

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Real estate is like a catalyst that not only serves as an engine that energizes every other sector of the economy but gives impetus to the development rating of any environment. It has been found to contribute significantly to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of a country. Because of the importance of real estate visa-viz the bedrock of any economic growth as well as being able to satisfy one of the major (second) human needs (shelter), the demand for real estate products is always on the increase. It is known that all business activities for both public and private sectors are housed in one form of real estate or the other. Production activities, agro-based activities, educational activities, sports, medical and health activities cannot function or operate effectively without having direct or indirect need for one form of real estate product or the other thereby increasing the demand and need for the product.

In Nigeria generally, and South-East in particular, activities in the real estate market over the years had been operated by both the public and private sectors. The private sector over the years has been dominated by men. This situation can be attributed to traditional role of men and women in the society. During the ancient times, it is the traditional role of men to provide food, shelter and clothing to all the members of the family while the roles of women are mainly child bearing, housekeeping as well as contributing to many subsistence or agricultural based economies.

From the ancient time till date, the demand for real estate products continues to outweigh supply as previous studies have shown that there is no country whether developed or developing that has fully met the demand and supply of the needed real

estate products of their citizens (Detail Commercial Solicitors (2014), Pauli (2011), Pressure (2011) and Sanford, (2006)). In Nigeria generally and South-East in particular, continuous increase in population and urbanization has led to increase in demand for real estate. However, supply continues to suffer set-backs due to the fact that real estate products take time for its production and maturity and also requires huge capital outlay. Previous studies have focused mainly on how to bridge the existing gap by looking at various problems that constrain real estate development like lack of finance, access to land, high cost of building materials, inflation, household income, social indicators, government policies, etc (Bulut (2009), Kvadaracience (2010), Trappa and Mossennier (2010)) but the gap continues to exist.

In the contemporary Nigeria, economic recession from the early 80's (which have made it difficult for men alone to perform the above mentioned traditional role), globalization and international recognition of the need to involve women in national development, women have continued to struggle to engage in activities that can improve their standard of living so as to participate actively in nation building as well as contribute significantly in the family up keep. These quests underlie the sophistication of women in areas of trade, profession and vocation in recent time like their male counterparts to achieve high standard of living and contribute reasonably to GDP of the nation. Currently in Nigeria, we have women ministers, judges, senators, Deputy Governors, Chief Executives of Public Parastatals and private companies, etc. In spite of all these achievements, women still face some constraints in real estate ownership unlike their male counterparts. International Centre for Research on Women (ICRW, 2005) observes that women in many countries are far less likely than men to own property and otherwise control assets which are key tools to gaining economic security and earning higher incomes. Obioha (2013) also found out that the

unchanging situation in unequal positioning of male and female offspring's in inheritance rights worsens the seemingly impoverished condition of the women folk and makes them more vulnerable to abject poverty compared to their male counterparts.

It is therefore believed that if these constraints are identified and reduced, it will enhance women participation in the real estate sector and help boost activities in the sector which will help reduce the gap between demand and supply of real state products in particular and also enhance economic empowerment of women. The above scenario gave rise to this research.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In South-East Nigeria and most patriarchal societies, succession and inheritance rights are established procedures of transferring economic, social and even political powers (Obioha, 2013). The problem is that women are unequally positioned unlike their male counterparts in inheritance and other issues related to ownership of real properties. Even as most of the cultural attitudes or traits of the society are fast changing, the inheritance rights remain resilient and hence pose challenges to women ownership of land and landed properties. These challenges have helped to trigger the existing gap between demand and supply of real estate, where demand outstrips supply. This has resulted in the continuous rise in rental and capital values of different categories of real estate which has made the product beyond the reach of an average Nigerian.

Previous studies have focused on how to bridge the existing gap by looking at various problems that constrain real estate development such as lack of finance, high cost of building materials, government policies, etc (Kvadaracene 2010, Trappa and

Mosenier 2010 and Bulut 2009), but the gap still persist. Also, previous studies identified inheritance rights, socio-cultural attitude as well as patriarchal systems as factors that pose threats to women ownership of land (Obioha 2013, Emeasoba 2012 and Ezejiofor 2012), but the the problem still persist These challenges undermine women potentials in helping to bridge the gap between demand and supply of real properties, contribute to economic growth of the nation and reduction in poverty level among women.

1.3 Aim and Objectives of the Study

This research project aim at evaluating the factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in South-East, Nigeria with a view of suggesting means of reducing the constraining factors.

In order to achieve the above stated aim, the following objectives were pursued:

1. To ascertain the magnitude of real estate ownership by women compared to men in South-East, Nigeria.
2. To identify the factors that constrains real estate ownership by women in South-East, Nigeria.
3. To determine the extent to which the identified factors affect real estate ownership by women in the individual states.
4. To determine the cumulative effects of the identified factors on women's contribution to the Nigerian economy/nation building.

1.4 Research Questions

The following questions were formulated to help generate data to solve the problem of the study.

1. What is the magnitude of real estate ownership by women compared to men in South East Nigeria?
2. What are the factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in South-East, Nigeria?
3. To what extent do the identified factors in 2 above affect real estate ownership by women in the individual states in the South East Nigeria?
4. What are the cumulative effects of the identified factors on women's contribution to the Nigerian economy/nation building

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were postulated to strengthen the research questions.

H0₁: Real estate ownership by women in the South East, Nigeria is not low compared to that of men

H0₂: All the constraint factors have no significant effect on real estate ownership by women in the South- East, Nigeria.

H0₃: There is no significant difference between the extents to which the identified factors affect real estate ownership by women in the individual states in South East Nigeria.

H0₄: The identified factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in the South East have no significant effect on women's contribution to the Nigerian economy/nation building.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This work will help educate women on their rights to own real estate and how to access these rights when the need arises.

The Nigerian economy will be boosted as increased activity in the real estate sector by women will increase the contribution of the sector in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the economy.

Nigerian government will benefit from the research work as the work will expose the challenges and problems facing women in real estate ownership thus serving as an eye opener on areas to formulate policies and initiate programmes that will help eliminate those challenges. The result of the research work will also help government to evaluate their performance in achieving the third Millennium Development Goal (MDGs) which centres on Gender – Equality and women Empowerment. The work will help government to measure how far they have fared towards the real estate sector as it concerns eradicating all form of discrimination against women.

This work will help bridge the gap between demand and supply of real estate products in most of the urban and rural areas of the South – East as the results and recommendation of the work will help to increase active participation of women in this sector which will in turn increase the number of available real estate facilities in the country.

The Estate Surveying and Valuation profession will also benefit, from the study as the research findings is expected to help improve women activities in real estate sector which will in turn create more job opportunities for the profession.

Lastly, the research work will be of immense benefit to future researchers in the field of Estate Management as there is dearth of data available in this area. The research work will therefore add to few available literatures in the subject matter.

1.7 Scope of Study

This study is an analysis of factors constraining real estate ownership by women in South – East Nigeria. The work concentrated on real estate ownership in terms of inheritance, acquisition and gift. It did not consider women activities in the development process. The work covered women in different sectors of the economy in the urbanrural areas of three states of the South East that is, Enugu, Anambra and Imo States of Nigeria. These three states were considered appropriate for the study as they represent 3/5 of the states in the South-East.

The capital of each of the state was used to represent the urban areas. That is Awka, Enugu Urban and Owerri municipal.

However, some selected rural communities in the mentioned states represented the rural areas. These states and communities were selected based on geographical spread, population and or level of urbanisation.

1.7.2 Limitations of Study

This study has the following limitations:

1. This work is limited to factors that constraint women in real estate ownership and other factors that affect women in different fields of human endeavour was not considered in this work.
2. This study is limited to South-East, Nigeria; therefore, the findings may not be applicable to other parts of Nigeria and beyond.

1.8 Area of Study

South-East state of Nigeria was one of the initial 12 states created during the Nigerian civil war which later broke into the present Akwa Ibom state and Cross River state. South-East became the name of one of the six geo-political zones in the country in the

1990's consisting of Abia state, Anambra State, Ebonyi State, Enugu State and Imo State. The local language in this region is Igbo.

1.8.1 Geographical Location

South-East states of Nigeria lies on latitude $4^{\circ} 30^1$ N to $7^{\circ} 30^1$ N and longitude $6^{\circ}45'$ E to $8^{\circ}45^1$ E(Igbokwe, 2007).It covers a total surface area of approximately 41,000 square kilometers with a total population of 16,381,729 with males 8, 306, 306 and females 8, 075,423 (National Population Commission 2006). The states within the region with their capitals include; Anambra with Awka as state capital, Abia with Umuahia as state capital, Ebonyi with Abakaliki as the state capital, Enugu with Enugu as state capital and Imo with Owerri as state capital. Figure 1.1 shows the map of Nigeria indicating South-East States.

The region is bounded on the North- West by Kogi and Benue States, in the North – East by Cross River State, in the South by Akwa- Ibom and Rivers States and in the West by Delta State.

1.8.2 Brief Description of 3 States to be used for the study.

Anambra State: The state's name comes from Oma Mbala, the native name of Anambra River. Its boundaries are formed by Imo and Rivers states to the South, Delta state to the West, Enugu state to the East and Kogi state to the North. The state has its capital at Awka following the creation of Enugu State in 1991.

Location

Anambra is located between latitudes 05° 40' N to 07° 10' N and longitude 06° 35' E to 07° 20' E. It is bounded on both Western and Eastern sides by latitudes 6° 35' and 07° 30' respectively.

Climate

The state is in the tropical zone of Nigeria, with two distinct seasons, dry and rainy seasons. The dry season stretches from December to April while rainy season is between May and October (Umenweke 2000). The state lies within the rain forest of Nigeria, in the south by Mangrove Swamp forest and in the North by Savannah Grassland.

Population

The state has a total population of 4,177,828 (NPC 2006) with an average density of 831.10/km². The state is also made up of 21 Local Government Areas and has Onitsha and Nnewi as the largest commercial and industrial cities respectively.

Natural Resources: Anambra is rich in natural gas, crude oil, ceramics and almost complete arable soil.

Enugu State: Enugu state was created in August 27, 1991, with the city of Enugu as its capital. The city derived its name from the capital which was established in 1912 as a small coal mining town but later grew to become the capital of the former Eastern region of Nigeria. The town of Enugu where coal is found in commercial quantity is euphemistically referred to as the Coal City. Enugu is located in the South Eastern part of Nigeria and is largely populated by number of the Igbo ethnic group whose

language is Igbo language. The name Enugu is derived from the two Igbo words Enu and Ugwu meaning “hill top” denoting the city’s hilly geography. Its topography tends to include the state of the physical features such as hills, rivers, mountains valleys etc and at such has great influence on the pattern of land use.

Location

Enugu is located between 5°53' N to 7°05'N of the equator and longitude 6° 46' to 7° 52'E of the Greenwich Meridian.

Climate: Enugu is located in a tropical rainforest zone with a derived savannah. The state has a tropical savannah climate, its climate is humid and this humidity is at its highest between March and November. Enugu state has mean daily temperature of 26.7⁰c (30.1⁰F) as in the rest of West Africa. The rainy and dry season are the only weather period that occur in the state.

Population

Enugu state has a total population of 3,267,837 made up of 1,596,042, males 1,671,795 females .The state is made up of seventeen local government areas and has Oji River, Agbani, Nsukka as its semi- urban areas.

Natural Resources

Enugu state is rich in coal and natural gas.

Imo State- Imo state came into existence in 1976 along with other new states created under the leadership of the late military rulers of Nigeria, Murtala Muhammad, having been previously part of east central state; the state is named after the Imo River. Part of the state was split of in 1991 as Abia state, and another part

became Ebonyi State. The main cities in Imo state are Owerri, Orlu and Okigwe. The local language is Igbo and Christianity is the predominant religion

Geography and Natural Resources

Imo state lies within latitude $4^{\circ} 45^1$ N and $7^{\circ} 15^1$ N and longitude $6^{\circ} 50^1$ E and $7^{\circ} 25^1$ E with an area of around 5,100 sq km. It is bordered by Abia state on the East, by the River Niger and Delta state on the west, by Anambra state to the north and Rivers state to the south. The state is rich in natural resources including crude oil, natural gas, and economically exploitable flora like the Iroko, mahogany, bamboo, rubber tree and oil palm. However, with a high population density, and over farming, the soil has been degraded and much of the natural vegetation has disappeared. This deforestation has triggered soil erosion which is compounded by heavy seasonal rainfall that has led to the destruction of houses and roads.

Climate

The rainy season begins in April and last until October. An average annual temperature above 20°C (68.0°F) creates an annual relative humidity of 75%. The dry season experiences two months of harmattan from last December to late February. The hottest months are between January and March

Population

Imo state consists of twenty seven (27) local government areas. The estimated population is 3,927,563 (NPC 2006) and the population density varies from 230 – 1,400 people per square kilometer

Education

There are several institutions of higher learning with some being run by state government and others by the federal government. The two universities being Imo state university and the Federal University of Technology Owerri.

