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Gender Analyses of Access to Agriculture Land; Evidence from Wa Municipality,  
Upper West Region of Ghana

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES



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GENDER ANALYSES OF ACCESS TO AGRICULTURE LAND; EVIDENCE  
FROM WA MUNICIPALITY, UPPER WEST REGION OF GHANA

By

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## DECLARATION

### Student

I, Failatu Dramani Mahama declare that besides citing from authorities which I have duly acknowledged in this report, this output is my independent work under the supervision of the signed supervisor. I am herein responsible for any errors, omissions and oversight of this work.

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### Supervisor

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this concept paper was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of the concept paper laid down by the University for Development Studies.

Supervisor's Signature ..... Date .....

Supervisor's name .....



## ABSTRACT

When it comes to landownership in Ghana especially in the patrilineal areas such as Northern Ghana, there is a high perception that women do not own land and generally perceived that women are discriminated against in terms of their land rights (Bugri, 2008). This notion affects the productivity of women in Agriculture. Therefore, this study uses gender analyses of access to agriculture land; evidence from Wa Municipality, Upper West Region of Ghana. The research was conducted through the descriptive survey design and the sampling technique used was the simple random, which was deduced from the sampling frame of farmers, chiefs and other opinion leaders. The sample size for the study was 200 and data collected using the questionnaire as instrument of data collection. Data analyses was done both quantitatively and qualitatively. Qualitative analyses was done using content analyses while quantitative was done using percentages, percentages and means. The results show that out of 200, 40 percent were between the ages of 30 and 40 years, 62% were females and 38% were males and 73 (36%) of the respondents were basic school dropouts. It is realized that land acquisition can be done by anybody regardless of gender, age and membership but women cannot inherit land. In addition, women who want to acquire land must consult their spouse or male family members. Factors that impeded women inheritance to land include belief of re-marriage and customary belief of sacrifice to the land. Lack of access to land by women affected their agricultural productivity. The government, non-government organisations and other gender based advocacy groups should work in concert to improve on the opportunities of women and advocate for gender inclusiveness by ensuring that there is full participation for both men and women at all levels of land use and management decisions.



## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to the ALMIGHTY God who saw me through this programme successfully.

I also dedicate it to my family for the encouragement they always gave to me and for always believing in me.



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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

FAO-

IFAD-

ISSER-

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES



## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background of the Study

In most developing countries, agriculture is an important source of livelihood necessary for reducing poverty and food insecurity and can be the engine for growth. In Ghana, the contribution of the agriculture sector to the economy of the country continues to be very significant. Agriculture provides employment to large numbers of the population, and foreign exchange, which plays an instrumental role in the development of the country (ISSER, 2009).

The agriculture sector is becoming more technologically sophisticated, commercially oriented and globally integrated which present opportunities and challenges. One of such challenges is gender based inequalities in accessing agricultural resources (World Bank, IFAD, FAO, 2009). There is an increasing recognition that the ownership of, access to and control over agricultural resources constitute critical elements in the determination of the well – being of households and individuals. However, in agricultural production, women are more constrained as compared to men in terms of access to inputs such as information technology and credit among other factors (Quisumbing, 1995, Kinkinginhoun-Me^dagbe' et al., 2010). The situation arising is usually a continuous one with women being marginalized and thus limiting their effective participation in achieving food security (Quisumbing, 1995).



Although there is global consensus that women's land rights are fundamental for the realization of food security and rural development, accurate and reliable statistics to monitor the attainment and realisation of these rights are still lacking. Indeed, the lack of clear and accurate statistics on landownership and land management, policy responses to, and for monitoring of, inequalities faced by women and men in rural areas (Doss et al., 2015).

In Ghana, women constitute majority of smallholder farmers and provide about 70% to 80% of farm labour (Duncan and Brants, 2004). However, most of the labour provided by women is on farms belonging to male farmers because most often women have no access to farmlands. This is due to the definition of socio-cultural roles and responsibilities among gender, a situation that strongly influence land ownership rights (Ibid). Women control less land than men and the land they control is often of poorer quality and their tenure is insecure (World Bank, FAO, IFAD, 2009). Even though an increase in the value of land should inure to the advantage of the women holding it, it is rather the contrary. It largely motivates land confiscation from women who only have use rights and title to customary land.

According to IFAD (1998), women's limited land access affects the crops they can grow. They do not plant tree crops on their lands since they could easily lose their lands and all the profits accruing thereof. In fact, the maturity of economic trees can be an incentive for losing the land as the land owner develop interest in





it and can find reasons to take it back. IFAD also emphasises that it restricts women's access to credit from formal sources as they do not have title to land and as such cannot use it as collateral. Even in cases where women do have title to land, there is evidence that women cannot take full advantage of the established credit since credit institutions tend to be male-oriented and discriminate on cultural and social biases against women (FAO, 2005; cited in Owusu et al., 2007). Financial institutions are not inclined to advance loans to the poor especially women due to high transaction costs associated with micro-finance. As a result women are often unable to make transactions without a male relative's consent. Again, IFAD (2005) revealed that women insecurity and inaccessibility to land discourages land conservation since ecofeminists argue that women are better environmental managers than men. Lack of access to land by women according to Kameri-Mbote (2005) places them in a precarious position in terms of their survival and livelihoods, and stifles their effective role and contribution to national development. Kameri-Mbote further opined that "with agriculture and other land based natural resources being the main sources of livelihood, the consequences for women not owning, controlling or accessing land are grave" (Kameri-Mbote, 2005).

Land is a key resource for the rural and urban poor as it provides an important basis for their economic and social development. In Ghana, land ownership, land rights and tenures are administered in a plural legal environment with customary laws and norms operating alongside statutes. The customary owners - stools,

clans, families, and tendamba, who hold the allodial title, own about 78 percent of the total land area in Ghana. Of the remaining 22 percent, the state owns about 20 percent while the remaining 2 percent is held in dual ownership: the legal estate in the government and the beneficiary/equitable interest in the community (Kassanga, 2003).

Land may be considered the most important raw material or asset necessary for agricultural production. It is the foundation for food production, shelter provision and economic activities and as such virtually every individual depends directly or indirectly on land for their livelihood. Land is not only a source of food, employment and income; it also gives social prestige and access to political power. Land has long been recognised as key to advancing the socio-economic rights and wellbeing of individuals and their position in society. Thus, every individual needs to be given equal and equitable opportunities without undue discrimination.

The need for gender balance in land tenure is underscored by the fact that in global terms, women own only one percent of all land (Seager, 1997, cited in Bugri, 2008). It has been argued (Leonard & Toulmin, 2000) that more attention should be paid to the land rights of women in Africa due to the important contribution women make to agriculture production and the continued importance of land to the incomes, employment and food security of rural households, as well



as the weaknesses of women's formal claims over land and their apparent vulnerability to loss, as land becomes scarce.

When it comes to landownership in Ghana especially in the patrilineal areas such as Northern Ghana, there is a high perception that women do not own land and generally perceived that women are discriminated against in terms of their land rights (Bugri, 2008).

### **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Women in Ghana are recognized under law as having equal rights with men in all spheres of life. The 1992 Constitution recognises equality of all persons before the law and prohibits discrimination on the grounds of sex, religion etc. According to Duncan (2004), women constitute an overwhelming majority in the informal sector more especially in the agriculture sector where they form 52 percent of the productive force. They also account for 70 percent of subsistence crops and form about 90 percent of the labour force in the marketing of the farm produce. Women supply 80% of the labour in the harvesting, storing, processing and marketing of agricultural produce. They also contribute to weeding and other farm activities. Women's crops play an important role in household food security and generate cash for buying oil, vegetables, meat and, increasingly, extra staple foods.





