

Original Research Article

Poverty Status among Irrigators and Homestead Gardeners in Eastern Cape Province of South Africa

Abstract

The *is* study analyzed the poverty status and determinants among farmers in Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. Primary data *was were* collected with the aid of well-structured questionnaire and a total of 267 respondents were chosen through a multistage random sampling technique. The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statics, Foster-Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) technique, logit regression model, and correlation matrix. The headcount index of the pooled data indicated that 49 percent of the respondents in the study area *is were* poor with poverty severity and poverty gap indices of 0.15 and 0.25 respectively. The depth of poverty was higher and severe in Tyhefu among the female homestead gardeners and farmers with less than 2ha of farmland. The result of logit regression revealed the years spent in school, household size, size of cultivated farmland, extension services, and being a member of an association have a significant influence on the likelihood of being poor. The study, therefore, recommends institutions in charge of credit facilities, education, and extension services are to be strengthened to give farmers sustainable well-being.

Keywords: Poverty indices, logit regression, correlation matrix

Introduction

The poverty rate in South Africa is unprecedented and so is the level of income inequality (Klasen, 1998; UNDP, 2007). According to SSA (2014), the estimated Gini coefficient for South Africa in 2011 stood at 0.69, showing a persistent decline in welfare. Such an outcome is consistent with the reality that, among the Medium Human Development countries in which South Africa is grouped by the UNDP, the HDI assessment for 2014 is 0.66 but, when the value was discounted for inequality in the distribution of the HDI dimension indices, the HDI fell to 0.428 (UNDP, 2015). The estimated youth unemployment rate in March 2011 as reported by MEC for Social Development in the Province was 41.4 percent above the national figure of 35 percent (Majodina, 2011). The adult unemployment rate was also estimated at 18.4 percent (Majodina, 2011).

Going by the natural events in current years, South Africa witnessed the most devastating drought in more than a century thus, cutting down farm jobs and increasing the cost of producing food (Vollgraaff *et al.*, 2016). The scientific community is confident such an occurrence is a consequence of climate change. *Not clear?* The magnitude of the predicted changes is unclear, but emerging facts agreed on the direction of changes and recognized that climate change will persist (Compass Resource Management, 2007). This occurrence has further compounded the rising food prices in addition to global situations to make the welfare situation worse in the urban and rural areas alike and as a result, incessant mass protests have become rampant. Without question, the recent fees must fall protests are linked to deteriorating welfare indices affecting the entire households of the protesting students.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

44 These unfavourable conditions according to Moyo (2010) are consequences of inefficient land
45 reforms and controlled access to farming resources. In 2007, Obi reported that restricted access
46 to the area of land South Africa black farmers could access hindered their ability to actively
47 compete in the agricultural market. This situation has spurred major political and economic
48 discourse sought after the distribution of assets and other forms of wealth. The Freedom Charter
49 of the ANC and the struggle of the black population revolved around land and how race should
50 not determine the size of landholding (Seeking and Natrass, 2005). In line with these
51 fundamental, government since the inception of democratic rule in 1994 has undertaken several
52 actions, including comprehensive land reform. Alongside the land redistribution programme are
53 complementary programmes for economic empowerment through credit assistance, subsidization
54 of farm infrastructure development, and other forms of support included under various schemes
55 such as Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP), Micro Agricultural Financial
56 Institutional Scheme of South Africa (MAFISA), to mention a few (OECD, 2011).

57 The growing level of poverty especially among the rural farming households despite the different
58 reforms affirms a missing link that probably arose from insufficient information to build a
59 pragmatic approach to mitigate poverty. Therefore, an informed decision is relevant to gain a
60 better understanding of the poverty dimensions among different farmers and their respective
61 capacities to chart appropriate programmes to alleviate poverty.

62 The policies adopted to expedite actions on farmers' skill acquisition and thereafter welfare
63 improvements rely on what is known and how they relate theoretically, and the position
64 government has taken is probably informed by what they know. The government would probably
65 have done more by adopting a much more different approach, hence the need for the study. The
66 primary attention of this study is on irrigators (farmers who apply water to cultivate their farms
67 year-round to boost production) and homestead gardeners.

68

69 **Methodology**

70 **Sampling Procedure**

71 A multistage stratified sampling technique was used to select a total of 267 farmers cultivating
72 maize and cabbage under the small-scale irrigation scheme and homestead gardening in the
73 Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. The first stage was the purposive selection of Qamata
74 and Tyhefu irrigation schemes as the Primary Sampling Units. These two schemes were selected
75 based on their attributes (e.g. functional status and accessibility) from a sample frame of
76 irrigation schemes (Qamata, Bilatye, Ncora, Keiskam Ahoek, Tsitsa Basin, Ntshon Gweni,
77 Ntshon Gweni, Pendu, and Tyhefu) established across the Eastern Cape Province of South
78 Africa. The second stage involved the listing of the maize and cabbage farming households and
79 the sample frame from each of the area (Qamata and Tyhefu) stratified into irrigators and
80 homestead gardeners following the principle of Probability Proportional to size (PPS). In
81 Qamata, irrigators and homestead gardeners represent 69 percent and 31 percent of the sample
82 frame while they take 64 percent and 36 percent in Tyhefu respectively. Considering the
83 predetermined proportions, sample sizes of households within each stratum were obtained
84 through simple random technique and the household heads were then administered the
85 questionnaire.

86 **Data**

87 Primary data was used for this study and relevant information collected using structured
88 questionnaires. Such information includes farmer's socio-economic characteristics such as age,

89 household size, number of years spent in school, marital status, frequency of extension contacts,
90 membership of an association, farm size, income, information on inputs, output, and marketing.
91 The questionnaire was pretested on a sample of farmers in Melani village. Though the
92 questionnaire was written in English, it was administered in Xhosa local language for easy
93 understanding and feedback.