The map of South- East Nigeria showing the study areas is shown in figure 1. 2 and 1.3

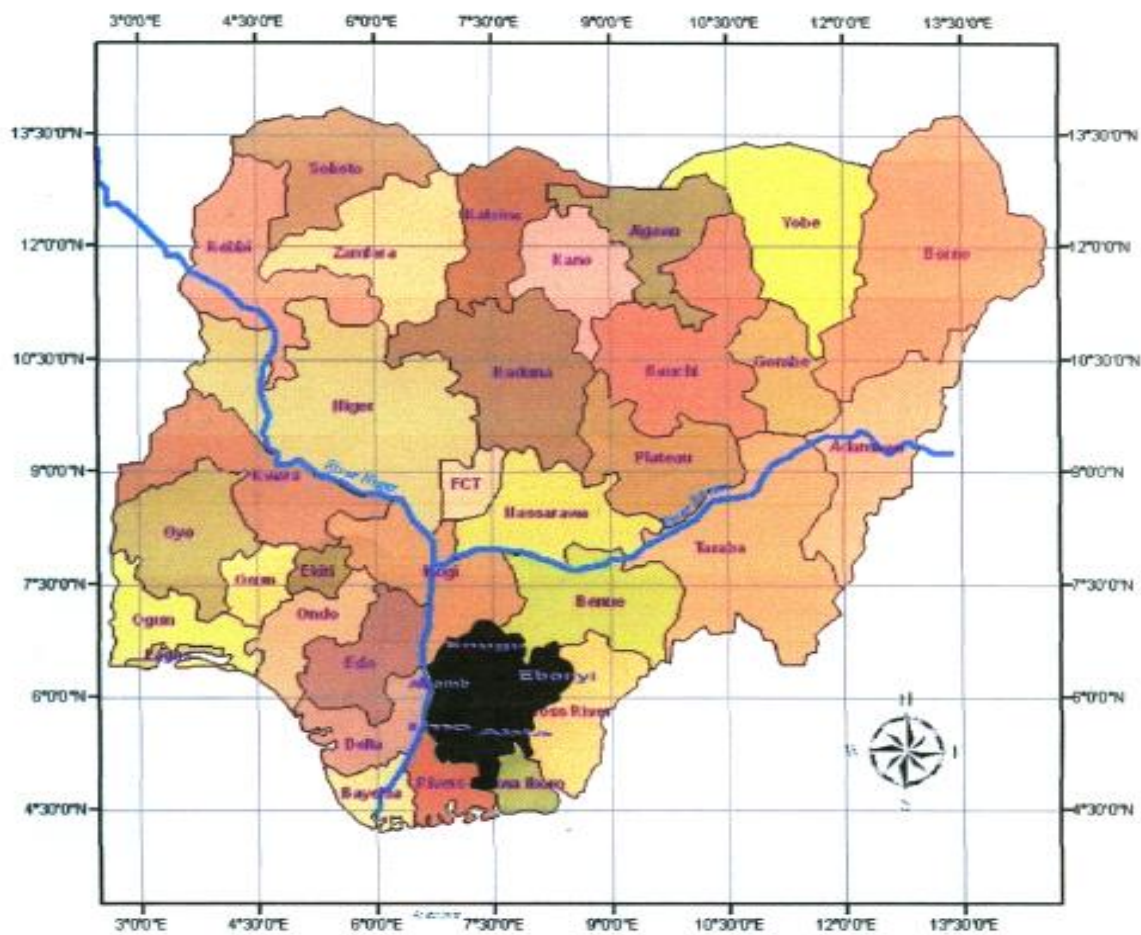


Figure 1.1 Map of Nigeria, showing South East Nigeria (Study Area)

0 50,000,000 200,000 300,000 400,000 500,000 600,000
Meters

Source: National Space Research and Development Agency

Key
Study Area



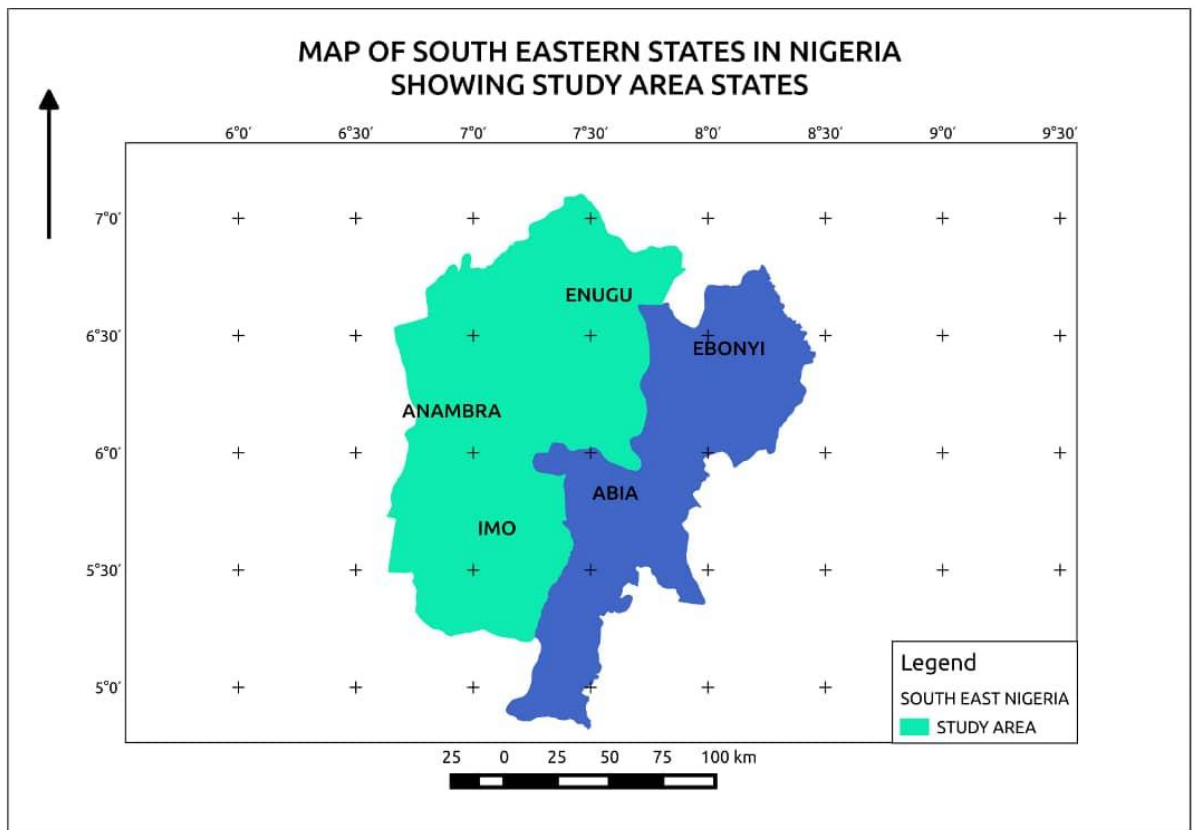


Fig 1, 2: Map of South- East Nigeria Showing the Study Area States.

Source: El-Dad Geo-Spatial Services Nigeria LTD (2018)

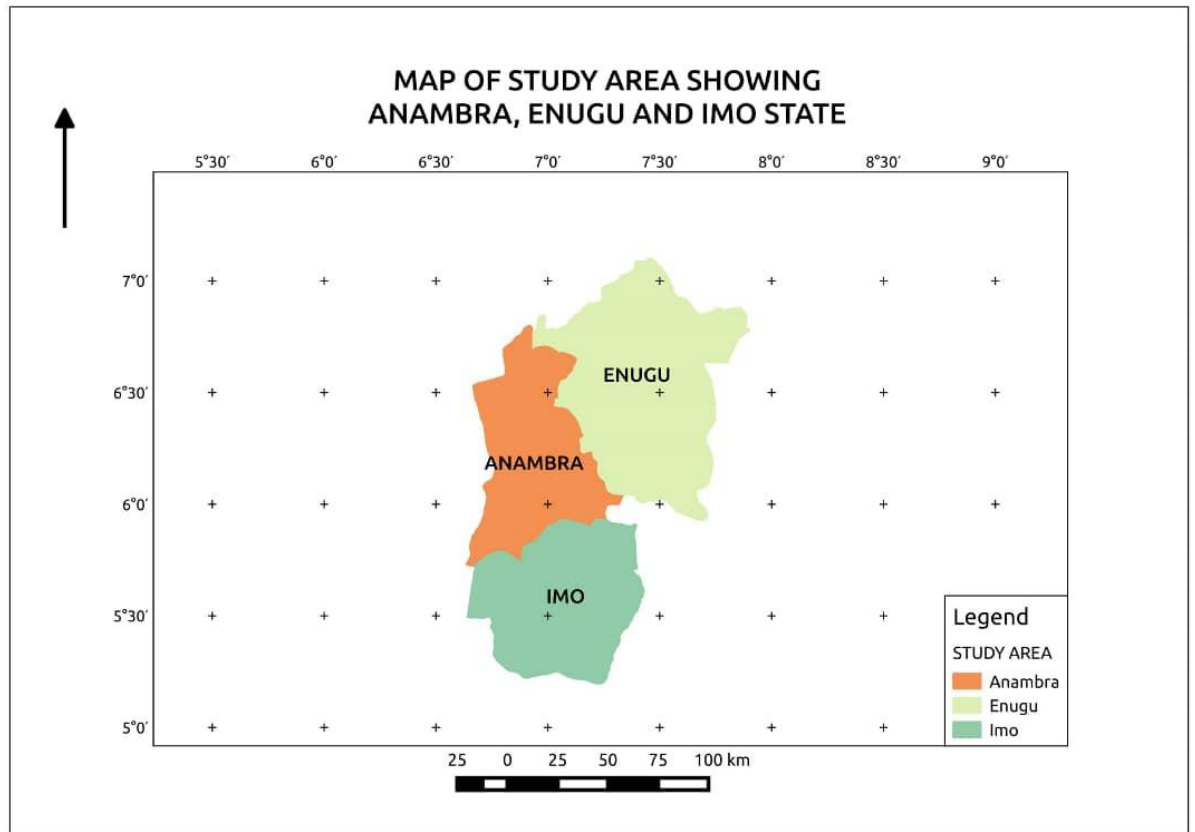


Fig 1.3: Map of Study Area Showing Anambra, Enugu and Imo States

Source: El-Dad Geo-Spatial Services Nigeria LTD (2018)

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter discusses the theoretical / conceptual framework, view of different scholars/authors on issues relating to real estate ownership generally and real estate ownership by women in particular.

2.1 Theoretical/Conceptual Framework

This work is founded on Cause Effect Analysis Theory. The theory is based on cause-effect relationship. The relationship between cause and effect takes a logical pattern because if there exist an effect, there must be corresponding cause/causes or vice versa. This theory was used in this study because for women ownership of property to be low there must be a causative factor or factors. The Karl Max theory on social change was also used as this provides the theoretical framework for analyzing the factors constraining real estate ownership by women.

2.1.1 The cause-effect analysis

The cause and effect relationship can be analyzed using the model invented by Kaoru Ishikawa (1943) known as cause and effect model. The model was invented by the author to help explain to a group of engineers at Kawasaki steel works on how a complex set of factors could be related to help understand and solve a problem (Ishikawa 1990). This model was also applied as a quality management technique in the 1960's. The technique was later published in 1990 in a book titled Introduction to Quality control. The technique adopts a diagram based approach for linking all the possible causes of a problem. This helps in carrying out a thorough analysis of the situation. The model is popularly known as "Ishikawa diagram or fishbone diagram".

This is due to the fact that a completed diagram may look like the skeleton of a fish.

The technique can also be applied in other fields of knowledge in the following ways:

- . To discover the root cause of a problem
- . To uncover bottlenecks in a process
- . To discover where and why a process is not working.

2.1.2 Explanation and application of the technique

The fishbone diagram is a graphical technique used to Identify and represent the causes of an event, problem or outcome. It graphically shows the hierarchy in the causes of a problem according to their level of importance including the outcome (effects). The technique uses a model which makes use of four steps (Ishikawa, 1990) as follows;

- 1) Identify the problem
- 2) Work out the major factors involved
- 3) Identify the possible cause and effects
- 4) Analyze the diagram.

Step 1: Identify the problem

The technique firstly identifies the problem (effect) including when and where it occurs. Thereafter a box is drawn on one side of a large sheet of paper and a line is drawn across the paper horizontally from the box. This is shown in figure 3 below.

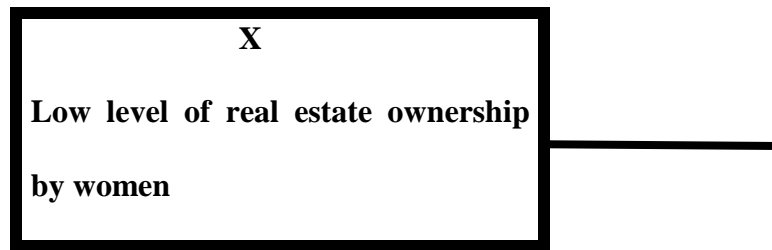


Fig 2.1: Diagram illustrating the head (x) and spine of a fish

Fig 2.1 which looks like the head development of other structures signifying ideas. The problem (shortage of real estate facilities occasioned by low level of real estate ownership by women) represented by x has been identified and written in the box.

Step 2: Work out the major factors involved

The second step looks for the major factors that could be the likely cause(s) and effect(s) of the problem. Thereafter lines are drawn from the “spine of the fish”. Each line represents a major factor and is labeled accordingly in fig 2.2 below.