Gender equality in the distribution of agricultural land is therefore critical as it has positive multiplier effects for a range of key development goals, including poverty reduction (UNDESA, 2009). However, women continue to be excluded from key decision-making forums addressing the allocation of land and opportunities, which further perpetuates gender inequality (Ibid). The existence of this phenomenon result from cultural and social inequalities from gender relations or gender roles that prevail within households making the male head having a high level of control (Ibid).

Available literature from the situation as it pertains in Ghana is limited to access to land. This situation is key to understanding their subordinate position in society and to explain gender inequality in Ghana (Awumbila, 1997; Kotey & Tsikata, 1998). Studies cited in Deere and Doss (2006) indicate that women held land in only 10% of Ghanaian households while men held land in 16-23% in Ghana. In many parts of Ghana, pressure on land has resulted in reduction or even abandoning of fallow periods due to land scarcity thus compounding problems of deteriorating soil fertility. Women have been more severely affected by this due to their lower access to land (Awumbila, 1997). Women's lower access to land in the southern forest-savannah transition zone of Ghana, has affected women's ability to practice sustainable environmental management, thus impacting on agricultural and biodiversity on their farms (Ardayfio-Schandorf & Awumbila, 2000). Kotey and Tsikata (1998) suggest that depending on what crops are cultivated on farms and what they are used for, farms can become a male or



female domain. For example, in Northern Ghana, the compound farms located around homesteads, have become associated with women's farming, as against commercial tree crop agriculture in Southern Ghana which is largely a male domain. Also of significance are gender inequalities in farm sizes operated by women relative to men. Most women cultivate relatively small farm sizes. It is estimated that in the Upper West Region, women's private average farm sizes was estimated at less than one acre (Awumbila & Momsen, 1995).

Similarly, the Ministry of Food and Agriculture in Ghana, acknowledges the fact that the agricultural productivity of women farmers is hampered in Ghana by their insecure access to land as well as their limited access to financial services, their limited access to labour, the lack of appropriate technologies, skewed extension services delivery, heavy workload resulting in time constraints and women's lack of involvement in decision making (Duncan & Brants, 2004)).

Customary rules exert the most significant influence on land ownership in the Upper West Region. According to ISSER (2005) there are six land ownership types in the Region. In the Wa Municipality, family land holding is in the hands of the Kpaguri, Sokpeyiri, Puohuyiri and Suuriyiri sections of Wa (Kuusaana, 2007). Therefore, a gender analysis of land distribution on agricultural development in the Wa Municipal.



### **1.3 Research Questions**

#### **1.3.1 Main Research Question**

1. What is the effect of gender land distribution on Agricultural development in the Wa municipal of the Upper West Region of Ghana.

#### **1.3.2 Specific Research Questions**

The specific research questions are;

1. What is the nature of land acquisition in the Wa municipal?
2. What is the relationship between gender and access to land in the Wa municipal?
3. What are the factors that constraint women's rights of access, control, use and ownership of land in the Wa municipal?
4. What is the influence of lack of women access to land on their agricultural development?

### **1.4. Objectives of the Study**

#### **1.4.1 Main Objective**

The main objective of the study is to determine the effect of gender land distribution on agricultural development in Wa municipal.



### **1.4.2 Specific Objectives**

The specific objectives of this study are;

1. To determine the nature of land endowment in the Wa municipal.
2. To investigate the relationship between gender and access to land in the Wa municipal.
3. To find out the factors that constraint women's rights of access, control, use and ownership of land in the Wa municipal.
4. Determine the extent to which lack of access to land by women influence their agriculture development in the Wa municipal.

### **1.5 Research Hypothesis**

1. Most of the land endowment in Wa is owned by the Tendana.
2. There is a relationship between male and female in accessing land.
3. There are no constraints to women in accessing and owning land.
4. Lack of access to land has reduced agricultural development.

### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

To bring about agricultural development, ownership or access to land plays a decisive role. Agricultural development programs are increasingly expected to deliver income, nutrition, food security, and empowerment outcomes as well as agricultural growth, yet relatively little is known about how they affect or are affected by differential access to and control over land by men and women (Sabates-Wheeler's, 2006). It is important for policy makers to have an



understanding of the gendered nature of land ownership and accessibility, and how this influences individual and household livelihoods through agriculture is essential to designing effective development policies and interventions.

Whiles this paper aims to contribute to literature on gender and access to land, it also seeks to bring the best available empirical evidence to bear on the contributions women make and the constraints they face in agricultural and rural enterprises in the Wa municipal; to demonstrate how the gender gap limits agricultural productivity, economic development and human well-being; to evaluate critically interventions aimed at reducing the gender gap and to recommend practical steps that national governments and the Ministry of Food and Agriculture in particular can take to promote agricultural development by empowering women.

### **1.7 Scope of the Study**

The study was specifically restricted to women access and ownership of land, and their effect on agricultural development in the Wa municipal. The study identified factors that tend to impede women's land rights in the nature of access, control and ownership, and also assessed the implications of these on their agricultural development to draw lessons and offer recommendations to guide future policy on security of land tenure for women.



### **1.8 Organisation of the Study**

The whole work would be in five chapters, which includes the chapter one that entails the background of the study to the organization of the study. Chapter two details the Literature review drawn from available reviews. Chapter three of the methodology, chapter four includes the Data presentation, analysis and discussion and finally chapter five presents the summary, conclusion of the research and recommendations for policy makers.



## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature on the definition of concepts used in the study, including gender roles and the issue of gender and access to land. It also reviews literature on research on the factors that affect gender and agricultural production.

#### 2.1 Gender and Gender Roles

As a term, 'Gender' is interpreted differently by different people depending on their social context. Scott (1988), an American feminist historian who theorised about gender and history in the early eighties, defines gender as 'a constitutive element of social relationships based on perceived differences between sexes.' Scott further emphasised that gender is a "primary way of signifying relationships of power" (ibid). In furthering the definition of gender, Reeves and Baden (2000) posit gender as the socially determined ideas and practices of what it is to be female or male. However, Njenga et al. (2011) broadened the definition to include the socio-cultural constructs of roles in terms of responsibilities, characteristics, attitudes and beliefs among men and women, including the young and old. These roles and relationships are learned, change over time, and vary widely within and between cultures.

Gender as a social construct, link sex to expected characteristics and behaviour, as such men are endowed by law and custom with property rights as well as the



control of labour as women are sometimes viewed as too weak or too emotional to have such control (Flora, 2001).

According to Moock (1986), gender is fundamental to understanding social structures and expectations including decision-making processes and responsibilities, how risk-loving members of the society are and their rights to benefits due to technological improvement. The social relations of gender include all aspects of social activities with particular emphasis on the exercise of authority, access to and control of resources for production, distribution of income, and remuneration for work as well as cultural and religious activities.

By gender roles, women have many responsibilities that range from productive to reproductive (such as child bearing and child rearing); as a result, they become resilient in order to be able to do multiple tasks (The Montpellier Panel, 2012). Aregu et al. (2010) report that gender roles and relationships influence the division of work, the use of resources, and the sharing of the benefits of production between women and men.