94

95 **Method of Data Analysis**

96 The Foster-Greer-Thorbecke was adopted to assess the dimension of poverty in the study area.
97 Equally, factors influencing the poverty level of irrigators, homestead gardeners as well as the
98 pooled data was assessed using a logit regression model to understand the relationship between
99 poverty and some selected socioeconomic characteristics. Furthermore, a correlation matrix was
100 equally estimated for irrigators, homestead gardeners as well as the pooled data to affirm the
101 determinants of poverty among respondents in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa.

102

103 **FGT Assessment of Poverty**

104 The poverty model proposed by Foster-Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) (1984) was used to determine
105 the poverty status of the household head in the study area. The model is presented as follows

106
$$P_{\alpha} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^q \left[\left(\frac{g}{Z} \right)^{\alpha} I(Y_i < Z) \right] \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

107 Where P_{α} = Poverty parameter, α = Degree of poverty aversion, n = Total number households,
108 q = Number of poor households, $g = Z - Y_i$ = Per capita income deficit (Rand), Z = Poverty
109 line, and $I(Y_i < Z) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } Y_i < Z \\ 0 & \text{if } Y_i > Z \end{cases}$ = Indicator function.

110 According to Sanusi *et al.* (2013), if $\alpha = 0$, P_{α} = Poverty incidence (Headcount), it represents the
111 proportion of households below the poverty line. If $\alpha = 1$, P_{α} = Poverty gap (Poverty depth), it
112 represents the proportion of the poverty line required for a poor household to become non-poor;
113 and if $\alpha = 2$, P_{α} = Poverty severity (Squared poverty gap), it represents the extent of severity of
114 a poor household. The closer it is from 1, the harder it is for the household to become non-poor.

115

116 **Estimation of the Poverty Line**

117 Expenditure and income data are critical indicators when evaluating human well-being (Woolard
118 and Leibbrandt, 1999). Ravallion (1992) and Meyer and Sullivan (2003) observed many
119 developing countries prefer to adopt expenditure data rather than income data as an indicator of
120 well-being because they are of the view that many households cut back on their actual income.
121 However, Covarrubias *et al.* (2009) argued that income data carefully collected allow an in-depth
122 assessment of inequality as well as income designs. In line with the foregoing, and for this study,
123 the income of household heads was chosen and collected to assess the well-being of respondents
124 because it emerged to be more reliable and easier to collect.

125

126 Therefore, the mean per capita income of household heads was computed by dividing the
 127 aggregate per capita income of household heads by the number of household heads surveyed to
 128 get the mean per capita income of household heads. The mean per capita income was computed
 129 for irrigators, homestead gardeners as well as for the pooled data. Furthermore, in line with FGT
 130 (1984) approach, two-third of the mean per capita income of the household heads were taken and
 131 fixed as a poverty line. This was done for irrigators, homestead gardeners, and the pooled data.
 132 Any household head whose two-third mean per capita income value fell below the fixed values
 133 in any of the categories is considered poor.

134 In order to identify the determinants of poverty status of farm household sampled for this study,
 135 a logit regression model was estimated. Logit regression has been defined as the amount of
 136 change in the value of one variable associated with a unit change in the value of another and this
 137 helps to determine the effect of changes in the explanatory variables on the dependent variable.
 138 The logit model is used whenever the dependent variable is binary (also called dummy), taking
 139 values 0 or 1. Logit regression is a non-linear regression model that forces the output (predicted
 140 values) to be either 0 or 1. Logit model estimates the probability of your dependent variable to be
 141 1 (Y=1), probability event happening or otherwise.

142 Following Adekoya (2014), the logistic (logit) probability function is specified as:

143
$$P_i = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z_i}} = f(Z_i) \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

144 where: P_i = Probability a household i ($i=1, 2, \dots, n$) will be poor, and Index Z_i = Random variable
 145 predicting the probability of a household being poor or non-poor. The probability P_i in equation
 146 2 is further transformed to give equation 3.

147
$$P_i = \frac{e^{z_i}}{1 + e^{z_i}} \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

148 Hence, the i th observation of a household is stated as:

149
$$Z_i = \frac{\ln P_i}{1 - P_i} = \beta_0 + \sum \beta_j X_j \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

150 Therefore, $\ln(P/1-P)=1$ if the household is poor while $\ln(P/1-P)=0$ if otherwise i.e. non-
 151 poor. Drawing from the foregoing, the estimated empirical model is stated as:

152
$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \beta_6 X_6 + \beta_7 X_7 + \beta_8 X_8 + \varepsilon_i \dots \dots \dots (5)$$

153 where: Y = Poverty status of household, X_1 = Age of the respondents, X_2 = Years spent in
 154 schooling, X_3 = Household size of respondents, X_4 = Size of farmland cultivated, X_5 = Extension
 155 services, X_6 = Association membership, ε_i = error term, β_0 = Constant, and β_i = Coefficients of
 156 regression.

157 Furthermore, a correlation matrix was estimated to affirm the determinants of the poverty level
 158 of the respondents and the functional form is stated as follow:

159
$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \beta_6 X_6 + e_i \dots \dots \dots (6)$$

160 where: Dependent variable Y = Per capita income, X_1 = Gender of the respondents, X_2 =
 161 Household size of the respondents, X_3 = Age of the respondents, X_4 = Size of farmland
 162 cultivated, X_5 = Year spent in schooling, X_6 = Marital status of the respondents, e_i = error term,
 163 α = Constant, and β_i = Coefficients of regression.