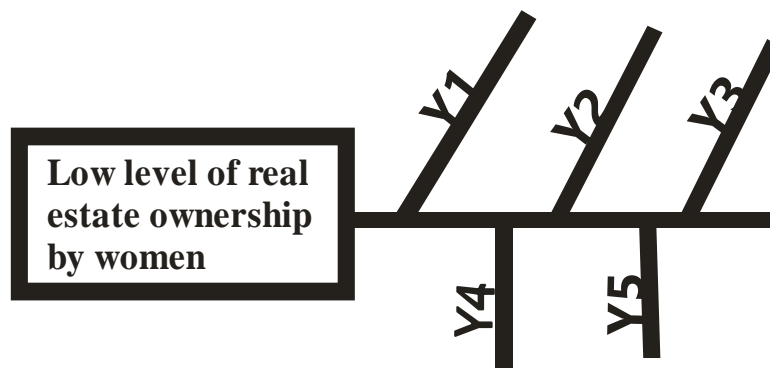


Fig 2.2: Diagram illustrating the head(x) spine and large bones which are deployed from the spine of a fish.

The above arrangement which looks like the “large bones” of a fish gives space for the development of more structures which signifies more ideas. The lines labeled y1, y2, y3, y4, y5, represent the 5 major categories of factors that could give rise to low level of real estate ownership by women as was found in literature review. They are;

- . Socio-cultural factors (Y1)
- . Finance/Economic factors (Y2)
- . Law/Legal factors (Y3)
- . Educational factors (Y4)
- . Political factors (Y5)

Step 3: Identify the Possible causes

The third step is to identify the possible causes of low level of real estate ownership by women, related to each of the factors listed above. Thereafter the minor or small lines are drawn from the major lines (large fish bones) of the diagram. Each small line represents a possible cause of the problem and labeled accordingly as shown in the fig 2.3 below.

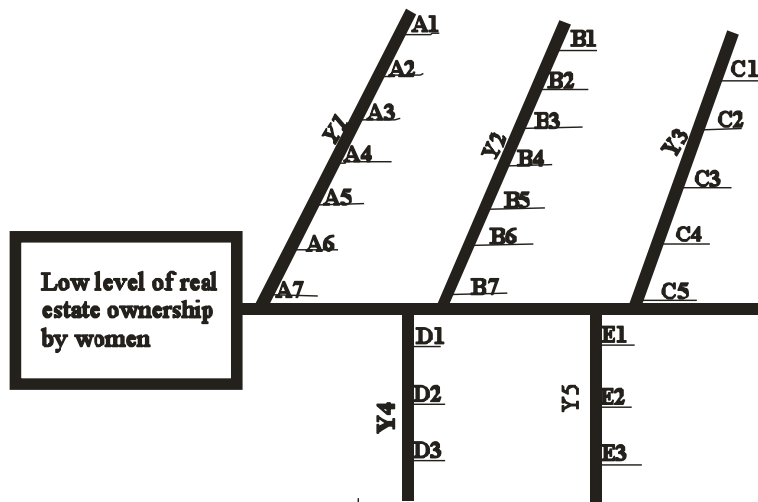


Fig 2.3: Diagram showing complete skeleton of a fish

The diagram which looks like the “small” bones of a fish gives a comprehensive view of the diagram which is like the skeleton of a fish. The lines labeled A1 – A7, B1 – B7, C1 – C5, D1 – D3 and E1 – E3 represent other possible sub causes of low level of real estate ownership by women in South – East, Nigeria. Which are attributed and categorized as socio – cultural factors (Y1) financial/economic factors (Y2) law/legal factors (Y3) educational factors (Y4) and political factors (Y5)

Step 4: Analyze your diagram

The final step is to analyze the diagram. At this stage all the possible causes or effect(s) of the problem must have been shown in the diagram. This stage investigates the most likely cause(s) and effect(s) of the problem. This stage involves carrying out surveys, collecting and analyzing data to find out which of the possible causes actually led to the problem.

This analysis will help identify whether two or more possible causes combined together to lead to the problem. Figure 4 shows the box marked (x) together with the

two long horizontal lines attached to it is the head and spine of a fish which represents the problem which is low level of real estate ownership by women in south – east Nigeria. The major lines labeled y1 – y5 represent the major categories of factors that cause the low level of real estate ownership by women in south – east Nigeria. They include; socio cultural (Y1), economic/financial (Y2), law/legal (Y3), political (Y4) and educational factors (Y5). The minor lines labeled A1 – A7, B1 – B7, C1 – c5, d1 – d3 and e1 – e3 are the minor or small bones of a fish which developed from the major bones of a fish. These minor lines represent the possible causes of low level of real estate ownership by women stemming from the major causes. The minor lines a1 – a7 represent the possible causes of low level of real estate by women classified as socio – cultural factors. They include; cultural bias about women, male preference in inheritance rights, male preference in land redistribution practices etc. the minor lines labeled b1 – b5 represents the possible causes of the problem classified under economic/financial factors which include; Lack of resources, unemployment, lack of collateral etc.

2.2 Karl Max Theory

The Karl Marx theory on social change was propounded in 1973 in Karl Max book titled Karl Marx on society and social change: The heritage of sociology. According to the social change theory, all parts or elements of a society are changing but at different paces. Some are changing rapidly while others are not. This change is gradual and never complete or total. As indicated in this study, the change in the economy of the nation population and urbanization has led to changes in the role of women from house wives to income generating women as well as increased demand for real estate facilities, certain structures however cannot die out completely for

example, poverty, ignorance, traditions, customs and habit, unemployment etc. the persistence of such elements of culture and tradition and other variables have been found out in the study to have deterred women from owning property and hence helping to reduce the gap between demand and supply of real estate facilities. Property rights are important in enhancing prosperity while insecure property rights weaken the incentives for owners to make long term capital investments and hinder the ability of owners to use their property as collateral to secure loans to finance capital investment or embark on real estate investment. Without access to property, credit and investments in the future, capital formation and economic growth are hindered. Hence the above theory helps this work to identify those factors that has continued to constrain women unlike their male counterparts in ownership of property so as to help boost the supply of real estate products to help reduce the gap experienced in the study areas.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study depicts the factors that constrain real estate ownership as independent variables and women land ownership as dependent variable. It goes further to outline the moderating variables on the key variables under study.

Fig 2.4: illustrates the conceptual framework of the research.

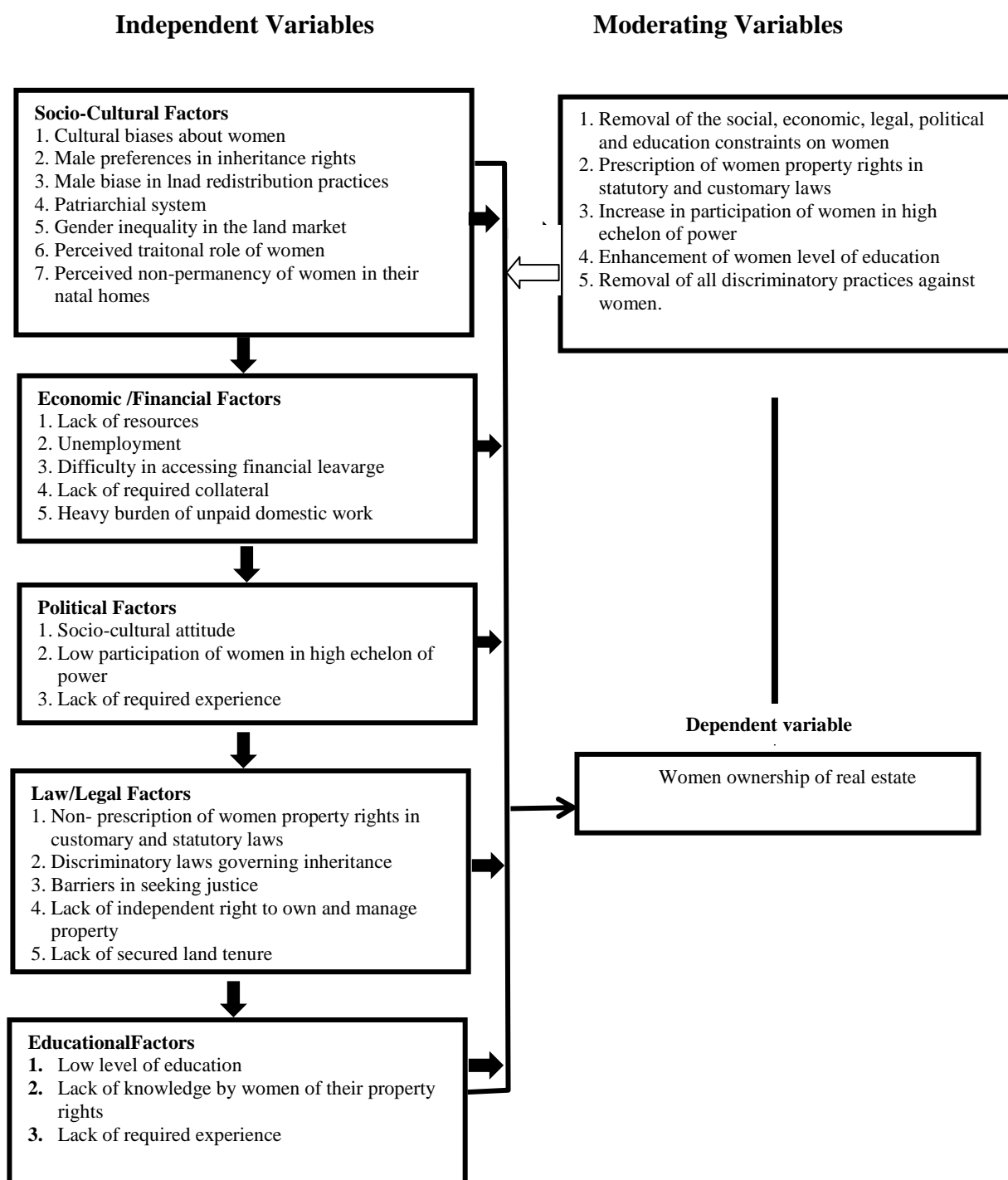


Fig 2.4: Conceptual Framework

Fig 2.4 shows the conceptual framework of this study. It shows the constraint factors which are identified as the independent variables and the moderating variables which if applied to the constraint factors (independent variables) will help to improve women

ownership of property (dependent variable). The figure also shows that each of the independent variable affects women ownership of property.

2.4 Review of Important Concepts

Concepts are ideas, attributes or processes. Robson (2011) cited by Odumegwu (2017) suggests that it could be derived from previous studies, relevant theories, views of practitioners, professionals or anyone that has expertise or experience related to the topic of the study and also from personal intuition/conceptions. In this work, concepts relating to real estate, property ownership and women were explained.

2.4.1 Concept and meaning of real estate/property

Real estate according to Kalu (2001) is regarded as real property. Real property includes land, building and appurtenances. He observes that the word real property cannot be defined easily as a result of various professions approaching its definitions from their own perspective. He agrees that the various definitions from various professions are correct but connote one thing and that is the fact that real property comprises the physical solum as well as the rights subsisting in them. Property according to him is capable of ownership and possession. In his own view, Okoh (2008) defined real property as the rights, interest, benefit or privilege inherent in the ownership of landed property giving rise to a measure of control. He went further to explain that real property is different from personal property. He observes that real estate means land plus improvements if any attached thereto.

Also, Emoh (2004) defined real property as the combination of land and any permanent structures or man-made structures or improvements that are permanently

attached to the land with the aim of improving the land and enjoying its utilities, amenities and profits or returns.

However, Johnson, and Udechukwu (2008) distinguished between real estate and real property. They observed that the term real estate is much broader than the term land and include not only the physical component of the land as provided by nature but also anything that is permanently affixed to the land by either natural or artificial attachment. They however, defined real estate as the earth's surface extending downward to the centre of the earth and upward to infinity, including those things permanently attached by nature or by people. They distinguished real estate from real property and added that real property include the definition above as well as the interest, benefits and rights inherent in its ownership. Woychuk (2014) argues that the most basic definition of real estate is "an interest in land". He went further to explain that the word interest can either mean an ownership interest (also known as a freehold or a fee-simple interest) or a leasehold interest. To him in an ownership interest, the investor is entitled to full rights of ownership of the land and landed property and must also assume the risk and responsibilities of landowner. On the other side of the relationship, a leasehold interest only exists when a landowner agrees to pass some of his rights onto a tenant in exchange for payment of rent. Real estate according to Galaty, Allaway and kyle (2000) is a broad term that encompasses natural land and manmade improvement on land. Man made improvement could be any artificial thing, a house a road or a bridge that forms part of the road. Real property (or realty) on the other hand is a broader term that refers to the interest, benefits and rights that is automatically included to the ownership of land and real estate. The view of Woychuk (2014) contradicted the view of Johnson and Udechukwu (2008) where they see real property as distinct from real estate, whereby

the distinction is based on the interest, benefits and right inherent in property ownership.

However, this work agrees with the view of Kalu (2001) and Woychuk (2014) that real property and real estate connotes the same meaning since the qualities identified by Johnson and Udechukwu (2008) to be real estate can only be concretized in the interest, benefits and rights bestowed on them. Hence real property and real estate means the same as far as this work is concerned.