Bhagowalia et al. (2007) argue that roles within the household by gender have an effect on how households invest in agriculture. Households with more males would tend to invest more in agriculture for reasons including more labour force to facilitate work and the guarantee of inter-generational transfers of land and accumulated wealth to males. This means that intensity of cropping and





agricultural productivity may depend on not only technology and credit constraints but by perceptions regarding the relative economic value of the contributions of males and females. Women by gender roles are marginalized in the decision-making process regarding agricultural development (Ogunlela & Mukhtar, 2009). This constitutes a bottleneck to development and therefore a need for a review of government policies on agriculture to all the elements that place women farmers at a disadvantage (Ibid). Peterman et al. (2011) echo this observation by reporting that gender inequalities resulting from gender roles and the inadequate attention paid to this problem in agricultural development contributes to lower productivity among women.

In northern Ghana, the gender segregation has led to women being affected more by poverty and food insecurity. Women are not included in decision-making on the use of resources (Bambang & Abubakari, 2013). For instance, customarily, women cannot inherit land be it from their family or their spouses (Agana, 2012). Women gain access to land as gifts from their husbands and male relatives for survival. Fofie and Adu (2013) however point out that though there have been policies and legislative reforms that seek to address the problem of gender inequality, several cases of inequality especially in land tenure system exist in Ghana.



## 2.2 The Issue of Gender and Access to Land

Access to land involves the right to do certain things with the land and this include the rights to use the land, decide how the land is used, enjoy what is produced from the land, exclude people from the land, transfer land rights through gift, inheritance, sale or lease and use land as security for loans (FAO, 2006). Cotula (2007) states that in traditional African land tenure, certain rights to a piece of land can belong to one person or a group; while other rights to the same piece of land are held by another person or group. The FAO (2002) has illustrated that rights of access to land can take the following forms:

- **Use rights:** the right to use land for grazing, growing subsistence crops, gathering minor forestry products, etc.
- **Control rights:** the right to make decisions on how the land should be used and to benefit financially from the sale of crops, etc.
- **Transfer rights:** the right to sell or mortgage the land, to convey the land to others through intra-community re-allocations or to heirs and to re-allocate use and control rights (ibid).

Land is the most important household asset for households that depend on agriculture for their livelihoods. Access to land is a basic requirement for farming and control over land is synonymous with wealth, status and power in many areas. Access to land is very much dependent on the land tenure arrangements and system of a particular region.



Gender, together with class, ethnicity, and caste, is one of the most important determinants of land rights in households and rural communities, including land tenure relations. Women and men have three general mechanisms for obtaining rights to land: (1) through social and kinship relations at the local level, (2) on the land market, or (3) from the state (World Bank, FAO & IFAD, 2009).

There is a common story about women and land tenure status which transcends ethnic, cultural and national boundaries in Sub-Saharan Africa where women are not placed as owners of land but as owners of crops (Gray & Kevane, 1996). The concept of sustainable development hinges on the ability and willingness of people to make long term investment in land and this directly depends on its accessibility and the protection that is given to holders of rights in the land (FAO, 2002). According to Duncan (2004), women generally have rights to cultivate and rights to dispose of crops and crop income, but not rights to allocate or alienate land and that these rights to use the land are associated with their position towards men, thus as mothers, wives, sisters and daughters. It has also been argued by Gray and Kevane (1996), that more importantly, when land becomes scarce or rises in value or when rights are formalised through title or registration, then rights to use land are revealed to be secondary and tenuous.

Whilst lack of security of tenure affects millions of people across the world, women face added risks of deprivation in Africa as they are systematically denied their human rights to access, own, control or inherit land and property (Benschop,



2004). The vast majority of women cannot afford to buy land, and usually can only access land and housing through male relatives, which makes their security of tenure dependent on good marital and family relations (ibid).

In Ghana, instances have been recorded which depict the difficulties women face in land acquisition. Duncan (2004) reported that in Anloga in the Volta Region, the society is patrilineal and all children are supposed to inherit their fathers, but it has been documented that daughters receive a much smaller share than the sons.

According to Fayorsey (2003), when women have communal rights they are denied use right as individuals and where use rights exist, they lapse as soon as they marry and go away to another village. Thus, access to such land is through the husband and this opportunity ends with the death of spouse or divorce. IFAD (1998) reports the same about women in the Upper West Region of Ghana. In both patrilineal and matrilineal societies in Ghana, wives cannot succeed their deceased husbands and therefore they and their children are denied the right to participate in their husbands' and fathers' property, even where they helped to create the wealth (Fayorsey, 2003).

Notwithstanding the above arguments, there is evidence that women's access to land is improving. Woodman (1985) is of the view that women's chances of gaining access to land are becoming brighter due to migrations, education and economic changes in rural communities. She argues that in the rural areas, women have easy access to land and what is required is the ability and resources to



cultivate any size of land (ibid). Fayorsey (2003) agrees that although men appear to dominate, there is no discrimination as to access to land based on sex for any purpose, whether for agricultural or building purposes. She however states that certain customary practices rob women of their rights in land and these must be changed. A recent report on the status of women in Ghana states that there seems to be a gradual removal of the more discriminatory provisions relating to land tenure and to more definite efforts to improve the access of women farmers to land (Fayorsey, 2003). Bugri (2008) reports on a study in Northeast Ghana that customary practices even under the patrilineal system of land inheritance are changing in favour of women owning land, and access to land for livelihood needs is similar across gender.

It has been pointed out by Bortei-Doku (1990) that problems occur when there are barriers to women owning land in their own right, when it comes to making farm management decisions or gaining access to credit after the death of a husband or when the husband is away for an expected period. Benneh et al. (1996) cited in Fayorsey (2003) examined women's access to agricultural land in some household in the Ashanti and Upper West regions concluded using empirical evidence from field surveys that the existing tenure systems present no significant obstacle to women's access to agricultural land and that neither does tenure directly inhibit agricultural development amongst women.



In recent times, more females are seeking access to land because of education and economic changes in the rural communities. There is a better understanding of the demands of life and the quest to acquire property for one's self is propelling many women in the rural areas to seek land and to undertake some productive ventures (Agarwal, 2003). This is in contrast to earlier times when women had to fulfil their marital obligation by giving up their own lands or only maintain smaller portions so that they could manage alongside their husband's farm (Duncan, 2004).

### **2.3 Women's Access to Land under Customary Law in Ghana**

With regard to women's security of tenure, it is noted that to a large extent, women's land rights under customary law, especially for women in the rural areas, tend to be secondary rights, derived through their membership in households and lineages and secured primarily through marriage (Dowuona-Hammond, 2003; Hillhorst, 2000). Such secondary rights of women tend to be very insecure since they are often not clearly defined or documented and also tend to be subject to change, are of uncertain duration and are often subject to the maintenance of good relations between the parties involved (Kassanga, 2003).

The principal ways in which women acquire land is through their lineage, inheritance, marriage or by contractual arrangements. It is well established that according to customary law principles, all subjects of the stool and lineage members, regardless of sex, have inherent rights of access to the lands held by the



stool or family head in trust (Ruenger, 2006). This interest, to which all subjects are entitled, is referred to as the usufructuary interest or customary freehold. Studies by Kotey and Tsikata (1998) have shown however that women's access to the usufruct is affected by a number of factors including patterns of marital residence, land scarcity, production relations and gender bias in the size of land given to women among some groups, the most crucial determinant being the sexual division of labour and the organization of production in both patrilineal and matrilineal areas. Bortei-Doku (2002) also describes some of the less obvious ways in which women are restricted in their control of resources, and how, despite these limitations, they manage to widen their claims to resources and the extent to which rituals control women's access to agricultural resources and how policy measures could strengthen the rights of access of women to land.