164 Results and Discussion

165 Outcome and Determinants of Poverty

166 This section presented the outcome of poverty analysis. In addition, the determinants of poverty
167 among farmers were also presented. The summary of the descriptive statistics of the respondents
168 in the study is presented in Table 1.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

169 **Table 1: Variables in the model across irrigation schemes (pooled dataset)**

Variables	Unit	Pooled (267)	Qamata (182)	Tyhefu (86)	Diff. test
Age ^a	Years	61 (12.60)	62 (12.56)	58 (12.26)	-2.65***
Education ^a	Years	5 (4.48)	6 (4.67)	5 (3.98)	-1.94*
Household size ^a	Number	5 (2.43)	4 (2.13)	5 (2.94)	2.15**
Farm cultivated ^a	Hectares	1.07 (0.97)	1 (1.11)	1 (0.52)	-1.95*
Gender ^b	Dummy	176 (66)	134 (76)	42 (24)	-4.01***
Marital Status	Dummy	195 (73)	132 (68)	63 (32)	0.13
Association ^b	Dummy	163 (61)	147 (90)	16 (10)	-9.73***
Extension ^b	Dummy	164 (61)	128 (78)	36 (22)	-4.46***
Irrigators ^b	Dummy	181 (68)	126 (70)	55 (30)	-0.86
Per-capita income ^a	Rand	2300.36 (2085.6)	2613.13 (2260.4)	1638.47 (1459.4)	-3.65***

171 Source: Field survey, 2015

172
173 **Note:** Values in brackets are standard deviation and percentage for continuous and discrete
174 variables, respectively. And, a and b represent continuous and discrete variables respectively
175 while T-test and Z-test were used as difference test for continuous and discrete variables,
176 respectively.

177
178 The mean age of respondents in Qamata and Tyhefu was 62 years and 58 years with the standard
179 deviation of 12.56 and 12.56, respectively. In the pooled data, the mean age was 61 years with a
180 standard deviation of 12.60. The standard deviation value showed that the majority of the age
181 value in this sample are clustering within 12.60 around the mean. This revealed that respondents
182 were somewhat old in the pooled data but significantly older in Qamata relative to Tyhefu. The
183 finding was contrary to several studies on maize and vegetable production, such as those of
184 Fakayode *et al.* (2004); Onojah *et al.* (2013); Onuk *et al.* (2010) and Tchale and Sauer (2007)
185 who found out that average maize farmers were middle-aged. The reason for the dominance of
186 older respondents may might have been be associated with the migration of the youth to urban
187 areas in search of wage jobs for better security.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

188 Male gender representation in Qamata and Tyhefu was 76 percent and 24 percent, respectively.
189 In the pooled data, male representation was 66 percent. This result shows a farming system that
190 is male-dominated. Having more men may have a direct influence on the resource control pattern
191 as it is believed that male farmers get preferential treatment over the female.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

192 In Qamata, 68 percent of the respondents were married while 32 percent were married in Tyhefu.
193 The pooled data revealed that 73 percent of the respondents in the study area were married. This
194 result suggested that majority of the respondents are likely to enjoy on-farm assistance from
195 their spouse, all things being equal.

Formatted: Highlight

196

197 Moreover, 90 percent of respondents in Qamata and 10 percent of the respondents in Tyhefu
 198 | were are members of one association or the other. In the pooled data, it was observed that 61
 199 percent of the respondents belonged to one association or the other. The number of years
 200 respondents spent in school in Qamata and Tyhefu was 6 years and 5 years with the standard
 201 deviation of 4.67 and 3.9, respectively. The pooled data revealed 5 years as the number of years
 202 respondents spent in school with a standard deviation of 4.48. The standard deviation value
 203 | shows that the majority of the educated respondents in this sample have their educational status
 204 clustering within 4.48 years around the mean. Although the dispersion of the level of education
 205 of the respondents around their mean value was high, it can be said that farmers had, on average,
 206 | a primary level of education in both the pooled data. This implieds that an average respondent in
 207 the study area had a primary level education which can enable reading, writing, interpreting
 208 instructions relating to the use of machinery and farm inputs, and take advantage of extension
 209 services. This statement may be considered valid in line with Koshy in Bembridge (2000) who
 210 | reported 4 years of education as a standard level of education and that otherwise, is unlikely to
 211 have acquired any functional literacy.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

212 The average household size of respondents in Qamata and Tyhefu was 4 and 5 members with a
 213 deviation of about 2 and 3 members, respectively. The pooled data showed an average household
 214 size of 5 members with a standard deviation of 2. The standard deviation value shows that the
 215 majority of the household size in this sample have their house size clustering within 2 around the
 216 mean. This implies that the household size of the farmers going by the pooled data and across the
 217 irrigation schemes was small compared to studies of Fakayode *et al.* (2004), Ohajianya *et al.*
 218 (2010) and Ahmed *et al.* (2013).

219 The average farm size cultivated in Qamata and Tyhefu is 1 ha with a standard deviation of 1.11
 220 and 0.52, respectively. The average size of farm cultivated going by the pooled data was 1.07 ha
 221 with a standard deviation of 0.97. The standard deviation value shows that the majority of the
 222 cultivated farm size in the sample have their size clustering within 0.97 hec around the mean.
 223 | This means that the respondents in the study area are smallholder farmers. This result implies
 224 that respondents may not be able to scale-up production quantity that can unshackle them from
 225 poverty.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

226 It was also discovered that 70 percent and 30 percent of the farmers grow their crops under the
 227 irrigation scheme in Qamata and Tyhefu, respectively. Also, 68 percent of the farmers in the
 228 pooled data practiced more of an irrigated system of farming. The implication of this result is
 229 that majority of the respondents in the study area have access to plots under the irrigation scheme
 230 | programme which allows them to cultivate crops all year round and subsequently avail them
 231 large quantity and profit to break them away from poverty.