2.4.2 Types of real estate

There are many types of real estate. Some authors categorized real estate according to the use which the property is put while others classified types of real estate according to the type and owner of the property. Olusegun (2003) classified real property into six according to the use which the property is put namely; Agricultural property, this means properties used for cultivation of crops and rearing of animals e.g. farmland, farm ranch, poultry houses etc

Residential property: this means properties used for living accommodation otherwise known as houses e.g. massionette, housing estates, bungalows, duplexes, flats, single room apartment etc.

Commercial property: These are properties basically used for buying and selling example; shops, offices, stores etc.

Recreational property: This include properties used for recreational purpose e.g. amusement parks, relaxation centres, hotels, game reserves, clubs, museums etc

Special purpose property: These are properties that are not readily or easily found in the property market and are purposely built to perform a special function e.g. churches, mosques, shrines schools, etc.

2.4.3 Characteristic/features of real estate

Real estate has endowed special features that distinguish it from other forms of property. Many authors like Millington (2000) Kalu (2001) Woychuk (2014) Emoh (2004) identified the special features to include;

- Ability to produce relatively consistent total returns that are hybrid of income and capital growth.
- No fixed maturity: Equity real estate does not normally have a maturity period unlike bond and other types of investment.
- Tangibility: an investor in real estate can visit his/her investment, speak with the tenants or occupiers and show it off to family members and friends. This attributes makes a real estate investor to have certain degree of physical control over his/her investment
- Requires management: Since real estate is tangible, it need to be managed to ensure continuity e.g. tenants complaints must be addressed, landscaping must be handled, renovation need to be attended to when age start setting in etc.
- Inefficient market: Information asymmetry exists among participation in the market; this has the advantage of allowing greater profits to be made by those with special information, expertise or resources.
- High transaction costs: there are many costs associated with private market real estate such as purchase/sale costs, real estate agent related commissions, lawyer fees, engineer fees and many other costs that can raise the effective purchase price beyond the price the seller will actually receive.

- Lower liquidity: with the exception of real estate securities, no public exchange exists for the trading of real estate. This makes real estate more difficult to sell because deals must be privately brokered and there can be substantial lag between the times you decide to sell a property and when it is actually sold.
- Underlying tenant quality: this is considered because when investment in real estate is made, two things are involved, the purchase of the physical property and the income stream from tenants. If the tenants are likely to default in their monthly or yearly obligation, the risk of the investment is greater which is not inherent in other types of investment.
- Variability among regions: location is an important aspect of real estate investment. A piece of real estate can perform very differently among countries, regions, cities and even within the same city. The consideration on regional difference is very essential when making real estate investment decisions as it has large impact on the eventual returns from choice of property within the market.
- Heterogeneity: property differ in terms of location, size, construction materials etc. It is also amenable to change that is, its use can be changed from commercial to residential and vice versa, which is not inherent in other types of investment.
- High cost of purchase relative to current income: Cost of purchasing real estate is most time higher than relative current income of investor and at times not being able to be financed by equity capital which requires mortgage financing.

- Legal factors: some legislation affects supply and demand of real property and hence its value. Some legislation like rent edicts, town and country planning laws etc, have considerable effectson value of real estate.
- Property gives considerable prestige to the owners.
- Yield on property investment are generally higher than yield on a similar sum invested in other forms of investment.
- Interest in property can often be used as security (collateral) against which loan finance can be raised.
- Hedge against inflation: property values appreciate with time and are good hedge against inflation.
- Requires valuation: property requires valuation form time to time because of their uniqueness which requires professional skills and techniques which may not be required in other forms of investment.
- Risk: A lot of risks are associated with real estate investment which includes tenant risks, market risks, structural risks, taxation risks, planning risks, etc. From the foregoing, it can be observed that real estate investment has characteristics that are both advantageous and disadvantageous. However, the above authors did not investigate how these special characteristics of real properties affect the investment behaviour and investment profile of different types of investors (men and women) which is part of what this work seks to do.

2.4.4 Real estate market

Real estate market or property market is a market where rights and interest in real property are exchanged. Sellers and potential buyers are usually interested in the investment value of the real estate. Olusegun (2003) sees the real estate market as any medium where bundle or cluster of rights are being exchanged. To him it could be a system of transaction between land owners, land users, and estate agents. In such markets what is traded and sold is the interest in land and landed properties such as freehold, leasehold, easement, licenses etc. and not necessarily the physical property.

The property market is no formal market or organization bringing buyers and sellers together. However, there is no special place you can call a property market but such market exist wherever there is an interest or rights being traded by a seller and a buyer. Besides the purchase and sale of rights, other transactions may be required in a property market. A land owner may wish to know current market rent to establish a profitable rental schedules and a potential tenant may need information to decide if the rent and lease provisions are fair to the parties who are exchanging interests. kvedaraviciene (2010) also described real estate market as organizational possibilities and means which allow acquisition, exploitation renovation, or sale of the property according to certain rules which are mostly defined by economical system.

2.4.5 Overview of real estate market in developed and developing economies

Available literature on real estate market in some developing and developed economies, show that some market experience boom due to certain factors while some experience shortage of supply due to other factors affecting the property market. Berk (2007) observed that some developed country's real estate market like Spanish, Turkish and Romanian real estate markets experience boom in the market due to

European Union (EU) accession and integration, fast stabilization and convergence, lower interest rates decreasing the cost of financing and facilitating affordability, introduction of mortgage systems and strong demand from Northern European countries as well as permanent housing for the retirement period or vacation housing. Lesson from the above findings is a regime of lower interest rates which decreases the cost of financing real estate development/investment and facilitates affordability. If this regime is applicable in Nigeria financial system, it will help the citizens (men and women) to embark on real estate investments so as to boost supply in the market. Berk (2007) further observed that future of real estate investment is determined by some factors which include stable economy, increasing per capita (GDP) and improved legal transparency.

Hammond (2006) on the other hand, examined the development of real estate market and investment and find policies of government to have created perverse incentives. Antwi and Omirin (2006) comparatively examined the informal real estate market in Ghana and Nigeria and generated measures of change in residential values and premium or goodwill.

Also, Anim-odame, Key and Stevenson (2010) examined the past performance of residential real estate markets in Ghana and found out that Ghanaian residential real estate has significantly generated returns comfortably ahead of US equities. The views of the above authors show that there are great opportunities in real estate investment market of both developed and developing economies if the factors identified above are critically handled. However, most research on real estate market in Africa centres on issue of land rights, access to land, land titling, housing performance as well as

residential real estate market. No work has been done on the magnitude of real estate ownership by women, which is part of the contribution of this research work.

2.4.6 Contribution of real estate to the national economy.

Real estate represents a significant portion of most people's wealth. In South East Nigeria it is regarded as a measure of wealth. Nguyen (2014) supporting the above view noted that real estate forms significant portion of most people wealth especially for many home owners in the United States. The study shows that the average American has nearly one third (1/3) of his /her net worth tied up in real estate. Hetherington (1988), Gardner and Henneberry (1998; 1991), Crosby and Keogh (1990) as well as Liang and Gordon (2003) studied the contribution of real estate as an important segment of national economy using macroeconomic indicators such as GDP and observed that the value of commercial real estate generally is equivalent to forty five (45) percent of GDP in matured developed economies. On the other hand, Hughes and Arissen (2005) estimated the contribution of higher quality real estate at less than 45% GDP for developing countries. Sub-Saharan African countries are classified as developing and demonstrated a low level of economic development. Hughes and Arissen (2005) studies identified that the sub-Saharan sub region is characterized by a number of countries such as Nigeria with a growing real estate investment market which offer investment opportunities. Anim- odame, key and Steveson (2010) extended Hughes and Arrisen (2005) formula to a full set of African countries and found out that the range in investible real estate value as a fraction of GDP ranges from 8% in the poorest countries (Burundi and Ethiopia) rising to between 8% - 20% in the most prosperous countries (Algeria, Libya, South Africa and Botswana). Real estate investment in Nigeria has so far consisted mainly of residential development across a range of price levels while industrial and commercial

sectors remain largely on owner occupation or rental only. Another study by Irem Foundation and Anderson (1991) shows that the total real estate in the United States is estimated to be worth \$ 8.8 Trillion. They also observed that 70% of all US real estate is residential and almost 90% of the value of residential estate is in the nation's stock of single family houses. The 30% of US real estate that is non residential is dominated by offices and retail spaces. The above study using the Federal Reserve national net worth estimate of \$15.6 trillion in 1990, observed that the real estate constitutes roughly 56% of the nation's wealth.

Also a study conducted by Dispasquale and Wheaten (1992) agreed with Irem Foundation and Anderson (1990) as they found the US real estate to be the largest component of annual net private investment. similar study conducted in India by Sanford (2006) indicates that the Indian real estate market is one of the emerging markets in the less developed economies of countries.

Indian Express (2010) noted that one of the contributing factors of high GDP growth rate in India during 2010 – 2011 was the real estate market. Also Pressure (2012) found out that the India real estate sector is booming and the annual demand for residential building in the country is anticipated to grow at a compound annual growth rate of 52.5%. Also, Pauli (2011) citing Lind and Laundstrom (2009) observed that 2/3 of Swedish national equity capital consists of property and different kinds of real estate. Real estate in 2009 comprised about 600 million square metres and the market is about SEK 8000 billion. The housing sector within the same period has about 60 million square metres and the market value of about SEK 350 billion. The commercial real estate industry within the period also has about 120 million square metres and has a market value of about SEK 950 billion. The above views show that the real estate

market and real estate investors play important role in the economic growth of a nation. However the above scholars did not carry out studies on the extent to which women contribute their quote as regard real estate ownership/investment which in turn contribute to national development. The above gap is part of the contribution of this work.

2.5 Concept of Demand and Supply

There are so many definitions of demand and supply but this study focuses on the definition as it concerns land and landed properties. Demand according to Oyebanji (2003) means need, want or desire. It is referred to as the totality of a commodity (land and building) which people want and are willing to buy, lease or let at a specified price and at a given period of time all other factors being equal. Supply on the other hand is the amounts of goods and services (land and building) which sellers or owners are willing to offer in the market for sale, lease or letting at a given price over a period of time, all other factors being equal. The above definition reveals that demand and supply of real estate facilities concerns the quantity of land and landed properties which buyers need and are willing to buy, lease or let given specified price and at a given period of time. In most urban and rural areas of developing countries Nigeria inclusive, there are varying demand of real estate facilities but the major factor that confront the buyers is the cost (price) at which to purchase lease or let such facilities, this factor among other factors have created a wide gap between demand and supply of real estate facilities.

2.5.1 Demand and supply of real estate facilities

Many scholars have examined the demand and supply of real estate facilities in Nigeria and other developing economies and discovered that there is a wide gap

between demand and supply of real estate facilities. International Housing Coalition (IHC, 2008) noted that the shortage of decent housing in sub-Saharan Africa's burgeoning cities and towns particularly for low and moderate income families is already acute and growing worse day by day. IHC (2009) also observed that with urban growth rate of 5% per annum, it is estimated that by 2030, Africa's cities and towns will have to accommodate more than 300 million new residents. According to IHC (2009) a reasonable estimate is that at least 7000 units per day or 290 units per hour will be required throughout the region to eliminate the current housing deficit and provide for new urban dwellers. It has been identified that cities already unable to cope with the dramatic levels of urbanization will be completely overrun with informal settlements and slums. Report shows that currently 74% of Zambia's urban population lives in slum, in Nigeria 80%, in Sudan 85.7%, in Tanzania 92.1%, in Uganda 93% and in Ethiopia a staggering 99.4% (Republic of Uganda, 2007 in IHC, 2009).

Another report by Detail Commercial Solicitors (2014) shows that Nigeria is one of the fastest growing investment hub in sub Saharan Africa where many foreign investors are looking to expand their investment due to recent rebasing of Nigeria's economy which has led to ranking of Nigeria, Africa's largest economy with GDP over \$510 billion. The report on the other hand observed that Nigeria has the largest housing infrastructure deficit which is currently placed at about 20 million with housing and construction sector accounting for a meagre 3.1% of the rebased GDP.

Also Oladimeji (2008) noted that rapid growth in Nigeria economy translated into an equal rapid growth in the demand for institutional quality real estate and that the sign is observed from the country major markets of Lagos, Port-Harcourt and Abuja. She noted that the growing demand has been met with very limited supply, resulting in

high and growing rents in these markets hence creating an opportunity for profitable real estate investment. The above works however, exposed the gap between demand and supply of real estate facilities and also brought to bare the opportunities available to investors that embark on real estate investment. This work is however; interested in finding out how the identified gap existing between demand and supply can be bridged by enhancing women participation in real estate investment.

2.5.2 Factors affecting demand and supply of real estate facilities

Kvedaranciene (2010) identified changes in macro system, political situation climate change, demographic dynamics and problems in the financial market with lowered lending banks' lending ability as factors that impact on effective demand for real estate property.