With regard to contractual arrangements for land, Duncan found that share cropping as a source of land for women was largely problematic. In her study, many share croppers complained about the arbitrariness of landlords in changing the terms of the tenancy at will, a situation made easy for them by the verbal nature of many of these arrangements (Duncan, 2004). One important traditional channel for women to own land is the transfer of land as gifts from families or spouses. The important point here is that women have rights of disposal over such land. But evidence on the extent to which families take advantage of this option to give women control of land is lacking (Dowuona-Hammond, 2003). Furthermore, the practice is subject to land availability and the benefactor's personal wealth



(Kotey & Tsikata, 1998). It appears that in most cases it is the contribution that a wife or female relative has made to the benefactor's wealth that prompts the gift of land, which supports the fact that this option is not generally available to everybody. The practice is therefore more commonly associated with export crop or other cash crop areas (ibid).

#### **2.4 Gender and Agricultural Productivity**

Clark (2013), using OLS to estimate a Cobb-Douglas production function finds that much of the productivity gap between men and women in the agricultural sector is explained by differences in access to vital agricultural inputs, including high quality land and extension services. Additionally, the presence of plots containing multiple crops negatively influenced maize yields and tends to harm productivity more significantly on farms of women than farms managed by men. Using these findings as a basis for policy, he suggests that direct government intervention that expands the scope and availability of extension services, reforms that change land ownership and inheritance rights, and investment in female empowerment programs could reduce gender-based productivity differences further.

Villabon (2012) analyzed gender characteristics and gender differences in agricultural productivity using a cross-sectional household survey data collected in Peru. Estimation of log linear models were aimed at explaining differences in female and male household heads' values of production per hectare, while





controlling for socio-economic characteristics of the household heads, agricultural inputs and regional variations. The study found that there are no effects of sex of the household head itself as well as no effects of sex of the household individuals on plot yield. Furthermore, productivity differences were shown to be attributable to the several inputs male and female household heads used for their agricultural production, which appeared to be influenced by the different characteristics of the regions where the plots were located. Education and mother tongue were shown to be of high importance for agriculture in the Peruvian context. The study suggests that language skills and education become a policy priority for female household heads to increase their productivity.

Thapa (2008) analyzed productivity differentials between men and women in the peasant agriculture in Nepal. Both Cobb-Douglas and translog production functions were estimated using data from the Nepal Living Standard Survey 2003/04. Male-managed farms produce more output per hectare with higher command in market input use, obtaining credit, and receiving agricultural extension services than female managed farms. Sex of household head as proxy for farm manager did not show any difference between male and female managed farms. However, the coefficients of location and household characteristics show significant variations in farm output among ethnic and caste groups residing in different ecological belts of Nepal. The study found that, adult male labour contributed more in production process than adult female labour. Policy needs to focus on the reduction of caste or ethnic disparities as well as regional imbalance



in order to minimize disparities in farm productivity between men and women as well as among ethnic and caste groups.

Adeleke et al. (2008) conducted a study on gender and productivity differentials among male and female maize farmers in Oluyele Local Government Area of Oyo State in Nigeria. The study described the socio-economic characteristics of the farmers, analyzed the factors that influence the production of maize and compared the productivity of male and female maize farmers in the study area. The data collected was analysed using descriptive statistics, multiple regressions and the Chow F test to check for the existence of structural stability among male and female maize farmers. The authors observed that there are gender specific differences. These gender specific characteristics did not however affect the productivity of male and female farmers. They found that, women were as productive as men if incentives were granted to everybody who farm maize, there would be an overall increase in the productivity of the households in the study area.



## **2.5 Conclusion**

Gender is a social construct based on roles assigned to being a female or male sex. Access to land in Ghana and Africa, customarily has been skewed against the female sex. Although women can own land, the decision to own land is supervised by a male partner in most cultures. In addition, some cultures in Ghana do not allow women to inherit land. The challenges faced by women in accessing land as compared to men affect agricultural development of women.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.0 Introduction

This chapter gives details of the methods used and materials employed to achieve the objectives of the study. It discusses and analyses the entire research design which includes the study area, target population, sampling and sample size, sampling technique and data collection methods.

#### 3.1 Study Area

The Wa municipal area started as a kingdom in the 16th and early 17th century originating from the movement of various kinship groups at different times (Salih, 2008). Oral tradition affirms, that the movement of these people into Wa resulted from chieftaincy disputes among kinships and the trans- Saharan gold trade at the Lobi or Black Volta goldfields (Salih, 2008). More significantly, the arrival of three major estates, Nabiili, Tagrahi and Limanhi together with the Tengdaamba set up a nucleus which laid the foundation of the Wa kingdom with Wa town serving as the centre (Salih, 2008).

In pursuance of the decentralization policy introduced in 1988, a Legislative Instrument (LI) 1800 created the Wa Municipal Assembly from the then Wa district in 2004 (Amoah and Yahaya, 2013). Lying within latitude 1°40' and 2°45'N and longitude 9°32' to 10°20'W (Amoah & Yahaya, 2013) and with a land size of 234.74 square kilometres (occupying 6.4 percent of the total land coverage



of the region), the area currently serves as a Municipal and Regional capital for the Upper West Region (WMA, 2013).

According to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, the Wa Municipal Area has a population of 107, 214 (2013) representing 15.3 percent of the total population in the Upper West Region. Although the Wa Municipality is considered an urban area, it also has a rural population of 36,163 representing 33.7 percent of the total population in Wa (GSS, 2013a). Following the trend of the national population, the Wa Municipal area also has a dominant female population of 54, 218 as compared to the male population of 52, 996 representing 50.6 percent and 49.4 percent respectively (GSS, 2012).

Although the Wa Municipal Area is the most urbanized in the region, agricultural activities, contributing about (70%), dominate the economy (WMA, 2013). Other economically vibrant activities which employ the population and contribute to the economy include; pito brewing, agro industry, edible oil extraction, processing and packaging and tourism (WMA, 2013).

### **3.2 Research Design**

The research design used for the study was a survey. A survey research is a descriptive research in which survey instruments mostly the questionnaire and interview guides are used to collect data to describe the population (Cresswell, 2006). Surveys are usually quantitative. Survey design was chosen because of its numerous advantages such as providing important insights into the gender



disaggregation of respondents, collection of a wide scope of information from large population.

### **3.3 Population**

Cresswell (2006) explains a target population as the unit for which information is required. The target population of the study was all farmers in the Wa municipality.

### **3.4 Sampling and Sample Procedure**

A sample size of 200 respondents were conveniently chosen and used for the study out of a total population of 107, 214. In addition, the usage of 18% of the target population is appropriate for sample generalization. This sample included 180 female and male farmers, 15 chiefs and 5 Endameba; who are the custodians of the land in the Wa municipality.

A sample of 18 communities was selected for the survey from Wa Municipality and they were stratified into urban, peri-urban and rural. The 18 selected communities covered had 70% or more of their inhabitants engaged in farming as a major occupation in the rural areas and the opposite was the case for the urban.