Formatted: Highlight

232 Assessing the Poverty Level of The Respondents

233 The result in Table 2 presents the poverty profile analysis of respondents in the study area using
 234 a poverty line of R1537.41.
 235

Table 2: Poverty profile analysis of respondents

Variables	Headcount (P ₀)	Poverty gap (P ₁)	Poverty Severity (P ₂)
Pooled	0.49 (0.03)	0.25 (0.02)	0.15 (0.02)
T-value	15.81***	12.67***	10.12***
Gender			
Male	0.45 (0.04)	0.2 (0.02)	0.11 (0.02)

Female	0.56 (0.05)	0.34 (0.04)	0.24 (0.03)
Difference	-0.12 (0.06)	-0.14 (0.04)	-0.13 (0.03)
T-value	-1.82*	-3.20***	-3.83***
Irrigation Scheme			
Qamata	0.39 (0.04)	0.16 (0.02)	0.08 (0.01)
Tyhefu	0.65 (0.05)	0.4 (0.04)	0.28 (0.03)
Difference	-0.26 (0.06)	-0.24 (0.04)	-0.2 (0.04)
T-value	-4.11***	-5.61***	-5.53***
Irrigator and Homestead gardener			
Irrigators	0.45 (0.04)	0.22 (0.02)	0.14 (0.02)
Homestead	0.56 (0.05)	0.3 (0.03)	0.18 (0.03)
Difference	-0.12 (0.07)	-0.08 (0.04)	-0.04 (0.03)
T-value	-1.76*	-1.86*	-1.26
Land classes			
<2 ha	0.55 (0.04)	0.3 (0.03)	0.2 (0.02)
>=2 ha	0.38 (0.05)	0.15 (0.02)	0.07 (0.02)
Difference	-0.17 (0.06)	0.16 (0.04)	-0.13 (0.03)
T-value	-0.04	4.35***	-4.93***

*** $P < 0.01$ * $P < 0.1$. Values in brackets are standard errors.

Poverty line = $2/3 * (\text{Per capita income}) = 1537.41$

236

237 | The headcount (poverty incidence) index of the pooled data was 0.49, which **implies** that 49
 238 | percent of the respondents in the study area were poor. The poverty gap index was 0.25, which
 239 | **implies** that farmers in the study area would need about R614.96 to be liberated of poverty.
 240 | Poverty severity index was 0.15; it could be interpreted as the depth of poverty after accounting
 241 | for inequality among the poor. The finding **is** close to the study of Baiyegunhi and Fraser (2014)
 242 | who found that 44 percent of smallholder farmers were poor in the Eastern Cape Province.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

243 | The gender headcount analysis of male and female respondents in the study area was 0.45 and
 244 | 0.56 respectively. Moreover, the headcount differential of -0.12 was significant at 10 percent
 245 | level of probability between the male and female respondents. This shows that poverty was
 246 | prevalent among female farmers in the study area. The poverty gap among the male and female
 247 | farmers was 0.2 and 0.34 with a significant difference of 0.14. The finding **implies** that the
 248 | average poor female respondent was poorer than the average poor male farmer in the study area.
 249 | In other words, female and male respondents would need on the average, R522.72 and R307.48
 250 | respectively to be out of poverty.

Formatted: Highlight

251 | The poverty severity among the male and female respondents was 0.11 and 0.24; this **implies**
 252 | that the depth of poverty was higher among the female farmers than their male counterparts even
 253 | after accounting for the inequality among the poor.

Formatted: Highlight

254 | The headcount from the area/location of the scheme was 0.39 and 0.16 for Qamata and Tyefu
 255 | respectively. The headcount differential of 0.26 was significant at 1 percent level of probability.
 256 | This result **indicates** that poverty was more prevalent in Tyhefu than in Qamata.

Formatted: Highlight

257 | The poverty gap in Qamata and Tyhefu was 0.16 and 0.4 respectively; this **implies** that the depth
 258 | of poverty was higher in Tyhefu than in Qamata. In other words, respondents in Qamata and
 259 | Tyhefu would need an average of R246 and R614.96 respectively to be unshackled from the
 260 | chain of poverty. The poverty severity index in Qamata and Tyhefu index was 0.08 and 0.28

Formatted: Highlight

261 respectively. This index informs that the depth of poverty was higher in Tyhefu than in Qamata
 262 after accounting for inequality among the poor.

263 | The result of the analysis across irrigation/non-irrigation scheme members **shows** that the
 264 poverty incidence among the irrigators and homestead farmers was 0.45 and 0.56 respectively.

265 | This outcome **reveals** that poverty was prevalent among the homestead gardeners if the
 266 significant difference in their headcount is anything to go by. The poverty gap among the

267 | irrigators and homestead gardeners was 0.22 and 0.3 respectively. This **is** an indication that the
 268 depth of poverty among the homestead gardeners was higher than the irrigators. In other words,

269 irrigators and homestead gardeners would need on the average, R338.23 and R461.22
 270 respectively to mitigate the effect of poverty. The poverty severity was 0.14 and 0.18 among the

271 | irrigators and the homestead gardeners; this **implies** that the depth of poverty was still higher
 272 among the homestead gardeners than the irrigators even after accounting for inequality.

273 | The result of the analysis across land classes **shows** that the headcount among farmers with less
 274 than 2ha and more than 2ha was 0.55 and 0.38 respectively. These values suggest that farmers

275 with less than 2 ha of land were poorer than those with more than 2ha of land. The poverty gap
 276 | was 0.3 and 0.15, and this **means** that the depth of poverty was higher among the farmers with

277 less than 2ha than respondents with more than 2ha of farmland. Precisely, farmers with less than
 278 2ha of land would need an average of R461.22 to reduce the effect of poverty while those with

279 more than 2ha of land would need R230.612 to do the same.

280

281 **Determination of factors influencing Poverty Level (correlates) of respondents (irrigators)**

282 The result of the analysis on factors influencing poverty status among irrigators is presented in
 283 Table 3.

284

285 Table 3: Logit Regression Analysis Estimates (Irrigators).

	Coefficient	Standard Error	Z	P>[z]
Constant	-.172	1.488	-0.12	0.908
Age	.015	.021	0.75	0.454
Years spent in schooling	-.134	.059	-2.28	0.023**
Household Size	-.673	.142	-4.73	0.000**
Cultivated Farm Size	1.331	.257	5.18	0.000**
Extension services	1.296	.448	2.89	0.004**
Member of association	1.748	.547	3.20	0.001**
Wald Chi ² (6)	=	48.49		
Prob>Chi ²	=	0.000		
Pseudo R ²	=	0.363		
Likelihood ratio	=	-77.600		

286 Source: Field survey, 2015

287 **5% probability level.