Fanning, Grissom and Pearson (1994) in their study found number of prospective purchasers and their income (economic force), the price of related real estate goods and services (economic force), the appeal of the real estate to the tastes and preferences of consumers (social and psychological forces), the role of the government in determining or influencing the availability of the product (legal and regulatory forces) and expected rate of change in the price (economic forces) as major factors affecting demand for real estate properties. On the other hand, the factors that affect supply of real estate include; availability of finance, inflation, availability and cost of land, vacancy factor, role of the developer, regulatory policies, availability of building material, infrastructural services and change in construction technology (REIZ 1992, IPSA 1996 and Millington 1984).

However (Hove 1999) identified the major factors affecting the demand of office space to include, demographic factors, professional expertise, size of the tertiary

sector, changes in the international economy, changes in income, high inflation rates, availability and cost of finance, availability of complementary activities, rent control, accessibility and communication, availability of parking, external and internal appearance of the building and the efficiency of the building. The major factors affecting supply of office space include, availability of finance, inflation, availability and cost of land, vacancy factor, role of the developers, regulatory policies, building materials, infrastructural services and change in construction technology.

Topel and Rosen (1988) earlier observed that demand shifters are population and income in the long run but are insignificant in the short run. Also price and common variable interest rate are all significant in the long run. Bulut (2009) carried out a study on factors affecting demand and supply of housing using level data analysis and logarithmic form analysis and found out that interest rate, value of income and population are significant in explaining the quantity demanded of dwellings in the long run. On the other hand, value, cost and interest rate are also found to be significant in explaining the quantity supplied in the short run. The above identified factors centre on general factors affecting demand and supply of real estate facilities but this work specifically dwells on factors that constrain participation of women in real estate ownership so as to help close the wide gap between demand and supply of this all important facility.

2.6 Concept of Womanhood

The concept of woman or womanhood is derived from different perspectives example; from country to country race to race, developed, developing or undeveloped, continent to continent etc. There is no special definition of womanhood rather the concept is viewed from the way the society ascribe roles to women.

In the traditional African society, womanhood is viewed with a high level of seriousness and responsibility. A young girl in this tradition that attains the age of puberty is seen as a woman and at that level; she begins to be groomed for the higher responsibilities ahead of her. She is given lessons on social etiquette, wifely duties on how to serve her husband and everything that defined her womanhood. These lessons make the girl conscious of her sex and roles in the society. The African woman's resilience and hard work are embedded in the consciousness of every young girl from this stage of her life. A woman enters into the peak of her womanhood when she marries thereby assuming the responsibility of a wife and mother, and most especially her independent role as a contributor to the socio-economic well being of her family and society. In the African traditional society, though patriarchal, there are gender specific roles for the man and woman.

These roles are complementary in a way that there is balance. They work according to the roles assigned to each sex which at the end propagates the interest of the entire family. In Nigeria for instance, there are certain traditional roles performed by women namely; child bearing, housekeeping and subsistence farming. Shebi (2011) in agreement with the above view observes that there is already established fact that Nigerian women once married in the traditional setting, cultivate their own farm and also participate in the cultivation and tending of the family farm which is usually owned and controlled by her husband who is the head of the family. Shebi noted that women's roles also include child bearing. Taiwo (2010) identifies roles of women in the African traditional family structure to include; teaching children social and moral values as well as playing supporting roles to men which make women's roles complementary. However, most African countries had colonial interference at one time or the other which created another concept of womanhood. The concept of

woman or womanhood changed or shifted with colonialism. Colonization brought with it religion (Christianity) which destroyed the power of the African women. They brought with them a shift in power sharing and the general relationship between men and women. Amadiume (1987) observes that western concepts carried strong and class inequalities supported by rigid gender ideology and constructions. Hence colonialism destroyed the set African way of life introducing concept of womanhood which deny the African woman her traditional role. Supporting the above view, Kumah (2000) argues that western schools of thought and religion introduced gender distinctions which were expressed through colonial government educational systems. Kumah (2000) substantiated her claim by tracing the ratio of student's enrolment in some African countries during the era and found out that girls have low ratio compared to the boys. Another factor of colonialism that affected the concept of womanhood is the type of employment available during the era which was not suitable to girls and which discouraged parent from sending their daughter to school. The impact of colonization varied from country to country. United Nation (1990) observes that African women in South Africa suffered a triple oppression which was both restrictive and oppressive entrenched through apartheid legislation which ensures aliens control over all facets of their lives. The post colonial era however, redefined the concept of woman or womanhood as women worked hard to revive self assertive and self reliance aspects of women role in Africa. According to Ogundipe (2005), the steps taken in the establishment of African women independence include; the African female writer's ability to theorize African feminism, which gave them a platform to draw a line between euro-feminism and realities in the third world female discuss. Mcfadden (2002) observed that the struggles for more justice and more equitable distribution of the social and material resources of our societies make women engage

in the political, social, intellectual and economic structure of the society. Despite the struggles, identified by Mcfadden (2002) Adeline (2006) sees the role of women in the modern times as economic but is still burdened by lack of economic power to insist on equal opportunities. Adeline (2006) attributed the challenge to be caused by male dominated societies that are suspicious of change.

Despite the observations that have been made in terms of acknowledging the roles and rights of women, religion, deeply rooted culture and tradition as well as patriarchal perception continue to have major influence on women.

2.6.1 Qualities of women

Women possess some special qualities which are both positive and negative. Ponda (1986) identified the following as the positive qualities of women; Women are responsive, compassionate, empathetic, enduring, gentle, warm tender, hospitable, receptive, intuitive, wise, perceptive, sensitive, spiritual, sincere, vulnerable (in the sense of being emotionally open), obedient, trusting, graceful, sweet, expressive, charming, delicate, quiet, sensually receptive, faithful and pure.

Lavender (1998) further identified good characteristics of an ideal woman to include; piety, purity, domesticity and submissiveness. On the other hand, Ponda (1986) identified negative qualities of women as weak, passive, slavish, weepy, wishy washy, seductive, flirtatious, vain, chatter- box, silly, sentimental, naive, moody, petty, catchy, prudish, manuslative, complaining, nagging, pouty, smothering and spiteful. From the above views, it can be seen that both good and bad qualities of women can contribute to factors that may influence their ability to participate in real estate investment.

2.6.2 Why women?

The inclusion of millennium development goal (MDG) oriented towards the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of women demonstrate that gender equity is placed high on the development agenda (United Nations (UN) 2002). The millennium declaration states that the promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women in addition to being a goal in itself also is a means to further other development goals such as the elimination of poverty, hunger and disease. Gender equality in this sense is the one as defined by Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development OECD (1999) which requires equal enjoyment by women and men of socially valued goods, opportunities, resources and rewards. Gender equality therefore, does not mean that men and women become the same but that their opportunities and life chance are equal. Women empowerment according to Duflo (2005) and Kabeer (2005) is a process which leads towards a state in which women are empowered. This means that empowerment involves any progress aimed at improving women's ability to manage their own lives which is obtained through increased access to key resources. Women empowerment according to Njogu, Orchardson and Maznu (2011) has long been identified as contributory to health and welfare linked to the survival of children and an improvement in human condition. They observed that gender equality and women empowerment are an integral part of national development, peace building and conflict resolution. Lopez (2005) noted that the past three decades have witnessed a steady increase awareness of the need to empower women through measures to increase social, economic and political equity and broader access to fundamental human right. In spite of the recognition of the need to empower women and ensure gender equality as noted by different authors above, women are still associated with poverty. Lopez (2005) observed that the

majority of the 1.5 billion people living in US \$1 or less a day are women. International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD 2011) stated that women rarely have access to the resources and services they need to increase their productivity and income. In the light of the above observations, there is the need to carry out research on areas of the economy which women activities can be enhanced to improve their well being and standard of living so as to reduce poverty among them. Real estate investment is one of the major areas that women activities need to be enhanced so as to improve women's well being. Previous studies have shown that there are so many reasons why when examining the effects of women's economic status; we need to go beyond employment and probe effects of women's property status and in particular their owning land and house. Panda and Agarwal (2005) observed that a property provides more security to women unlike employment which is subject to the vagaries of labour market. It also signals the strength of a women's fallback position and her tangible exist option (Agarwal, 1997). Real estate investment creates wealth and enhances one's capability to live above poverty level. Agarwal (1994) noted that real estate enhances women livelihood options and overall sense of empowerment. In South East Nigeria, real estate ownership is a measure of wealth. Women in this zone face some serious challenges in improving their well being through investment in this sector which necessitates the current research work.

2.7 Magnitude of Real Estate Ownership by Women Generally

Real estate ownership has special features that endear it to both men and women more than other forms of investment. There exists sparse literature in this aspect as very few works conducted earlier focused on women and real estate ownership. Most works in this direction focused on women land rights in Nigeria as well as housing.

Aluko and Amidu (2006) identified that women's land rights in Nigeria are fragile and transient being dependent upon age and marital status (including type of marriage and success of marriage), whether they had children (including number and sex of these children) and their sexual conduct. They argued that gender is central to understanding organization and transformation of land holding in Nigeria, shaping women's differential experience of tenure insecurity not only as wives but also as sisters, daughters and as divorced or widowed heads of households. Clarrisca (2005) observes that 2 percent of the registered lands right in the developing world are held by women, which has implications for democracy, governance, conflict and sustainability. Concurring with the above view Aluko and Amidu (2006) found out that in the context of globalization, occasioning greater market integration, women could context claims on their land but their ability to negotiate access to land needs to be supported and harnessed into land policies. Earlier works like Berry (1993) and Umezurike (2004) observed that under customary land tenure system, which is still very much prevalent, the distribution of rights is based on socio-political system (the political history of the village and region from which the alliances and hierarchical relationship between lineages are derived) and on family relationship (access to land and resources) depending on one's social status within the family, so that social networks govern access rights. In most customary land holding systems, community level decisions about land are taken by chiefs or headmen on behalf and in trust for the clan or family. Hence chiefly authority is generally ascribed to a patriarchal lineage and major decision taken by men (Ntsebeza 1999). However, concurring with the above view Tripp (2003), Whitehead and Tsikata (2003) and Hillhorst (2000) agreed that women claims to land within customary systems are generally obtained through their husbands or male kinsfolk and therefore may be considered secondary.

Emeasoba (2012) argues that despite the indispensability of land to human existence across the globe, women face discrimination in land inheritance under both customary and formal systems of land tenure. Quan (2006) also stated that only in few cases are women's right to hold land and own property recognized in legislation.

However, the intervention of the state through the promulgation of the Land Use Act (LUA) 1978 now CAP 202 L.F.N 1990, to ensure equal access to land has not yielded the desired result. Amankwa (1989) and Aluko and Amidu (2006) observed that because indigenous system does not admit that land can never be without an owner, there persist confusion either in theory or practice on where lies the allodial title to land. This led to various criticism of the act such as Fabiyi (1990) who sees the Act as an urban legislation which only superficially touches on the tenure problems in the rural areas in the country. The above views suggest that the Land Use Act CAP 202 L.F.N 1990 has not solved the problem of customary land tenure system which has been identified by various authors especially as it concerns women. Also Gbadegesin (2012) assessed the cultural and traditional implication of women's right to land for development and this was limited to land and women in Oke- Ogun area of Oyo State Nigeria.

In spite of the above works bothering on land rights, there are some few specific works on women and real estate ownership especially as it concerns housing and home ownership in other countries of the world.

Patel and Patel (2012) identified that females invest their savings less in real estate as compared to their male counterparts in India. Concurring to the above view, Oriye, Owofe and Weje (2012) stated that due to gender based law which grants men direct access to housing and property, women generally lack security of tenure. Asimwe

(2010) studied gender; homosexuals and the dynamic of marriage in Kampala Uganda and concluded that there was an indication of male dominance in home ownership in the study area. Also UBS Investor Watch (2014) observed that women are engaged in many wealth management decisions but not investing. They found out that men's responsibility in making financial decisions include; investing, insurance, long term planning and paying bills while women's responsibility in financial decision include; paying bills, day to day expenses and charitable donations. The reason behind the above situation according to Clark and Straus (2008), as well as Patel and Patel (2012) is because women are more risk averse than men. The above few works points out to the fact that women lag behind in terms of real estate ownership. The factors that impede the active participation of women in real estate ownership in South East, Nigeria are the concern of this research work.

2014) also identified lack of adequate educational status required from women, absence of commitment by concerned (top decision making) body, backward socio-cultural attitudes, lack of sufficient experiences from women to hold leading position, overburden of domestic responsibility, negative attitudes of men towards women and lack of confidence from women themselves as major socio-cultural factors hindering women from leadership and decision making position. The view of the above authors shows that socio-cultural factors pose threats to women active participation in different sectors of human activities. This work will adopt some of the identified social factors/variables to examine the socio-cultural factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in South East Nigeria.

2.7.1 Magnitude/size of real estate ownership by women in some countries of the world

Few literatures available in this regard concentrated majorly on level of land ownership by women Kieran, Sprouse, Doss, Quisumbing and Mikim (2015) identified five key indicators of land ownership for analyzing the available data on women's land ownership in Asia. This measure does not account for the differences in size and quality among plots, but gives a simple measure of how plots are owned. Kieran, Sprouse, Doss, Quisumbing and Mikim (2015) study reveals that there is great gender inequality in the ownership of land for almost all statistics presented. According to the author studies, where individuals are used as unit of analysis, the result shows that men are more than six times as likely as women to be documented land owners in Bangladesh. Also men solely own more than 86% of officially owned plots when using the plots as the unit of analysis. Their study reveals that just less than 12% of agricultural land (plots) is owned jointly by men in Bangladesh.