In selecting the farmers, 10 farmers were selected from each community using the random sampling. The sampling frame was a list of farmers obtained from the farmer registration list made available by the Municipal Agricultural Extension Officer. The respondents (farmers) from the municipality were then selected using the simple random sampling. To satisfy the condition of randomness, a table of



random numbers was used in the sample selection to ensure that each farmer had an equal chance of being selected. With the help of the Agricultural Extension Agents, the farmers were identified and interviewed using a structured questionnaire.

### **3.5 Data Collection Procedure**

Data were collected from the survey using structured questionnaire. Reconnaissance visits were carried out in some communities to help shape impressions of the area and guide the design of the data collection instruments. The structure of the questionnaire followed the objectives of the study.

The questionnaire included a background or socio economic characteristics of the respondents, nature of land endowment, gender and access to land, constraints in accessing land and the extent to which access to land affects agricultural productivity. Pretesting entails trying the questionnaire out in similar interviewers and respondents to those to be used in the main study. According to Cresswell (2006), pretesting offers opportunity of determining whether the interview questionnaire meet expected standards of clarity, adequacy and lay out for easy administration. Furthermore, pretesting helps the researcher assess whether the interviewers do understand and can administer the instrument effectively and efficiently and whether the target respondents find the interview schedule adequate for its purpose (Cresswell, 2006; Barbie, 2004). In the light of the above, the first draft of both the questionnaire and the interview guide were pre-tested



using 10 farmers. This helped to satisfy the conditions of validity of the questionnaire.

A combination of methods was used to collect data. Whilst the secondary data on the issue were gathered from the web sites of various institutions of relations to gender and land distribution to agricultural productivity and other documented reports, the primary data gathering instruments for the primary data were structured questionnaires.

### **3.6 Data Analysis Procedure**

Data were sorted, coded, summarized and analyzed by using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS version 21) Computer Software. Based on the objectives of the study, both quantitative and qualitative analyses were done. Quantitative analysis included frequencies, percentages and means. The qualitative analyses was done using content analyses.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents findings from the field. The data has been arranged to respond to the objective of the study. The analyses have been done using both quantitative and qualitative methods of data analyses. The quantitative data was analysed using the percentages, frequencies and the mean while the qualitative data was analysed through content analyses. In all a sample size of 200 respondents which included females, chiefs and endameba were used for the study.

#### 4.1 Background/social-economic characteristics

The data captured the ages of respondents in years, analysed using the percentage and the data presented in Figure 4.1.

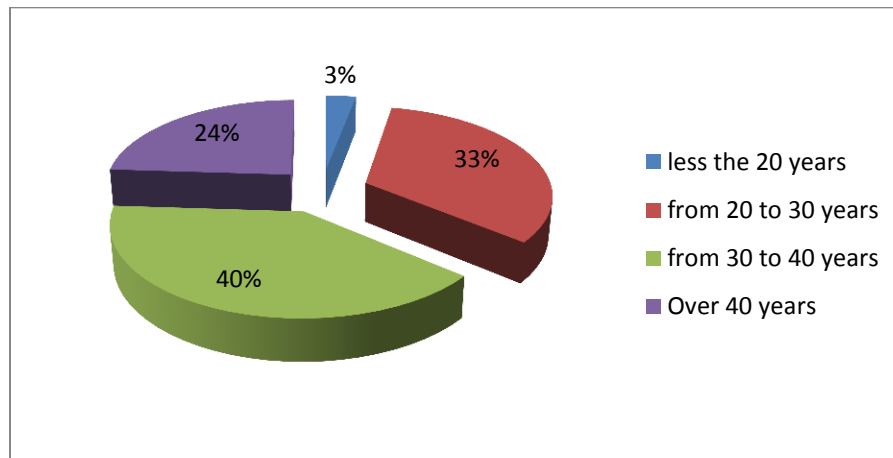


Figure 4.1: Age of the Respondents

Source: Fieldwork, 2017

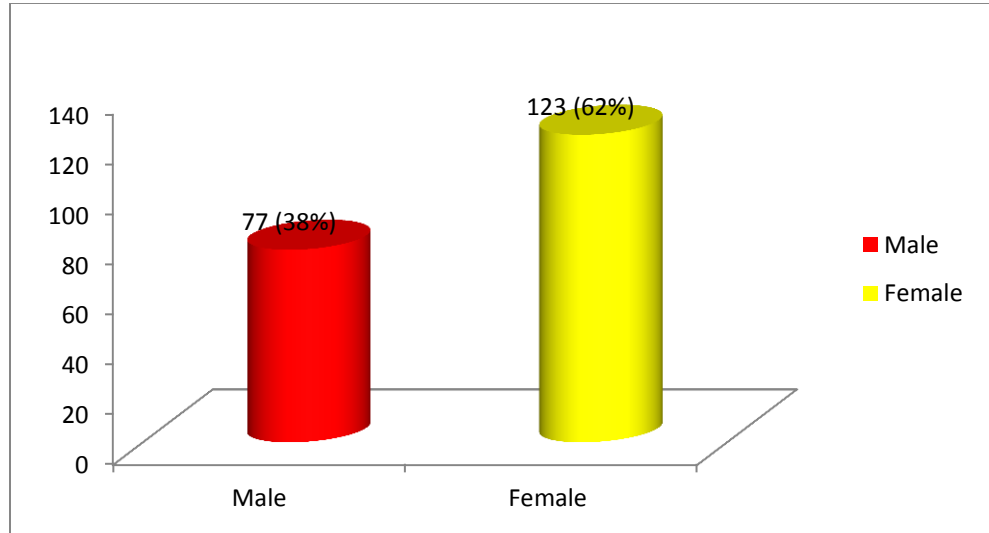
From Figure 4.1, it is realized that most 40 percent of the respondents were between the ages of 30 and 40 years while 3 percent were less than 20 years. In





addition, 33 percent were between the ages of 20 and 30 years and 24 percent were over 40 years.

The data collection instrument also captured the sex of the respondents and presented in Figure 4.2.



**Figure 4.2: Sex of the Respondents** Source: Fieldwork, 2017

Figure 4.2 show that 123 respondents constituting 62% were females while 77 respondents representing 38% of the respondents were males.

The religious affiliation of the respondents were asked and the results presented in

Table 4.1

**Table 4.1: Religion of the Respondents**

Religion	Frequency	Percentage
Islam	157	78
Christianity	18	9
Traditional	25	13
Atheist	0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2017



In Table 4.1, none of the respondents was an atheist while 157 respondents representing 78% were affiliated to Islam and 25 respondents constituting 13% of the respondents were Traditional. It was also realized that 25 respondents constituting 13% were affiliated to Christianity.

The instrument captured the educational status of the respondents and the results presented in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2: Education of the Respondents**

<b>Education</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
No education	37	19
Basic	48	24
Basic dropout	73	36
Secondary	21	11
Post-secondary	16	8
Tertiary	5	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2017**

Table 4.2 shows that 73 (36%) of the respondents were basic school dropouts, followed by 48 (24%) of the respondents who had basic school education and 37 (19%) of the respondents had no education. In addition, 21 (11%) of the respondents had secondary education and only 5 (2%) of the respondents had tertiary education.



The data collection instrument captured the marital status of the respondents and the results presented in Table 4.3.

**Table 4.3: Marital Status of the Respondents**

<b>Marital Status</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Married	121	61
Never married	45	22
Divorced	23	12
Widowed	11	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2017**

On the marital status as shown in Table 4.3, it is realized that 121 (61%) of the respondents were married, followed by 45 (22%) of the respondents who has never married and 23 (12%) of the respondents who were divorced. In addition, 11 (5%) of the respondents were widowed.