288

289 | The likelihood ratio value of 77.600 **indicates** that some of the coefficients of the explanatory
 290 variables are statistically different from zero. The chi-square value also **shows** that the model

291 performed well. Education, household size, farm size, extension services, and membership of an
 292 association of the respondents have a significant influence on the log likelihood of being poor.

293 Only age appears to be insignificant to the log likelihood of being poor going by the z-statistics.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

294 While education and the household size of the respondents reduce the log likelihood of being
 295 poor, size of cultivated farmland, extension services, and membership of association increases
 296 the log likelihood of being poor among irrigation farmers. Also, the findings revealed that an
 297 increase in years of formal education reduced the likelihood of being poor. Equally, when the
 298 household size of irrigator increases by one person, the log likelihood of being poor reduces, and
 299 this could be explained from the fact that there will be more supply of family labor to assist in
 300 getting the farm work done.

301 The likelihood of being poor linked to increased farm size suggests the lack of financial capacity
 302 to cultivate more land. Equally, the fact that extension services increase the likelihood of being
 303 poor **suggests** a gap between the disseminated know-how and the requisite knowledge that
 304 irrigators need to break away from the vicious cycle of poverty. The likelihood of being poor
 305 **which increases** with the membership of an association suggests an uncoordinated activity that
 306 lacks the foundation to unshackle its member from poverty.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

307
 308 **Results of correlation matrix among the irrigators**

309 The result of the correlation matrix conducted on the data obtained from irrigators **is** presented in
 310 Table 4.

Formatted: Highlight

311 **Table 4: Correlation Matrix Analysis (Irrigators)**

	Per-capita income	Gender	Household Size	Age	Farm Size	Years of schooling	Marital Status
Per-capita income	1.0000						
Gender	0.2177	1.0000					
Household Size	-0.5015	-0.0782	1.0000				
Age	0.2615	0.0455	-0.1407	1.0000			
Farm Size	0.1771	0.1228	0.2509	-0.2227	1.0000		
Years of schooling	-0.0813	0.0556	0.1501	-0.5736	0.3795	1.0000	
Marital Status	0.1633	0.2991	-0.0653	-0.0097	0.1281	-0.0472	1.0000

312 Source: Field survey, 2015

313
 314 It **is** evident from Table 4 that gender of household heads, age of household head of irrigation
 315 farmers, size of the cultivated irrigation farm, and marital status of the irrigation farmers has a
 316 positive relationship with the per capita household income. On the contrary, the number of years
 317 spent in school and the household size of irrigation farmers have a negative relationship with the
 318 per capita income of the irrigation farmers.

Formatted: Highlight

319 Since the outcome of the analysis conducted to **show** a positive relationship between per capita
 320 income and gender, it therefore, suggests that male irrigation farmers have the tendency and
 321 capacity to generate more per capita income than their female counterparts. This might be linked
 322 to the cultural values that give male gender more privilege over the female in terms of resource
 323 control.

Formatted: Highlight

324 Age also showed a positive relationship with per capita income. The positive relationship
 325 **suggests** that older irrigation farmers have a wealth of experience enough to align their resources
 326 in a way that increases their per capita income.

Formatted: Highlight

327

328 | Moreover, it was observed that as the size of cultivated irrigation farm **increases** so **is** the
 329 | tendency to increase the per capita income of the irrigation farmers. Equally, the positive link
 330 | between marital status and per capita income suggests the possibility of household head and their
 331 | spouse combining efforts to generate more income.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

332 | The household size and years spent in the school of irrigation farmers have a negative
 333 | relationship with per capita income. This **means** that as the household size of irrigation farmer
 334 | increases, there is a high tendency that their per capita income would decrease. The fact that an
 335 | increase in household size possibly reduces the per capita income of irrigation farmers suggests
 336 | that household heads are burdened the with responsibility of a large family. This could explain
 337 | why farmers may not reinvest in farming activities and will possibly reduce their per capita
 338 | income.

Formatted: Highlight

339 | Also, as the irrigation farmers spent more years to acquire education, results **show** a reduction in
 340 | their per capita income considering the negative sign. This **suggests** that as irrigation farmers
 341 | have additional qualifications, chances are high that they abandon farming activities for a more
 342 | formal job thereby reducing per capita income from farm source.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

343
 344 | **Determination of factors influencing Poverty Level (correlates) among the homestead**
 345 | **gardeners**

346 | The result of the analysis of the factors influencing the poverty status of homestead gardeners is
 347 | presented in Table 5.

348
 349 | **Table 5: Determination of factors influencing Poverty Level (correlates) among Homestead**
 350 | **farmers**

	Coefficient	Stand. Error	Z	P>[z]
Constant	1.403	1.854	0.76	0.449
Age	.020	.023	0.85	0.393
Years spent in schooling	-.039	.068	-0.57	0.570
Household Size	-.522	.123	-4.23	0.000**
Cultivated Farm Size	.304	.455	0.67	0.503
Extension services	.639	.512	1.25	0.212
Member of association	.093	.504	0.18	0.854
Wald Chi ² (6)	= 18.77			
Prob>Chi ²	= 0.0046			
Pseudo R ²	= 0.1944			
Likelihood ratio	= -46.896			

351 | Source: Field survey, 2015

352
 353 | It could be deduced from the results as presented that the coefficient of the explanatory variables
 354 | **is** statistically different from zero with the likelihood ratio value of 46.896. The value of the chi-
 355 | square revealed that the estimation from the model gave a good outcome. Furthermore, Table 5
 356 | **shows** that age, years spent in schooling, size of the cultivated farmland, extension services, and
 357 | being a member of an association have no significant influence on the likelihood of being poor
 358 | among homestead gardeners. Although the number of years spent in schooling **is** not significant
 359 | to the likelihood of homestead gardener being poor, it however, reduces the likelihood of
 360 | homestead gardeners being poor. Equally, age, cultivated farm size, extension services, and

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

361 being a member of an association is not significant to the likelihood of homestead gardeners
362 | being poor; they are however positively related to the likelihood of being poor. It follows that an
363 increase in any of these variables will increase the likelihood of homestead gardeners being poor.