More so, in using distribution of land area by sex as a unit of measurement, it was also discovered that vast majority of the officially owned land area is owned by men only and just a small fraction of land area is owned jointly by men and women.

World Bank (2008) studied 1500 women aged 15-49 years plus approximately and discovered that less than 10% of women in Bangladesh own land.

Another earlier study by Panda and Agarwal (2005) used 502 ever-married women aged between 14-49 to investigate ownership of land by women in India and found out that only 5-6% of women own land. Velayudhan (2009) studied rate of agricultural land ownership in India between 2003 and 2004 using 4,745 women and 5,170 men and revealed that 11.8% are women and 81.0% are men.

Again International Center for Research on Women (ICRW, 2006) studied ownership of agricultural and residential land in India between 2004-2005 using 402 married couples and revealed that 5.2% owners were women while 5.7% were men.

Another study by Swaminathan, Suchitra and Lahoti (2012) investigated ownership of agricultural and residential land between 2010 and 2011 in India and found out that 12% of owners were women while 78% were men.

Other studies on other parts of Asia reveal that men own properties than women. Landesa China Renmin University and Michigan State (2012) carried out a study using 1,791 household being representatives of the rural population of 17 provinces in China on ownership of land and found out that 17.1% of women own land.

United Nations Population Fund (2013) studies on ownership of any land in Indonesia using 43,952 household discovered that 26.2% land owners were women while 28.4% land owners were men. However other Asian countries reports on land ownership by women are summarized in table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1: Land Ownership in Other Parts of Asia

| Authors (year published) | Country (year data collected) | Type of land surveyed | Women | Men | Joint | Others |
|--|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------|----------------|----------------|------------|
| World bank | Bangladesh (2006) | Any land | < 10% | NA | NA | NA |
| National institute of public health estab. (2006) | Cambodia | Any land | 13.6% | NA | NA | NA |
| Landesa china Remin university, Michigan state (2012) | China (2011) | Not specific | 17.1% | NA | NA | NA |
| Panda and Agarwal (2005) | India (2001) | Agricultural and resident land | 5.6% | NA | NA | NA |
| Veleyudan (2009) | India (2003 – 04) | Agric land | 11.8% | 81.0% | NA | NA |
| International centre for research on women (2006) | India (2004 – 05) | Agric and resident land | 5.2% | 5.7% | NA | NA |
| Dewiningar etal (2010) | India (2006) | Any land | 3% | NA | NA | NA |
| Swaminathan (2011) | India (2010 – 11) | Agric land | Rural 14% Urban 15% | 71% 64.0% | 2% 0.0% | 12% 20% |
| Statistics Indonesia (2013) | Indonesia (2012) | Any land | 12.5% | 27.5% | NA | NA |
| Pandey (2003) | Nepal (2000 – 2012) | Agric/residential | 22.0% | 45.3% | 32.0% | NA |
| Ministry of health and population (Nepal) etal (2012) | Nepal (2012) | Any land | 9.7% | 24.7% | NA | NA |
| National institute of population studies (Nips) Pakistan & ICF International | Pakistan (2012 – 13) | Any land | 1.8% | 16.5% | NA | NA |
| Philippines statistics authority (PSA) & ICF International (2014) | Philippines (2012) | Any alnd | 9.2% | NA | NA | NA |
| ICRW (2006) | Spri lands (NR) | Agric & residential land | 30.4% | 73.2% | NA | NA |
| Scott etal (2014) | Vietriam (2004) | Any land | 35.8% | 60.3% | 1.7% | 2.2% |
| Menon etal (2014) | Vietriam (2004, 2008) | Any land | 21.3% 19..8% | 63.0% 62.0% | 15.7% 18.3% | NA NA |
| Newman etal (2015) | Vietriam (2006, 2008, 2010) | Any land | 8.5% | 84.9% | NA | NA |

Source: Kieran, Sproule, Doss, Quisumburg and Kim {2015}

In Africa, studies shows that the percentage of women reporting that they own land range from 11% in Senegal to 54% in Rwanda and Burundi when compared with those of men. The comparable figures for men are 28% in Senegal, 55% in Rwanda and 64% in Burundi. The largest gender gap in land ownership in Africa where data are available is Uganda. In Uganda the share of men who own land is 21% points higher than that of women in Niger only 9% of the land is reported as being owned by women, 29% jointly owned by both men and women and 62% by men. In Tanzania, only 16% of the land is reported as owned by women 39% jointly owned and 48% owned by men. In Ethiopia 15% is reported as owned by women, 39% jointly owned and 45% owned by men (Ireru 2016)

Kussana, kidido and Adam (2013) also studied land size in Wa municipality Ghana and revealed that large farms belonged to the men. The earlier studies by International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED.1999) shows that across West Africa and Sahara regions, women access land indirectly and the size of their landholdings are always smaller than their male counterparts. Also Kussana et al (2013) studied number of registered leases by sex from 2006-2008 in Wa municipality Ghana and the result shown in table 2.2:

Table 2.2: Number of Registered Leases by Sex 2006 - 2008

| Year | Male | Female | Total |
|------|------|--------|-------|
| 2006 | 302 | 44 | 346 |
| 2007 | 355 | 59 | 414 |
| 2008 | 381 | 101 | 482 |

Source: Upper west Deed Registry (2009) cited by Kuusaana et al (2013)

Table 2.2 shows that in all the 3 years studied, women are less likely than men in registering their leases.

However, FAO (2016) recent studies on the distribution of agricultural land owners by sex – female according to different countries and periods shows that women level of land ownership is lower than that of men except in Ecuador. The result of their report is shown in table 2.3 below:

Table 2.3: Distribution of Agricultural Land Owners by Sex – Females

| Country | Year | Percentage |
|------------|-------------|------------|
| | | Female |
| Bangladesh | 2011 – 2012 | 22.6 |
| Ecuador | 2010 | 51.0 |
| Ghana | 2010 | 38.0 |
| Haiti | 2001 | 23.5 |
| Honduras | 2004 | 14.4 |
| Mexico | 2002 | 32.2 |
| Nicaragua | 2005 | 19.9 |
| Paraguay | 2001 – 2002 | 27.0 |
| Peru | 2000 | 12.7 |
| Tajistan | 2007 | 17.1 |
| Vietriam | 2004 | 37.3 |

Source: FAO (2016)

The above studies show that there is a wide gap in the magnitude of land owned by women compared to men in all countries where data are available.

Another earlier study by African Gender Development Index (AGDI 2007) on women access to land in selected countries in Africa shows that there is a gap in land ownership between men and women. Table 2.4 below shows the results of their findings

Table 2.4: Ownership of Rural/Urban Plots/Houses or Land (Number of Registered Owners).

| Countries | Number of owners Male | Female |
|--------------|-----------------------|-----------|
| Benin | 3,164 | 462 |
| Burkina Faso | 6,154,338 | 3,718,790 |
| Cameroon | - | - |
| Egypt | 4,416,554 | 267,830 |
| Ethiopia | 7,947,709 | 2,501,714 |
| Ghana | 5,978,277 | 6,155,624 |
| Mozambique | 2,357,780 | 709,349 |
| South Africa | - | - |
| Uganda | 2,916,179 | 906,551 |
| Madagascar | - | - |

Source: AGDI Reports (2007)

Table 2.4 above depicts that Ghana shows significant progress in women's ownership of real properties compared to other countries. Again Doss, Kovank, Peterman, Quismbing and Bold (2014) studied gender inequalities in ownership of land in Africa and found out that in all the countries studied, the percentage of women that own are less. Their report is shown in table 2.5 below;

Table 2.5: Percentage of Landholders who are Women in Some African Countries

| Country/ Year | Number of Women Landholders | Number of total Landholders | Percentage of Landholders who are women |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|---|
| Bostwana (2004) | 17,576 | 50,690 | 34.7 |
| Cape Verde (2004) | 22,461 | 44,450 | 50.5 |
| Comoros (2004) | 17,094 | 52,464 | 32.6 |
| Ethiopia (2001-2002) | 2,149,675 | 11,507,442 | 18.7 |
| Gambia (2001-2002) | 5,731 | 69,140 | 8.3 |
| Madagascar (2004-2005) | 371,158 | 2,428,492 | 15.3 |
| Mali (2004-2005) | 24,636 | 805,194 | 3.1 |
| Nigeria (2007) | 1,579,341 | 15,732,850 | 10.0 |
| Tanzania (2007-2008) | 1,575,129 | 5,838,523 | 27.0 |
| TOTAL | | | 22.2 |

Source: Doss, Kovank, Peterman, Quismbing and Bold (2014)

However, in Nigeria data available on land ownership is centered on land ownership system in Nigeria. Udo-ekanem, Adoja and Onwumere (2017), showed the distribution of household who are land owners in Nigeria. The result of their findings is shown in table 2.6 below;

Table 2.6: Distribution of Household that Own Land in Nigeria

| Geographical zone | Percentage Distribution of household who are land owners |
|-------------------|--|
| North – east | 22.8 |
| North – west | 27.5 |
| North – central | 25.1 |
| South – east | 23.6 |
| South – west | 14.1 |
| South – south | 19.6 |
| Average | 23.1 |

Source: National Bureau of statistics (2011) cited by Udo-ekanem et al (2017)

It can be seen that gap exists in knowledge as regards ownership of different types of property as previous work dwelt only on bare land, agricultural and residential land. There is also gap in the level of property owned by women in Nigeria generally and south-East in particular. This work employed one of the indicators for measuring ownership of land as adopted by Kieran et al (2013) which centers on using individual as unit of measurement to assess level/magnitude of real estate ownership by women in South – East Nigeria.

2.8 Factors Affecting Real Estate Ownership by Women

2.8.1 Factors affecting real estate ownership generally

Psunder (2009) established that real estate growth has been accompanied by some very important impact factors. He identified such factors affecting real estate growth

or decline to include; household income, demographic and social indicators, offer and funding costs and the impact of the state. He also argued that even greater damage to the construction sector and construction market may be inflicted by higher inflation (higher funding costs), which results in lower demand for real properties and puts pressure on prices. The work of Lipej (2008) observed that major economic crises may bring about an additional stand still and increased risks on capital markets, which will have an impact on the workings of real estate systems. He further argues that the real estate market needs access to basic data and information, in particular, to market prices and time trends. For a market to be successful, it needs to be ensured that it has transparency, ownership security, and efficient cadastral and land registry systems allowing quick, reliable and price wise acceptable access to real estate data for users. Trappa and Mosennier (2010) in their research found robust evidence of a significant positive effect of inflation targeting on the house price to rent ratio. The inflation according to them has a great influence on successfulness and profit of companies. Thus, inflation reduces real interest rates, and yet the inflation impetus means that nominal interest will conform as quoted by Ewing and Payne (2003) and Lennert (2008). The fact that inflation reduces investments, economic growth and future yield was also ascertained by Clark (1993). Huizinga (1993) and Zion et al (1993) claimed that inflation leads to lower stabilities of relative prices which cause higher uncertainty of investments. Feldstein and Summers (1979) earlier discovered that higher inflation leads to higher income taxes of artificial persons. The extent of interest's sensibility depends on how many changes of investment projects will happen in the expected inflation. Hervert, McLaughlin, and Taggart (1998) investigated the sensibility of inflation growth caused by changes in interest rates and found out that the growth is generally less sensible on interest rate than on property.

Golob, Bastic and Psander (2012) also identified volume of loans, declining economic growth, declining interest rate, construction quality, type and location of real estate property as factors affecting the value and quicker sale of real estate property. The available literature reviewed above did not highlight peculiar factors affecting real estate ownership by women which is the purpose of this work.

2.8.2 Factors that constrain real estate ownership in Nigeria

Most literature on factors that constrain real estate ownership focuses more on factors that constrain housing development. Ibrahim and Garba (2012) studied challenges of housing development need in Abuja Nigeria and found the following as the major constraints; lack of well developed mortgage institutions in the country, initial bills payable to the authority by a would be developer, increase in population, lack of detailed land uses and site development plans, violation of the provisions of land use plans, ineffective monitoring and implementation of master development plan by the requisite authority, and lack of strong political will by government. Babalakin (2004) earlier identified the land policy, Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Decree 1988, compulsory acquisition and compensation, title document and restricted law for foreign investors which limit foreign funds as major problems facing real estate development/investment in Nigeria. Ogwu (2007) enumerated the problems facing housing development to include undeveloped housing finance system, limited supply of long term funds, high interest rates on mortgages, high cost of land and building materials, poor planning and implementation of housing policies and programmes, existence of administrative bottlenecks (which make processing and securing of approval of building plans, certificate of occupancy and other government permit difficult) and unmitigated corruption in the allocation of government lands within the

framework of Land Use Act, Cap 202 LFN, 1990. Chuwkujekwu (2006) in agreement with the view of the authors above enumerated the problems to the provision of sustainable housing to also include; escalating high cost of building materials, inaccessibility to low and cheap housing finance, lack of rebate for imports of building materials, poor remuneration and low minimum wages of workers resulting in low purchasing power that are unattractive to developers, ineffective mortgage system to support purchasing power of low and middle income earners in the country, lack of political will and commitment of successive government in the country, total withdrawal of some tiers of government in direct construction of houses, high profit driven attitude of private developers arising from high cost of funds, lack of government support in terms of provision of infrastructural facilities to bring down high cost of housing construction, dependency on imported building materials which increase the overall cost of housing units, non acceptance of local building materials and inadequate funding of research efforts of local building materials, indiscipline, corruption and overpricing of contract sums of housing projects. Contributing to the earlier observed constraints Ayedun and Oluwatobi (2011) observed that the main constraints and challenges militating against housing provision in Nigeria are related to economic and political environment, the building costs, accessibility to land and lack of finance . On the other hand, Nwachukwu and Emoh (2011) identified the following as real estate development/investment risk/ threats.