The instrument captured the number of children by respondents and the results presented in Table 4.4.

**Table 4.4: Number of Children by Respondents**

<b>Number of children</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
None	89	45
From 1 to 4	63	31
From 4 to 7	34	17
8 and more	14	7
<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2017**



On the number of children by the respondents, Table 4.4 reveals that 89 respondents constituting 45% had none while 14 respondents constituting 7% had 8 and more children. In addition, 63 respondents constituting 31% chose from 1 to 4 children and 34 respondents representing 17% chose from 4 to 7 children.

#### 4.2 Nature of Land Acquisition

The nature of land acquisition started by asking the procedure for acquiring land and it revealed from the responses that the first point of call in acquiring land is the Tendana. The Tendana is the landlord and anyone who wanted land for any activity must buy from the Tendana. Also, land could be acquired through inheritance but this could be done by male children of the family. After the land is bought from the Tendana, it needed to be registered at the town and country planning office in the district.

On this account, some respondents had these to say; one said,

*Buy from Tendana, and then go and lease*

Another respondent said,

*Men inherit land from their fathers or uncles from their family*

Another added,

*First, meet the Tendana, buy from him and register at the land commission*

In these accounts, it could be realized that one can acquire land through outright purchases from the landowners, and leasing from the town and country planning office.

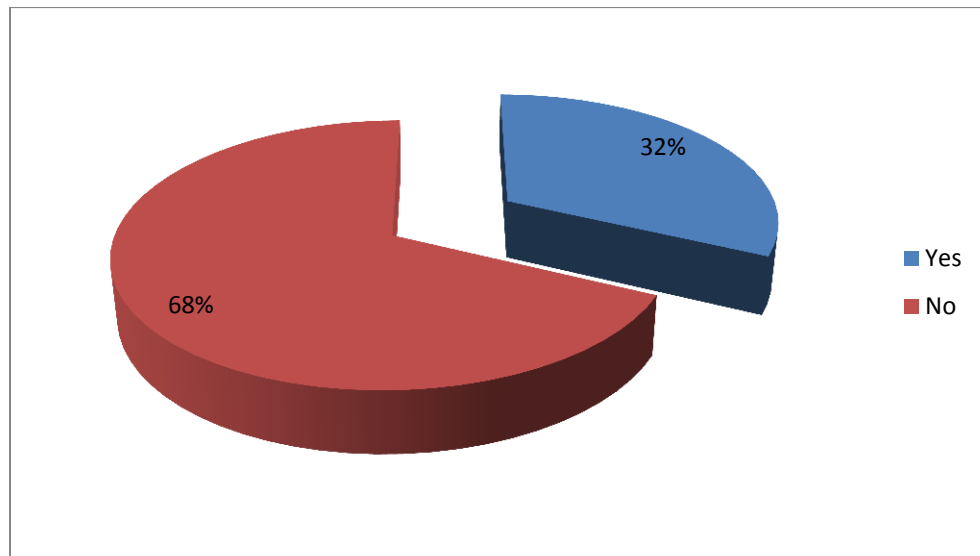


However, other respondents who acquired their land from second party owners did not need to go to the Tendana before they can buy the land. On this account, one respondent had this say;

***The owner should be contacted first and sell it to you***

This means that other landlords who have bought from the Tendana could be resold to interested parties.

On the accounts of the group of people who can acquire the land, it was realized that land acquisition could be done by anybody regardless of gender, age and membership. In this regard, 100% of the respondents agreed that men, women, strangers, indigenes, settlers and young men could all acquire land depending on their ability to acquire the land.



Source: Fieldwork, 2017

**Figure 4.3: Are procedures for land acquisition different among any of these groups?**



Figure 4.3 shows that most 68% of the respondents said No while 32% of the respondents said Yes when asked whether procedures differ among groups in terms of land acquisition.

Among the 32% of the respondents who said there are differences in the procedure for land acquisition among the groups, it was realized that indigenes have different terms in acquiring land as compared to strangers. Indigenes do not pay any amount in acquiring land while strangers will have to pay an amount before offered a land. On this account, a respondent said;

***Indigenous people do sometimes get the land free***

Another said;

***Indigenous people only need to bring a kola to the Tendana while the strangers need to pay some amount before they can acquire the land***

In addition, women and men differ in acquiring land from the Tendana. While men do not need to consult their spouse before acquiring a land, women needed to seek permission from their husbands before acquiring lands. On this account, a respondent had this to say;

***Women have to consult their husbands before buying the land***

Another said,

***Women should seek permission from their husbands before they can acquire a land***



This illustration limits women's authority in acquiring land and that the husband must accept the woman's proposal for acquiring land before she could acquire one.

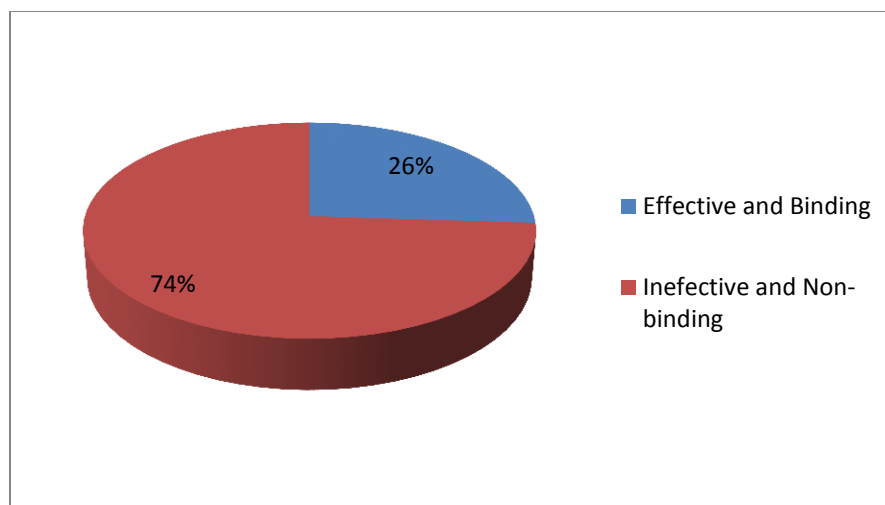
**Table 4.5: Mode of land Acquisition**

<b>Response</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Inheritance	88	44
Rental	29	15
Cash purchase	62	31
Gift	21	10
<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2017**

On the mode of land acquisition, Table 4.5 shows that 88 (44%) of the respondents acquired their land through inheritance, followed by 62 (31%) who acquired through cash purchases while 21 (10%) of the respondents acquired their land as gifts. In addition, 29 (15%) of the respondents were renting the land.





Source: Fieldwork, 2017

**Figure 4.4: How effective and binding are the rules governing customary land holding in the area?**

On the effectiveness of the rules binding customary land holding in the area, 74 percent chose ineffective and non-binding while 26 percent chose effective and binding.

### 4.3 Relationship between gender and access to land

The instrument further captured the attitude of people towards women ownership of land and the results presented in Table 4.6

**Table 4.6: Attitude towards women ownership of land**

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Unacceptable	13	7
A taboo	2	1
Partially acceptable	24	12
Acceptable	161	80
<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2017



From Table 4.6, it is realized that 161 (80%) of the respondents chose acceptable on their attitude towards women ownership of land while only 2 (1%) of the respondents saw it as a taboo for women to own land. In addition, 24 (12%) of the respondents chose partially acceptable and 15 (7%) chose unacceptable when asked about their attitude towards women owning land.