Formatted: Highlight

364 Household size of homestead gardeners was observed to have a significant influence on the
365 | likelihood of being poor but negatively related to the likelihood of being poor. This means that
366 an increase in the household size of homestead gardeners could allow using family labour on
367 homestead garden and would eventually help save the funds that would have been spent on
368 hiring labour hence, reducing the likelihood of homestead gardeners being poor.

Formatted: Highlight

369

370 Results of correlation matrix among homestead gardeners

371 The result of the correlation matrix analysis conducted on the data collected from the homestead
372 gardeners is presented in Table 6.

373 Table 6: Correlation matrix for Homestead farmers

	Per-capita income	Gender	Household size	Age	Farm size	Years of schooling	Marital status
Per capita income	1.0000						
Gender	0.0417	1.0000					
Household size	-0.4752	-0.0024	1.0000				
Age	0.1113	0.0215	0.0950	1.0000			
Farm size	0.0673	0.0293	0.1313	0.1816	1.0000		
Years of schooling	-0.1864	-0.0762	-0.1412	-0.5194	-0.2578	1.0000	
Marital status	-0.0420	0.5313	0.0656	-0.0568	-0.0612	-0.0575	1.0000

374 Source: Field survey, 2015

375

376 The analysis was conducted to affirm the factors influencing the poverty status of homestead
377 gardeners. Gender, age, and farm size are positively related to per capita income of homestead
378 | gardeners. Similarly, household size, years spent in schooling, and marital status is negatively
379 related to per capita income of homestead gardeners.

Formatted: Highlight

380 It follows that male household head who are homestead gardeners have a higher tendency to
381 | increase their per capita income. This result suggests that male gender is more agile and possibly
382 have more resource to cultivate their homestead gardens which perhaps increased their per capita
383 income.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

384 Similarly, the age of homestead gardeners which have a positive relationship with per capita
385 income suggests that older homestead gardeners have wealth of experience to handle events that
386 take away more income from their farming activity.

387 Furthermore, farm size had a positive relationship with per capita income of homestead
388 | gardeners, an outcome which suggests that if more area of land is put under cultivation then per
389 capita income of homestead gardener will likely increase.

Formatted: Highlight

390 As for the household size tending to reduce the per capita income of homestead gardeners, it
391 | suggests that homestead gardeners are saddled with more responsibility that prevented them from
392 reinvestment into getting more income from their homestead gardens.

Formatted: Highlight

393

394 Equally, years spent in school having a negative relationship with per capita income of
 395 homestead gardeners suggest no relationship between the skills acquired and the practice of
 396 homestead gardening. This may cause homestead gardeners to abandon homestead gardening as
 397 they are better qualified to take up formal jobs that possibly take all their time and possibility
 398 prefer to buy from shops food they hitherto cultivated in their gardens.

399 Marital status showed a negative relationship with per capita income which means married
 400 respondents reduces the per capita income generated from homestead garden.

401

402 **Determination of factors influencing Poverty Level (correlates) using the pooled data**

403 The irrigators and homestead gardeners' pooled data were considered. The result as presented in
 404 Table 7 revealed that the number of years spent in school, household size, area of land cultivated,
 405 extension services, and being a member of the association have a significant influence on the log
 406 likelihood of farmers being poor in the study area.

407 Table 7: Correlates of Poverty (Pooled)

	Coefficient	Standard Error	Z	P>[z]
Constant	2.169186	1.127407	1.92	0.054
Age	-.0037796	.0152133	-0.25	0.804
Years spent in schooling	-.167759	.0471363	-3.56	0.000***
Household Size	-.5250414	.0760485	-6.90	0.000***
Cultivated Farm Size	.8410316	.2430561	3.46	0.001***
Extension services	.6448872	.3337285	1.93	0.053***
Member of association	1.186706	.3548196	3.34	0.001***
Wald Chi ² (6)	= 70.61			
Prob>Chi ²	= 0.0000			
Pseudo R ²	= 0.2743			
Likelihood ratio	= -129.5303			

408 Source: Field survey, 2015

409

410 Also, only the age of the respondents was insignificant in determining the log likelihood of being
 411 poor. The years spent in school **is** negatively related to the log likelihood of being poor. It
 412 follows that an increase in the number of years spent in school reduces the log likelihood of
 413 farmers being poor. The outcome of this analysis agrees with the results from irrigators. This
 414 result **implies** that education equips farmers with the requisite skill to make informed decision
 415 and judgments that reduces their log likelihood of being poor. Although the results from the
 416 homestead gardener showed a similar sign (negative) with the coefficient obtained from
 417 irrigators and pooled data, it is however not significant.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

418 Equally, the coefficient of household size and years spent in schooling **shows** that they **are**
 419 significant and negatively related to the log likelihood of farmers being poor. It means an
 420 increase in the size of the household reduces the log likelihood of farmers being poor. This result
 421 **tallies** with the one obtained from the analysis conducted on irrigators' and homestead gardeners.
 422 This suggests the possible use of family labour on their respective farms which helps cut the cost
 423 that would have been used to pay off hired labour.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

424 The size of farmland cultivated with respect to pooled data was significant and positively related
 425 to the log likelihood of being poor. The likelihood of being poor with respect to cultivated
 426 farmland under irrigation agrees with the result from the pooled data. This **implies** that an

Formatted: Highlight

427 increase in the size of the cultivated farmland increases the log likelihood of being poor. This
 428 | **suggests** the possibility of lack of resources to cultivate additional hectares of land and due to the
 429 inability to cultivate, the land farmers have become poorer. Under the homestead gardening, the
 430 coefficient sign was also positive but insignificant to the log likelihood of being poor.

