 20	3	6,0	4	8,0	4	8,0	11	7,2
21 - 35	10	19,0	8	16,0	7	14,0	25	16,5
36 - 50	18	35,0	15	30,0	13	26,0	46	30,3
51 - 65	14	27,0	13	26,0	15	30,0	42	27,6
Above 65	7	13,0	10	20,0	11	22,0	28	18,4
Total	52	100,0	50	100,0	50	100,0	152	100,0

Table 2: Marital status of respondents

Category	Thintwa		Tsheseng		Makhalaneng		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Single	7	13,5	5	10,0	6	12,0	18	11,8
Married	9	17,3	7	14,0	4	8,0	20	13,2
Divorced	3	5,8	18	36,0	14	28,0	35	23,0
Widowed	13	25,0	7	14,0	8	16,0	28	18,4
Separated by jobs/others	20	38,5	13	26,0	18	36,0	51	33,6
Total	52	100,0	50	100,0	50	100,0	152	100,0

Table 3: Number of children of respondents

Number	Thintwa		Thseseng		Makhalaneng		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1 - 3	13	25,0	11	22,0	15	30,0	39	25,7
4 - 6	14	27,0	19	38,0	12	24,0	45	29,6
7 - 9	12	23,0	7	14,0	10	20,0	29	19,0
Above 9	5	9,6	7	14,0	8	16,0	20	13,2
Not stated	8	15,4	6	12,0	5	10,0	19	12,5
Total	52	100,0	50	100,0	50	100,0	152	100,0

Table 4: Educational level of respondents

School level	Thintwa		Tsheseng		Makhalaneng		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Primary	7	13,5	15	30,0	13	26,0	35	23,0
Secondary	2	3,8	6	12,0	6	12,0	14	9,2
College	1	1,9	2	4,0	1	2,0	4	2,6
University	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Vocational	11	21,2	7	14,0	9	18,0	27	17,8
None	31	59,6	20	40,0	21	42,0	72	47,4
Total	52	100,0	50	100,0	50	100,0	152	100,0

Table 5: Involvement in business by respondents

Occupation	Thintwa		Tsheseng		Makhalaneng		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Wages/Salaries	4	7,7	5	10,0	5	10,0	14	9,2
Trade	3	5,8	10	20,0	8	16,0	21	13,8
Farming	8	15,3	4	8,0	6	12,0	18	11,8
Others	3	5,8	5	10,0	4	8,0	12	8,0
None	34	65,4	26	52,0	27	54,0	87	57,2
Total	52	100,0	50	100,0	50	100,0	152	100,0

Table 6: Main factors hindering the participation of respondents

Factors	Thintwa		Tsheseng		Makhalaneng		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Lack of information	9	17,3	6	12,0	5	10,0	20	13,2
Lack of resources	7	13,5	8	16,0	10	20,0	25	16,4
Government assist.	18	34,6	13	26,0	16	32,0	47	30,9
Cultural values	2	3,9	4	8,0	2	4,0	8	5,3
Lack of education	10	19,2	12	24,0	9	18,0	31	20,4
Discrimination	6	11,5	7	14,0	8	16,0	21	13,8
Total	52	100,0	50	100,0	50	100,0	152	100,0

Table 7: Willingness to participate in development process

Response	Thintwa		Tsheseng		Makhalaneng		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	39	75,0	38	76,0	41	82,0	118	77,6
No	7	13,5	9	18,0	4	8,0	20	13,2
Don't know	6	11,5	3	6,0	5	10,0	14	9,2
Total	52	100,0	50	100,0	50	100,0	152	100,0

All sources: Own Research D

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ⁱ Department of Economics, Vista University, Soweto Campus, South Africa.

ⁱⁱ M.A. Student