In accessing the land, there was gender disparity between women and men as women had to inform their spouse before accessing the land. This means that permission will have to be sought before they can buy the land from the Tendana. On this account, some women had this to say;

***Because of the respect they have for their husbands, they inform them before going to buy the land***

Another said;

***Consult the spouse before going to the Tendana,***

Another said;

***The husband must be informed and he must give his consent***

In these revelations, it is noted that the right to own a land by a women must be guaranteed by the husband. From the responses, it is also realized that women must seek approval from their husbands before they can access the land.

However, men did not have to seek the consent of their spouse before they can access the land. Men who needed a land may inform the wife but did not need to seek the consent of the spouse. On this account, some respondents had this to say;



*Men do not need to consult anyone; they just needed to go straight to the Tendana*

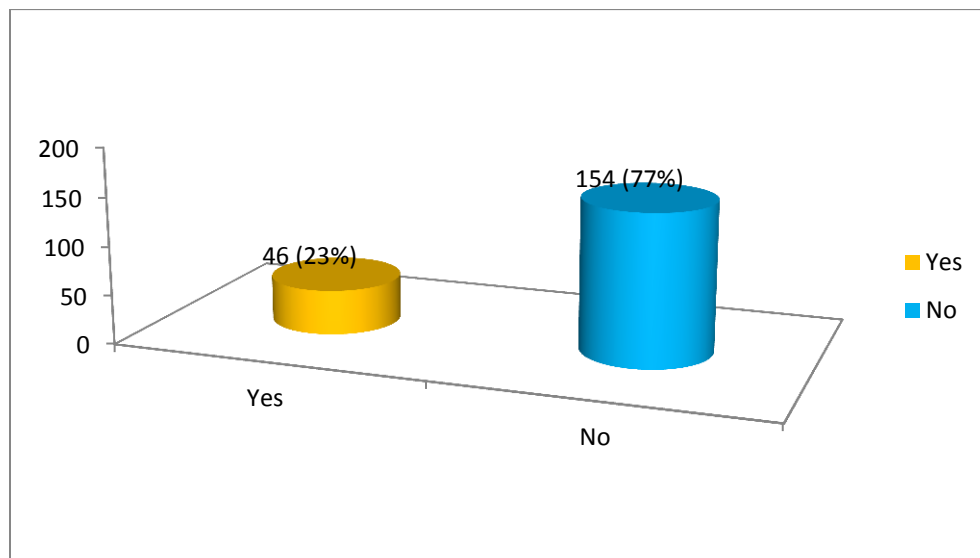
Another respondent had this to say;

*Men can decide to buy land without seeking the consent of their spouse*

The authority of women conventionally on accessing land emanates from the men and that women could not buy unless their spouse are informed. However, men could buy the land without informing their husbands.

#### 4.4 Factors that constraint women's rights of access, control, use and ownership of land

The instrument captured respondents view on whether customary right deny women of ownership of land and the results presented in Figure 4.5.



Source: Fieldwork, 2017

Figure 4.5: Does customary right deny women of ownership of land?

From Figure 4.5, it is realized that 154 of the respondents representing 77% chose No while 46 respondents representing 23% chose Yes.



**Table 4.7: If yes, what hinders women from owning land?**

<b>Response</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Cultural practices	27	59
Low income	4	9
Sex	15	32
<b>Total</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2017**

Among those who said yes customary rights deny them of owning land, 27 (59%) of them chose cultural practices as factors that hinder their ownership of land while 4 (9%) of the respondents chose low income. In addition, 15 (32%) of the respondents chose sex as the factor that hinder their ownership of land.

**Table 4.8: Does customary practice deny women of inheritance to land?**

<b>Response</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Yes	126	63
No	74	37
<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2017**

When respondents were asked whether customary practice deny women of inheriting land, it is realized that 126 (63%) of the respondents chose Yes while 74 (37%) of the respondents chose No.



**Table 4.9: Mean analyses of challenges to women inheriting land**

Response	Mean	Std. Deviation
Low income	2.25	.707
Customary practice deny women of land	1.67	.516
Customary belief on sacrifice to land	2.55	.701
Customary practices of widowhood	1.75	.886
Lack of dialogue on land issues	2.50	.535
Belief of re-marriage	2.62	.744

**Source: Fieldwork, 2017**

The mean indicators of responses presented in Table 4.9 indicates that belief of re-marriage with the highest mean of 2.62 and standard deviation of 0.744, followed by customary belief on sacrifice on the land with mean of 2.55 and standard deviation of 0.701 were the challenges facing women in inheriting land. In addition, lack of dialogue on land issues with mean of 2.50 and standard deviation of 0.535 and low income with mean 2.25 were other challenges encountered by women in inheriting land.

#### **4.5 Extent to which lack of access to land by women influence their agriculture development**

Qualitative data from the respondents revealed that the inability of women to access or own land has made them subordinates to their male counterparts on the farms. This reduces their ability to do their own farming thereby affecting



agricultural productivity negatively in the district. On these accounts, some of the respondents said;

*women alone do not own land and so they support their husbands on the farm*

Another respondent interviewed said;

*women don't own agriculture land thereby affecting their development*

Although it is earlier agreed that women can own land, women are by convention or culture discriminated against the use of land for agricultural purposes and needed to support their husbands on the farm. This situation affects the development of women since they had to rely on their husbands for most of their needs.

#### **4.6 Discussion**

The study is dominated by the youth who are between the ages of 20 and 40 years are shown in Figure 4.1 indicating that the district has a labour force to engage in many activities including agriculture. In addition, females dominated the study and this could have an influence on the study since the customary land rights directly affect them as shown in Table 4.1 where 62 percent out of the study population were said to be females as compared to 38 percent males. Again, 78 percent of the respondents were affiliated to Islam with others belonging to Christianity and Traditional Religion but none was affiliated to Atheist. Most of the respondents had no education or were basic school dropout as shown in Table 4.2 were 54 percent could not complete basic school and on the marital status,



most 61% of the respondents were married but 12% of the total population being divorced and 5% widowed. On the number of children, 45% of the respondents had no children but 65% had at least a child. This was to be expected as the fertility and birth rate of the region in which the district is located is relatively high as compared to the national rate.

On the nature of land acquisition, both women and men can access land through cash purchases from Tendana if not inherited which is contrary to the findings by Agana (2012) who found that customarily, women could not inherit land be it from their family or their spouses. This means that women could inherit land in the district. In addition, it was realized that women or men regardless of their religion could access the land if the need be. Apart from accessing the land from the Tendana, others who wish to buy from second party lease holders could do so. This implies that there are no restrictions in accessing land by women as expressed in other parts of the country where women are allowed to hold land title (Bugri, 2008). Although any person could access land regardless of gender, age or religion, it is different in the case of settlers and indigenes because land was given to indigenes free with others only giving out kola nut. However, settlers would have to buy as shown in Figure 4.3. The implication is that gender is not an issue with regards to accessing land in the district but heritage or lineage. Women could access land but this had to be supported by their husband or male partners in their family which supports argument made by Dowuona-Hammond (2003) who posits that women's land right under customary law, especially for women in rural area,



tend to be secondary. The mode of accessing land in the district is by inheritance, which means that land is being transferred from the deceased to his or her children. However, it must be noted that inheritance of land is male dominated as compared to women.