Formatted: Highlight

431 Moreover, an increase in the frequency of extension officer's visit considering the pooled data
 432 showed a positive and significant relationship with the likelihood of being poor. The foregoing
 433 | result **is** in line with the result obtained from irrigators' data. This result **suggests** that the
 434 extension services offered by the extension staff are not in line with the need for farmers to
 435 reduce the likelihood of being poor. Unlike the result from the pooled and irrigator data,
 436 extension services are insignificant to the likelihood of being poor considering the homestead
 437 gardeners.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

438 | The relationship between the likelihood of being poor and being a member of an association **is**
 439 significant and positive. The same relationship considering the irrigators did not show a contrary
 440 | result. This **implies** that being a member of an association increases the farmer's likelihood of
 441 being poor. This result suggests that the association is not at the frontier of pushing its members
 442 away from poverty. The relationship between the likelihood of being poor and membership of
 443 the association was insignificant considering homestead gardeners.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

444 Though age was observed to be insignificant to the likelihood of being poor considering the
 445 pooled data, however, it has a negative relationship with the likelihood of being poor. This
 446 outcome revealed that old respondents have a wealth of experience that could be passed on to
 447 younger ones to help them reduce the likelihood of being poor. Also, age was also insignificant
 448 in the models for irrigator and homestead gardening respectively.

449

450 **Results of correlation matrix using pooled data**

451 | The outcome of the correlation matrix conducted using the pooled data **is** presented in Table 8.
 452 The table shows that gender, age, farm size, years spent in schooling, and the marital status of
 453 respondents are positively linked to the per capita income. However, the per capita income of
 454 respondents was observed to be negatively related to the size of household and years spent in
 455 schooling.

Formatted: Highlight

456

457 Table 8: Correlation matrix of the pooled data

	Per-capita income	Gender	Household size	Age	Farm size	Years of schooling	Marital status
Per-capita income	1.0000						
Gender	0.1626	1.0000					
Household size	-0.4960	-0.0486	1.0000				
Age	0.2156	0.0378	-0.0575	1.0000			
Farm size	0.1627	0.0910	0.1945	-0.1018	1.0000		
Years of schooling	-0.1113	0.0179	0.0596	-0.5561	0.2030	1.0000	
Marital status	0.1152	0.3744	-0.0403	-0.0445	-0.0313	-0.0282	1.0000

458 Source: Field survey, 2015

459

460 The positive relationship between per capita income and gender of the household head in the
 461 study area revealed that the male respondents are likely to earn more per capita income than their

462 female counterpart. This results tallies with the outcome from irrigators, homestead gardeners
463 | and the report of Olawuyi and Raufu (2012). This suggests that male gender **is** more agile and
464 possibly have more control over resources to cultivate their farm than the female counterpart.

Formatted: Highlight

465 Age of respondents was also observed to be positively related to per capita income, and this
466 | result was the same across all the classes of data examined. This link **suggests** that older farmers
467 deployed their experience to salvage situations which invariably allow them to increase their per
468 capita income.

Formatted: Highlight

469 Equally, an increase in the size of farmland was linked to an increase in per capita income of the
470 | respondents. This result **corroborates** with the outcome from the analysis conducted on data of
471 irrigators and homestead gardeners. This suggests that respondents with access to more land can
472 increase the quantity of crops cultivated which thereafter increases their profit and income.

Formatted: Highlight

473 Marriage was observed to increase the per capita income of household head considering the
474 | pooled data. More per capita income arising from marital status (married) of irrigators **agrees**
475 | with the result from the pooled data. This outcome **suggests** that household head that is married
476 perhaps get assistance from their spouse which enabled them to increase the household per capita
477 income. The result from the analysis conducted using homestead gardening data revealed that
478 marriage reduces the per capita income of the household head.

Formatted: Highlight

Formatted: Highlight

479 On the other hand, household size had a negative relationship with per capita income of
480 | respondents in respect of the pooled data. Results from the analysis conducted on irrigators and
481 | homestead gardeners agree with the pooled data. The implication of this **is** that an increase in
482 household size reduces the per capita income of household head. This might not be unconnected
483 with the responsibilities to meet as the number of persons in the household increases. It may
484 reduce the amount of money reinvested into farming activities which also reduces the income
485 that comes from farming.

Formatted: Highlight

486 The years spent in school was found to reduce per capita income of household head using the
487 | pooled data. This result was the same for both irrigators and homestead gardeners. It could be
488 | that the knowledge acquired while in school **is** not related to how to sustainably manage
489 agriculture. This may be the reason why respondents opt for a more formal job since they will
490 see agriculture as a venture that consumes time, and energy with little financial gain

Formatted: Highlight

UNDER REVIEW

491 **Summary and Recommendations**

492 The demographic characteristics reveal that respondents are old with at least primary school
493 education; and household size of 5 persons. The mean cultivated farm size is 1.07ha. Male
494 gender was dominant, having majority married, and belonging to one association or the other.
495 Majority of the sampled farmers irrigated their farmland, and; have access to extension services.

Formatted: Highlight

496 The poverty indices (Headcount, Poverty gap, Poverty Severity) assessed revealed that poverty is
497 more pronounced among female respondents than male; among homestead gardeners than
498 irrigator; among farmers in Tyhefu than in Qamata; and among farmers who have less than 2 ha
499 of farmland than those with more than 2ha.

Formatted: Highlight

500 Drawing conclusions from the estimated logit regression using pooled data, years spent in
501 school, household size, size of cultivated farmland, extension services, and being a member of an
502 association have a significant influence on the likelihood of being poor. Only the age of the
503 respondents was not significant.

504 Similarly, the correlation matrix revealed that gender, age, farm size, years spent in schooling,
505 and marital status of respondents are positively linked to the per capita income while a negative
506 relationship was observed between per capita income and household size, and years spent in
507 school.

508 Therefore, governments effort should be properly aligned to ameliorate poverty among resource-
509 poor farmers by easing the rigor associated with assessing credit facility and instituting proper
510 monitoring among the different organs of government saddled with such responsibilities. By so
511 doing, many abandoned farmlands will be put to effective use.