The threat of building failure, abandonment and collapse during and after construction;

- Threat of where to build, how to build and when to build.
- The opportunity cost in choosing to invest in real estate

- Threat of losing financial asset and the risk associated with time value of money
- Environmental challenges that influence or affect demand and supply of building accommodation within a geographical area such as erosion (gully and flood), insecurity, and other natural challenges.

. Risk of cost/ rate of borrowing financial capital to invest and make profit with time.

. The threat of selecting the mode of measuring profit from real estate investment.

Also, Ayodele (2014) observes that challenges in the financial sector, legal hassle and sectorial violence are the major factors that portent risk for real estate development in Nigeria.

This research work will use the above identified challenges/ threats to real estate development/ investment especially those identified by Nwachukwu and Emoh (2011) to examine the influence of the identified threats on women profile in real estate ownership in South-East Nigeria.

2.8.3 Women and real estate ownership generally

Women constitute about half of the world's population (Fapohunda, 2012, Onachi and Bwisa, 2013 and World Bank, 2016). Their contribution is about 55% including their unpaid economic activities. There is every reason that women should play an equal role in economic decision making. The 1994 world survey on the role of women in development reported that the ratio of women to men in economically active populations has almost doubled over the last 20 years. With the increase in the role of women in the economic activities and by nature women are identified as better savers than men, the decision making process by women for ownership and investment

purpose gains its importance. According to Arti, Julee and Suntiia (2011) traditionally the right to make investment decision normally belongs to men. The above authors maintained that the increased participation of women in the labor force coupled with the trend towards increasing longevity and rising net worth makes women investors a force that cannot be ignored. Again Sellapan, Jumia and Kavitha (2013) recognized that traditionally women have generally been more hesitant when it comes to financial savings, they are more cautious when it comes to money, saving is a habit specially embodied in women. Even in the past, when majority depended on their spouse's income, they used to save to meet emergencies as well as for future activities.

Tahira and Cazilia (2012) observed that despite the narrowing of the gender differences in education, income and wealth over time, the measures of long term financial security for women are still at lower level than those of men. The above authors while examining the investment behavior of high income women in America found out that women are more likely than men to handle routine money management task while men were more likely than women to invest. Also Sellapan, Jamuna and Kavitha (2013) identified that general profile of women investor in India is changing in tune with time, but they lag in various spheres of investment such as awareness and preferences of investment. This they attributed to lack of awareness of various investment outlets. The above findings agrees with the findings of Tahira & Cazilia (2012) where they observed that when women were involved in investment decision, many reported making them with their partners rather than alone, showing the lack of knowledge of various investment outlets.

However, Sellapan, Jamuna and Kavitha (2013) while citing Clark and Straus (2008) found out that in India, married women are more curious in making investments than

the unmarried. Younger women are more likely to invest in shares, mutual funds, insurance and fixed deposits than older women. Middle age persons prefer to invest in real estate source of investment. Also Jain (2014) investigated the income and investment pattern of working class women in the city of Ahmadabad, India and found out that the majority of women preferred to invest their savings in the fixed deposit with banks for safety followed by investing in gold.

From the foregoing, it could be deduced that women are more conservative when it comes to investment; hence their investment profile is adjudged lower than that of men. Again there is dearth of literature on issues concerning women and investment in South East Nigeria, a gap which this work intends to fill.

2.8.4 Factors that constrain real estate ownership by women

Few literatures are available on factors that constrain real estate ownership by women but there are many literatures on factors that hinder/challenge women participation in different areas/sectors of human activities. Most of the available literature categorized these factors into socio-cultural, educational, political, law and legal, economic and psychological factors (FHRI & FIDA-U 2014, Ahebwa2009, Hora 2004 and DFID1997).

2.8.4.1 *Socio-cultural factors:*

Rahma and Farhana (2004) studied the socio-cultural factors that influence women entrepreneurial activities in Bangladesh and found out that the following factors pose challenges to women in this aspect: traditional belief, value system, fatalistic attitude, religiosity, social problems like literacy level and poverty.

Ayodepo (2012) identified socio-cultural factors promoting gender based violence in Ota Ogun State to include; domineering attitude of men, failure to have a male child, cultural beliefs and values, sex role socialization (e.g., women are not complete without a man), lack of economic empowerment, societal norms (e.g., wives must show respect to all male members of the family irrespective of age).

Pebbles, Nada, Ghoshel and Sabbaghi (2014) also found out that the social factors that affect women economic participation in the private sector in Jordan include; gender stereotyping, perception about occupation/jobs appropriate for women, under valuing women's capabilities, gender bias recruitment, religious discrimination in women's recruitment, occupational distribution of women in workforce, career choices made, male/female job priorities among others.

Also Yusuf (2013) earlier found out that ethnic practices give rise to gender discrimination against women. The study observed that Igbo of South-East Nigeria are known to be the most foremost entrepreneurial group when compared to other major ethnic groups in Nigeria. The study went further to enunciate that the entrepreneurial activities as practiced by Igbo ethnic group give priority to the male child more than the girl child who is seen to provide future supportive role to their husbands or family business. Nworah (2011) in support of the above view noted that at the demise of an entrepreneur in Igbo ethnic group, the practice is usually the transfer of control to the eldest male child who may even be the least competent. Thebaud (2012) found cultural practices; bigotry, discrimination and tradition of patriarchal cultures as prejudice against women entrepreneurs in Africa and developing countries. In support of the above view, Shinner, Giacomini and Jenssen (2012) observed that empirical evidence indicates that in spite of the growth in women entrepreneurship, the male

entrepreneurs are still almost twice the women entrepreneurs due mainly to cultural perception and beliefs. In another study, Ahebwa (2009) identified the following socio-cultural variables that affect women participation in Local Government elections in Uganda; low-educational levels, inferiority complex/lack of confidence, lack of support from spouse and fellow women, religion, male domination and women gender roles.

2.8.4.2 *Economic factors:*

World Bank (2004), ILO (1998) and Dawson (1997) identified difficulty in gaining access to loan as the reason why women do not participate actively in economic activities. OECD (2005) observes that women have fewer opportunities than men to gain access to credit for various reasons including; lack of collateral, unwillingness to use household assets as collateral, small amount of loans requested and negative perception of female entrepreneurs by loan officers. Government of Kenya-GoK (1999) also found out that relevant and cost effectiveness is often inappropriate in satisfying the particular needs of potential and operating women entrepreneurs. Again Ongachi and Bwisa (2013) studies discovered that financial capacity and capability to borrow and comfortably pay back as well as not meeting requirements for borrowing due to lack of resources had significant effect on enterprises growth of women owned medium and small scale industries in Kitale Municipality, Kenya. Stevenson and St-Onge (2005) earlier argued that many women are income poor, yet have to provide for their families and hence competing financial needs between family and business becomes one of the major constraints to women's entrepreneurial growth. Bradshaw, Catellino and Diop (2013) also observe that economic fundamentalism, policies and practices that privilege profits over people deny women their rights as workers and to

work. Fapohunda (2012) in agreement with the above view discovered that low access to credit from formal banking institutions because they do not have collateral to offer; high rate of unemployment among women than men; women wage being below average are among the challenges to women involvement in Nigeria's development. Concurring with Fapohunda's view, Pebbles, Nada, Ghoshel and Sabbaghi (2014) observed that labour law, maternity leave, on-site child care, retirement policies, security issues and lump sum compensation are factors that influence economic participation of women in Jordan private sector. It was also discovered that women employment poses challenges to their active participation in economic development. Women face greater vulnerabilities in labour market because of their lack of education and training which channel them into certain occupations, and the continuous heavy burdens of unpaid domestic work, child bearing and child care which restrict the time and energy available for income earning activities. According to UNDP (2008), women are two thirds less likely than men to get waged employment. Only 3 out of 10 women in the labour force in the country (Nigeria) are paid employees (Fapohunda 2013). In support of the above view, Federal Office of Statistics (2008) earlier reported that about 5% of the female labour force worked in industry, 20% in services, 23% in sales and only 6% in professional, technical, administrative or managerial positions. Also International Finance Corporation IFC (2013) estimated that women-owned entities represent over 30% of registered businesses world-wide and yet on the average, about 10% of women entrepreneurs have access to the capital needed to grow their business. However, it can be deduced from the above literature that lack of finance, lack of access to loan, low level of employment, heavy burden of unpaid domestic work are the major economic and financial factors affecting women participation in economic and national

development. The identified factors above will be used to examine the economic factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in South-East Nigeria.

2.8.4.3 *Psychological factors:*

Many works have shown that individual behaviour have effect on their decision to invest. Geist (2003) recognizes that human emotion have impact on financial decision making. Geist recognized and acknowledged that emotions are an integral part of the investment decision making process realizing that the investment decisions are shaped by investor's own unconscious emotional convictions. In another study conducted by Jabes (2011) in Nairobi, it was discovered that investor's behaviour and interest to participate in the investment market are influenced by factors like; work experience in finance, objectives of the investment, tools used to invest, duration of investment, expected returns and availability of information on investment. However, studies exploring gender differences in investment decisions and behaviour shows that there are some psychological factors that influence decisions to invest by different gender. Estes and Hosseini (1988) earliest studies exploring gender differences in investment identified that personal characteristics influence confidence in an investment. The study showed evidence of women having significantly lower confidence in an investment task than men. Another study by Zinkham and Karande (1991) found out that females are less likely to take business risks than males. In support of the above view Bayyurt, Kansik and Coskun (2013) observed that women are more conservative in making long term investment decisions such as pension fund investment. Bayyurt, Kansik and Coskun (2013) noted that in focusing on professional men and women investment managers, it was found that when faced with social and technological hazards, women are more risk averse than men. Studies conducted earlier by

Atkinson, Baird and Frye (2003), Niessen and Ruensi (2006) shows that the conservative and risk averse investment strategy of women was evidenced to not differ regardless of occupation as well as the level of expertise and experience. The above study found out that even if a woman is a fund manager, she keeps her risk averse stance and thus offer her clients lower risk and lower returns investment alternatives. Collaborating with the above view, Clark and Straus (2008) discovered that women are more risk averse than men. Barber and Odean (2001) earlier noted that women know less and are less confident about their knowledge of investments as compared to men. This psychological attribute of women results to fear as observed by Cadenhead and Lisa (2008), who stated that fear, is one of the reasons why women do not embark on real estate investment because they are afraid of losing their hard earned money.

Apart from the above views, Sellapan, Jamuna and Kavitha, (2013) found out that age and marital status are the two most important factors that affect women's investment behaviour in India. Their study shows that married women are more curious in making investment than unmarried while younger women prefer to invest in shares, mutual funds, insurance and fixed deposits than the older women. The middle aged women prefer to invest in real estate source of investment. To further buttress the above findings, Sellapan, Jamuna and Kavitha, (2013) reported that in a study conducted at Iowa State University, it was found out that women are more likely to have experienced a change in their marital status, the arrival of a child, and death of a family member. The study also found out that divorce is an important factor in making investment decisions for women. However, the views of the above authors show that lack of confidence, risk adverse nature, fear, lack of knowledge of

investment avenues; age as well as marital status are the major psychological factors that pose challenges to women in making investment decisions.

2.8.4.4 Educational factors:

Most of the other factors that pose challenges to women in different spheres of human endeavours point to low level of women education. Different scholars/researchers also have investigated factors that pose challenges to women education. DFID (1997) report shows that geographical factors such as spatial disparity and in some cases incompleteness of institutional provisions relates directly to difficulty of physical access which adversely affect girls more than boys in accessing education. The study also identifies those socio-cultural factors such as cultural bias in favour of males, that is, widespread operation of patriarchal systems of social organization, of customary early marriage, of incidence of early pregnancy, of heavier domestic and subsistence duties of females, general lower value of female life combine to adversely affect the participation of girls and women in female education. Other factors identified by DFID (1997) also include health factors (such as malnutrition of girls due to poverty) which adversely affect their performance and retention state. Economic factors which include patriarchal and patrial-local predominance investment in girls schooling which is assumed to be wasteful since it benefits the family into which a girl marries than her own. Legal factors which stems from long societal rules constraining females that are still operative in some countries. Political/Administrative factors resulting from lack of political will to eradicate gender bias in development of universal primary education, equal educational opportunities in terms of gender seems to be weak in the face of severe economic constraint. There is also low participation of women in influential echelons of power.