On the relationship between gender and access to land, there was an acceptable attitude towards women owning land as shown in Table 4.6 where 92 percent of the respondents indicated partially or acceptable attitude. However, it was realized that women had to consult their husbands before they can acquire land. This implies that the right of a woman to own land is influenced by the husband which is supported by Bambangi and Abubakari (2013), who posits that women are not included in decision-making on the use of resources. Men or husbands did not need to seek permission from the spouse before they could buy land or inherit land as compared to women. This again reinforces the observation that men have more control over land ownership than females.

On the factors that constraints women's rights of access, control, use and ownership of land, 77 percent were of the opinion that women are not denied of ownership of land under customary land right as shown in Figure 4.5. However, other respondents agreed that some factors hindered women's ownership of land. These factors included cultural practices of all kinds. Traditionally women are regarded as non-permanent members of their natal homes who will marry and move out of the family. As a result they are not taken into consideration when



allocating land to family members. Women's ownership of land in this respect, have the potential of claims from their husbands. In addition, women are not allowed to inherit land as shown in Table 4.8 of this study where 63 percent said women could not inherit land. This confirms the study by Fayorsey (2003) who found that, although women have communal rights, they are denied use right as individuals. This implies that when a father dies, his property devolves to the eldest of his sons and not the eldest child. It means that if a woman is even the oldest of the children she does not inherit her father's property. Also, widows are not allowed to inherit their deceased properties including land. Thus, theoretically, each member of a kinship group, male or female, has rights to land by virtue of membership of the group. The major for women not being allowed to inherit land is because of re-marriage to other families.





## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter looks at the summary of the findings, conclusion and the recommendations of the study.

This is a survey research which employed both qualitative and quantitative data on gender analysis of land distribution on agricultural development in the Wa Municipal. The sample size of the study was 200 respondents, which included females and the males with various social stratifications, and the data collected using the questionnaire which had both closed and open ended questions. The results were analysed using both descriptive analyses and content analyses, and the results presented in tables and charts.

#### 5.2 Summaries of the Findings

Land could be acquired through cash purchases or inheritance but women were not allowed to inherit in land in the municipality. On the accounts of the group of people who can acquire the land, it was realized that land acquisition could be done by anybody regardless of gender, age and membership. In this regard, 100% of the respondents agreed that men, women, strangers, indigenes, settlers and young men could all acquire land depending on their ability to acquire the land. However, there was difference in acquiring land by indigenes and settlers.



Another findings from the study is that women needed to consult their husbands before they can acquire land.

There was partially or acceptable attitude towards women owning land implying that women could access land. In addition, it is also realized that women must seek approval from their husbands before they can access the land. The authority of women conventionally on accessing land emanates from the men and that women could not buy unless their spouse are informed.

There are no customary practices that denied women of ownership of land. However, women could not inherit land. Factors that hindered women from inheriting land included, customary belief on sacrifices on the land which are the cultural factors and lack of dialogue on land issues among families.

The contribution of women in agriculture productivity was low since most of them could not inherit land and had to support their on the farm. This situation affects the development of women since they had to rely on their husbands for most of their needs.

### **5.3 Conclusion**

It can be concluded that women in the Wa Municipality can own land. Their right to the access of land is from cash purchases supervised by their husbands and not inheritance. Women cannot inherit from their deceased parents since land is inherited through the patrilineal lineage. The study also confirmed that other factors impede women's ownership of land which include customary belief of sacrifices on the land and belief or women re-marriage and lack of dialogue on



land issues among families inheritance and sacrifices to land gods and ancestors are stumbling blocks on women's access and ownership of land in the Wa Municipality. The inability of women to inherit land affects their agricultural productivity.

#### **5.4 Recommendations**

The recommendations based on the findings of the study are;

1. The government and the chiefs including other stakeholders should develop appropriate platforms to engender discussions on bad cultural or customary practices that denied women inheritance to land.
2. The government, non-government organisations and other gender based advocacy groups should work in concert to improve on the opportunities of women and advocate for gender inclusiveness by ensuring that there is full participation for both men and women at all levels of land use and management decisions.
3. In order to address the wide disparity in access to skin land, legal and land reforms need to take into account multiple-use rights to land, particularly women's rights, as well as the different means by which women gain access to land, including divorce and inheritance systems.
4. A comprehensive law on the property right of spouses must be promulgated to protect women's property rights in the matrimonial homes. This law should also enable women to make claims to properties such as farmlands of their spouses even in the traditional areas.



5. Women have to be empowered through formal education as this could increase their access, control and ownership of land especially now that land is commodity sold in the market.



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**APPENDIX**  
**QUESTIONNAIRE**

**Background/socio-economic characteristics**

Name.....

- 1. Age of respondent .....
- 2. Sex: male [ ]      female [ ]
- 3. Religion: Christian [ ]      Moslem [ ]      Traditional [ ]  
Atheist [ ]    other, specify .....
- 4. Education status: no education [ ]      basic [ ]      basic drop out [ ]  
secondary [ ]      post-secondary [ ]      tertiary [ ]
- 5. Marital status: Married [ ]      Never married [ ]      Divorced [ ]  
Widowed [ ]
- 6. Number of children.....

**Nature of land acquisition**

- 7. What is the procedure for acquiring land?  
.....  
.....
- 8. Indicate whether these groups of people can acquire land? Men [ ]  
Women [ ]    Strangers [ ]    Indigenes [ ]    Young men [ ]
- 9. Are procedures for land acquisition different among any of these groups?  
Yes [ ]      No [ ]
- 10. If yes, why? .....

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11. What is the mode for land acquisition? Inheritance [ ] Rental [ ]  
Cash purchase [ ] Borrowing [ ] Gift [ ] Others .....

12. What covenants are agreed on during land acquisition?  
.....  
.....

13. How effective and binding are the rules governing customary land holding  
in the area? Effective and binding [ ] Ineffective and non-binding [ ]

14. Explain your answer? .....

**Relationship between gender and access to land**

15. What is the attitude in your community on women’s rights to own and  
inherit land? Unacceptable [ ] A taboo [ ] Partially acceptable [ ]  
Acceptable [ ]

Explain.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

16. What is the position of the elder’s on women land rights? Unacceptable [ ]  
A taboo [ ] Partially acceptable [ ] Acceptable [ ]

17. What do women think of their rights to own and inherit land?  
Unacceptable [ ] A taboo [ ] Partially acceptable [ ]  
Acceptable [ ]

18. How do these people access land?



Women

.....  
.....

Men

.....  
.....

19. Is there any prominence given to women and men in accessing land?

Yes [ ]                      No [ ]

20. If yes, how? .....

21. Is there any relationship between men and women accessing land?

Yes [ ]                      No [ ]

22. If yes how? .....

**Factors that constraint women’s rights of access, control, use and ownership of land**

23. Does customary right deny women of ownership of land?

Yes [ ]                      No [ ]

24. If yes, what hinders women from owning land in your community?

Cultural practices [ ]      Low income [ ]      Sex [ ] Other, explain

25. Does customary practice deny women of inheritance to land?

Yes [ ]                      Yes [ ]



If yes, what hinders women from owning land in your community?

	<b>Items</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Not sure</b>
26.	Low income			
27.	Customary Belief on Sacrifice to Land			
28.	Customary Practices of Widowhood			
29.	Lack of Dialogue on Land Issues			
30.	Belief of re-marriage			

**Extent to which lack of access to land by women influence their agriculture development**

31. How does lack of access to land by women affect their agricultural development?

.....

.....

.....

.....