512 Education should be prioritized while also incorporating agriculture in school curriculum to spur
513 interest and productivity in agriculture. Activities of different association to
514 which respondents belong should be geared towards helping each member
515 tackle the challenges confronting them. Extension service providers should adopt a participatory
516 approach to disseminate innovative technologies that meet the farmers' needs.

UNDER REVIEW

517

References

- 518 1. Adekoya, O. A. (2014). Analysis of farm household poverty status in Ogun State,
519 Nigeria. *Asian Economic and Financial Review* 4(3):325-340
- 520 2. Ahmed, A. S., A, Suleiman & A. Aminu (2013). Social and Economic analysis of Small
521 Scale Maize Production in Kura Local Government Area of Kano State, Nigeria.
522 *International Journal of Agricultural Science, Research and Technology in Extension*
523 *and Education Systems vol. 3, Issue 1, pp 37-43.*
- 524 3. Baiyegunhi, L. J. S. & G. C. G. Fraser (2014). Poverty Incidence among Smallholder
525 Farmers in the Amathole District municipality, Eastern Cape Province, South
526 Africa, *Journal of human ecology* 46(3): 261-273.
- 527 4. Bembridge, T.J. (2000). Guidelines for rehabilitation of small-scale farmer irrigation
528 schemes in South Africa, Water Research Commission.
- 529 5. Briefing note for countries on the 2015 Human Development Report.
- 530 6. Compass Resource Management (2007). Major Impacts: Climate Change, The
531 Biodiversity BC Technical Subcommittee for the Report on the Status of Biodiversity
532 in BC.
- 533 7. Covarrubias, K., A. P. de la O Campos and A. Zezza (2009). Accounting for the
534 Diversity of Rural Income Sources in Developing Countries: The Experience of
535 the Rural Income Generating Activities Project. Paper prepared for presentation
536 at the Wye City Group Meeting on Rural Development and Agricultural
537 Household Income, 11-12 June, 2009, Rome, Italy. Cuts, Surging Food Prices.
- 538 8. Fakayode, S. B., R. O. Babatunde & A. Rasheed (2008). Productivity Analysis of
539 Cassava-Based Production Systems in the Guinea Savannah: Case Study of
540 Kwara State, Nigeria. *American-Eurasian Journal of Scientific Research*, 3(1):33-39.
- 541 9. Klasen, S. (1998). Unemployment, Household Formation, Poverty and Nutrition in
542 South Africa, Paper Presented at Workshop on unemployment at University of
543 Pretoria, April 24, 1998, Mimeographed, University of Munich.
- 544 10. Koshy, T. A. (1977). Literacy education in development In: Niehoff, R O *Non-formal*
545 *education and the rural poor*. Michigan State University.
- 546 Majodina, P. (2011). Budget Speech 2011/12, Eastern Cape Province, Policy speech by MEC
547 for Social Development and Special Programmes.
- 548 Meyer, B. D. & J. X. Sullivan (2003). Measuring the Well-Being of the Poor Using Income and
549 Consumption.
- 550 Moyo, S. (2010). Land Reform, Small Scale Farming and Poverty Eradication, Lesson from
551 Africa. Africa Institute for South Africa Policy Brief NO 21.
- 552 OECD (2011). Agricultural Policy Monitoring and Evaluation 2011: OECD Countries and
553 Emerging Economies OECD Publishing.
- 554 Ohajianya, D. O., I. U. Nwaiwu and C. O. Osuagwu (2010). Analysis of Factors Affecting
555 Income of Women in Agricultural Production in Imo State Nigeria, in Engendering
556 Policy for Attainment of Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria (pp.91-97), edited by
557 R. Okoh. Asaba: Nigeria: Rural Linkage Network.
- 558 Olawuyi, S. O. and M.O. Raufu (2012). Determinants of Poverty among Crop Farmers: A
559 Case of Ogo-Oluwa Local Government, Oyo State, Nigeria

560 Onojah, D. A., J. J. Aduba & O. A. Oladunni (2013). Relationship between Farmers Socio-
561 Economic Characteristics and Maize Production in Nigeria: *The chasm, Global Journal of*
562 *Current Research* Vol. 1 (4): 124-131.

563 Onuk, E. G., I. M. Ogara, H. Yahaya and N. Nannim (2010). Economic Analysis of Maize
564 Production in Mangu Local Government Area of Plateau State, Nigeria, Publication of
565 Nassarawa State University, Keffi, PAT June, 2010; 6 (1): 1-11

566 Ravallion, M. (1992). Poverty comparisons: a guide to concepts and methods. Living
567 Standards Measurement Study Working Paper 88 Washington DC World Bank.

568 Sanusi, R. A., T. S. Owagbemi & M. Suleman (2013). Determinants of Poverty Among Farm
569 Households InIkorodu Local Government Area of Lagos State, Nigeria.

570 Seekings, J. & N. Natrass (2005). *Class, Race, and Inequality in South Africa*, Yale
571 University Press.

572 Statistics South Africa, (2014). *Poverty Trends in South Africa: An examination of*
573 *absolute poverty between 2006 and 2011*.

574 Tchale, H. & J. Sauer (2007). The efficiency of maize farming in Malawi, A bootstrapped
575 translog frontier.

576 UNDP (2007). "Country Programme Outline for South Africa 2007-2010", New York,
577 Executive Board of the United Nations Development Programme and the United Nations
578 Population Fund (UNDP/UNFPA).

579 United Nation Development Programme (UNDP) (2015). *Work for human development*

580 Vollgraaff, R., T. Mokhema and A. Mbatha (2016). *South Africa's Drought Leads to Job*

581 *Woolard, I. and Leibbrandt, M. (1999). Measuring poverty in South Africa. In Borat, H.,*
582 *Leibbrandt, M., Maziya, M., Van der Berg, S. and Woolard. I. (ed), Fighting*
583 *poverty: labour markets and inequality in South Africa. Lansdowne: UCT Press.*

584

585