In another study, Almanam-Kham (2005) disclosed that girls are not in school because of poverty. According to Almanam-Kham, the more expensive the education is, the less likely families are to invest in education for girls. Collaborating with the above findings, Crystal (2007) noted that in most low income countries, girls are both less likely to attend school than boys and are more likely to drop out. This according to the author explains why two-thirds of the world 78million illiterates are women. ILO (1998) further emphasized that the issue of poverty is the underlying bases for the persistent inequality between the sexes. Poverty, the report stressed, deprives women of the necessary education needed for their improvement. Other works equally show that there is a fundamental cultural bias in favour of men in almost all countries of the world (Kendell 1996 and Brook & Cammish 1991). UNESCO Brenda Report 1995 in agreement with the above authors posited that boys are equipped for their future in the labour market, while girls are equipped to make life comfortable for their male folk and to take adequate care of their children. Sen (1995) also observed that there is virtually little time left for women to engage in further education and training because they are invariably primary care giver. In addition, Chabli, Kaloon and Harleston (2008) studies indicated that factors that influence unequal access to educational opportunities and inadequate skills training on the life chances of girls and women in some selected communities include; scarcity of instructor, lack of government and donor supports, inadequate training materials, inadequate infrastructure, inadequate employment opportunities and lack of capital. The above views suggest that the major factors posing threat to women education include; poverty, socio-cultural practices (preference to male child more than the female child, early marriages etc), lack of legal frame work for women education, heavier work load (women take care of their children and homes) and lack of educational incentives

for women. The identified factors above will be examined in this work to see how they contribute to educational factors affecting real estate ownership by women.

2.8.4.5 Political factors:

Women face challenges in public/leadership positions which pose challenges to them in participating actively in the economy. Hora (2014) observes that major barriers hindering women from public leadership and decision making positions include; socio-cultural attitudes, lack of acquisition of the necessary experience for taking part in public decision making, overburden of domestic responsibilities, continuation of negative attitude regarding women's ability to lead and govern and lack of role models of women leaders for young women and girls. DFID (1997) also reported that there is low participation of women in influential echelons of power.

The above identified political factor/ variables will be used to assess political factors that challenge real estate ownership by women.

2.8.4.6 Law and legal factors:

In most developing countries especially Africa, statutory law is applied alongside customary and religious laws. For instance, Foundation for Human Rights Initiative (FHRI) and Ugandan Association of Women Lawyers FIDA-U (2011) noted that despite the provisions of the country's constitution, discriminatory statutory, customary and religious law remain in force, particularly in the area of family law and property law. FHRI and FIDA-U (2011) also noted that women face additional barriers in seeking access to justice to include; awareness stigmatization and lack of interest and responsiveness of mostly male police and judicial officials. They also identified general lack of appropriate and effective referral and legal support systems

as further challenges facing women in accessing justice for victims of violence. They also identified discriminatory laws governing inheritance as part of the challenges faced by women in land ownership. International Federation for Human Rights (FIDH) in their studies show that in a number of countries, women still lack independent right to own land, manage property, conduct business or even travel without their husbands' consent. It can therefore be deduced from the above that statutory laws, customary laws/rules as well as religious laws are important legal variables that pose challenges to women active participation in different spheres of life.

However, there are few available literatures that dwell particularly on factors that constrain real estate ownership by women. Awotana and Akinola (1997) identified the following as factors militating against women involvement in housing delivery in Nigeria: **access** to land, housing finance, training information and access to appropriate technology.

Concurring with the above militating factors, Oriye et al (2012) identified lack of access to finance, lack of access to land, lack of access to information, sub – position of women in formal establishment, misconceptions about women in formulation of housing policies/ programmes and non inclusion and participation of women in the construction sector as the factors militating against women in housing delivery. In support of the above view, International Labour Organization (1998) earlier showed that female participation in construction ranged between 0.55% and 16.78%. Also Feagin (1990) recognized that traditionally women face severe constraints in access and participation in home ownership. Various studies conducted globally on home ownership shows that various factors affect women participation in home ownership.

Kutessa (1995) conducted a research on how low cost housing affect men and women and found out that women face more challenges. Manyire (2002) investigated the nature and relative importance of socio cultural and economic factors that influence or impede women engagement in low cost housing development in Jinja and Kampala respectively. Tusingwire and Tumushabe (1999) focused on women headed household in relation to the central housing while Rodriquez (2012) studied the rise of women's role in the society impacts on housing and communities and found out that women in Canada has made a substandard progress in education, employment, homeownership, politics and population to mention a few. Also Kupke and Rossini (2012) conducted a study on identifying home owner ship rates for female household in Australia and discovered that the few identified homeowners in the single person household category and especially those willing to owning a home was strongly represented by female heads of household in Australia. Emeasoba (2012) in her own study shows that patriarchal system of land ownership as well as customary and formal land policies are factors militating against women of the South East Nigeria in gaining access to land. Supporting Emeasoba (2012), Ezejiofor (2012) noted that women are supposed to function only in the family but not ownership or inheritance rights hence wives do not inherit land because of the customary notion that women are property and therefore object of inheritance themselves.

Asiimwe (2010) found out that for married women to become home owners in Ugandan patriarchal system special control needs like control of income, absence of husband, assertiveness, consensus, negotiation and financial crises need to be available for the woman. Also, Gbadegesin (2012) found out that culture, belief and level of education are the most significant factors affecting women's rights to land for development. Merlo and McDonald (2002) in their study of home ownership

aspirations found out that factors that were significantly associated with entry into home ownership, employment status seems to have the strongest impact net of all other factors. Also Blaabeer (2010) found out that female doubt about future income and income potentials act as a major deterrent to home ownership by women. Blaabeer noted that single income earners in Europe were particularly disadvantaged and that single women and especially single mothers were more disadvantaged than single men or single fathers. Earlier studies by Gandelmen (2009) found that female headed families have a lower probability of owning their home in 13 out of 17 Latin American countries.

Kupke and Rosini (2012) in agreement with the above three authors identified that women are disadvantaged in terms of security of employment which is likely to increase the difficulty in securing loan which compound the struggle by women to first achieve and maintain homeownership. However, Partio and Kuhmoren (2014) recent studies identified the following factors affecting women's land ownership in Namibia; Legal factors, lack of education, cultural and social norms, phenomenon of property grabbing, women's economic situation and HIV/Aids epidemic. Partio and Kuhmoren (2014) noted that women's land ownership in Namibia is low compared to men. Also Africa Gender Equality Index-AGEI (2015) observed that across Africa, women and men often experience different opportunities, conditions and privileges. They earn different wages, do not have the same access to education, and are not always equal before the law.

In Sub Saharan Africa, customary land tenure system widely excludes women from ownership and control of land. AGEI (2015) shows that 15% of land holders (i.e. those who exercise management control over agricultural holdings as owners or

tenants or through customary rights) ranging from under 5% in Mali to 30% in countries such as Botswana, Cape Verde and Malawi. Earlier studies by Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) (2011) observe that under customary legal systems women's rights to inherit land are restricted and are vulnerable to dispossession on divorce or widowhood. FAO (2011) also identified the following factors that constrain real estate ownership by women: Insecure land rights which reduces women ability to pledge their land as collateral for loans. Lack of credit: It was observed by FAO (2011) that credit markets are not gender neutral as African women are kept from access to financial services by cultural assumptions, legal barriers to entering into contracts in their own names or by lack of financial literacy. Women also lack the assets that financial institutions demand as collateral.

FAO (2011) concluded their report by stating that in areas such as marital property, inheritance, land ownership and labour, women are treated as less than full citizens. However, available literature on factors that constrain real estate ownership in Nigeria generally and South-East in particular centers on land ownership. Emeasoba (2012) found out that patriarchal system of land ownership as well as customary and formal land policies are factors militating against women of South-East in gaining access to land. Supporting Emeasoba (2012), Ezejiofor (2012) noted that women are supposed to function only in the family but not ownership or inheritance rights. Hence wives do not inherit land because of the customary notion that women are property therefore, object of inheritance themselves.

Also Gbadegesin (2012) found out that cultural belief and level of education are the most significant factors affecting women's rights to land for development. Collaborating the findings of Gbadegesin(2012), Kuusaana, Kidido and Halidu-Adam

(2013) observed that customary practices impede women's access to and ownership of land and enunciated the reasons as follows:

- Since traditionally women are regarded as non – permanent members of their natal homes, they are not considered when allocating land to family members.

- In their marital homes, women are regarded as properties/ assets that are owned by their husbands and brought into the family to be caretakers of their husbands, children and homes. Hence, it means that properties cannot own properties. Therefore, women are not allowed to own properties since they themselves are regarded as assets/ properties.

Kuusaana, Kidido and Halidu-Adam (2013) further observed that apart from customary practices, another major factor that impede ownership of and access to land in Wa Municipality Ghana are financial constraints and lack of knowledge by women of their land rights. The authors explained that because most women are not gainfully employed, they earn very little from their small farms and petty trading activities. Hence, they do not have enough money to purchase land to compensate for what they have been denied by their families. They further explained that the emergence of vibrant land markets and consequent land commoditization in the last decade has worsened the position of women's land ownership. Earlier studies by Kavana (1992) on land tenure studies in Sub- Saharan Africa confirms the fact that changing values of land affects women's access to land more than men. According to Kavana (1992), as land values increases, men and corporate groups dominated by men including state authorities find it in their interest in one way or the other to renegotiate with women or even take away their land from them. In their own contribution USAID (2014) observed that while women legally have the same land use rights as men, cultural

objections and patrilineal inheritance practices limit their land rights in practice. Dale, Himelien, Nikiti and Bexley (2010) as well as Henriques, Narcuso and Branco (2011) earlier found out that inheritance is the primary way in which land is acquired in Timor-Leste, a predominantly patrilineal society. A recent study by Ileri (2016) complimented the findings of USAID (2014), Dale, Himelien, Nikiti and Bexley (2010) and Henriques, Narcuso and Branco (2011) by stating that a number of customary laws and traditions discriminate against women when it comes to inheritance to land. Ileri (2016) further identified the socio-economic impacts of women land ownership to include; legal and customary barriers to ownership of and access to land, use of natural resources, access to capital and credit, lack of opportunities, resource training and skills, and access to and use of resources.

However, this work goes beyond home ownership and land rights to examine the factors that militate against active participation of women in all aspects of real estate ownership in South-East Nigeria.

2.9 Effect of Factors Affecting Real Estate Ownership by Women on Women Contribution to Nation Building/National Economy

Sparse literature exists in this regard but literatures abound on the contributions and women participation in national development / nation building

2.9.1 Women participation in the economy

Previous studies that focused on women participation in the economy have identified that there is a gender gap existing in the level of economic participation worldwide. Levin Institute (2015) found out that in spite of International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank encouragement for developing countries to use export led growth to

expand their economy, such globalized economies requires a labor force of a size that must include women but women's employment varies greatly by region. There is a gap existing in employment, with a 24.8% point difference between men and women employment to population ratio (MDG Report 2013). The MDG report shows that as at 2012, 64% of women are in the workforce in Eastern Asia and Oceania, the greatest population among all regions of the world. In Northern Africa, only 18% of women work while the global average is 48%. The different percentages above according to Levin institute (2015) may be attributed to social cultural factors, such as the belief in many ethnically Arab nations that women do not work, or the tight political control over women in places such as Saudi Arabia.

Similarly, South American women participate in the labour force more as they age, which indicate that they contribute more income as their household grows following marriage. In contrast women in Middle East and North Africa drop out of labor force in great numbers when they marry and have children. Levin institute (2015) also observed that there is also a gender wage gap all over the world ranging from a 9.3% difference in Belgium to a 40% difference in South Korea. United States has an 18% gap on the average among industrialized nations. Rampell (2013) noted that the global wage gap can be explained by the types of work women chooses to go in for (or for many women the type of work available for them). Factors responsible for the existing wage gap according to Levin institute (2005) include;

Cultural barriers which effect include; impede increased economic participation, undermine the quality of their participation (women who work face differential treatment such as wage gaps and segregation into traditional industries). Apart from the above barrier, there is also differential treatment in women progression to higher

cadre in their different professions. The work of Nwakobi (2012) shows that women carrier progression in the banking industry in Nigeria is low when compared to their male counterparts. Women had historically borne the burden of non-monetized labour such as child care and domestic work. UNDP (2005) shows that in 55 countries with comparable data, the average female wage gap is $\frac{3}{4}$ of the male wage in non agricultural sector in developing countries, women still constitute less than $\frac{1}{7}$ of administrators and managers. The views above indicate that there is a gap between employment and wages of men and women in the world. This situation also consist a barrier to women in terms of improving their resources and hence pose challenges to women's access and ownership of property. However, some studies show that there is a link between women participation in the labour force and economic growth. Tsani, Paroussos, Fragiadakis, Charalambidis and Capros (2013) studied the relationship between female labour participation and economic growth in the Mediterranean countries using two step econometric approaches and employed general equilibrium modeling. The result obtained showed that higher female labour force participation contribute to economic growth which matches the global phenomenon. Klasen and Lammana (2009) argued that high female labour participation may give women more power in the family. This bargaining power according to the authors can in some way enhance economic growth, since women have higher saving behaviour and more efficient way of using credit.

2.9.2 Women participation in governance and politics

Many international conferences have agreed the target of reaching 30% representation of women in government. Studies showed that 30 countries reached the 30% target in 2012 (Nigerian not included in the 30 countries) as only South Africa, Angola,

Mozambique, Uganda and Burundi are the only countries in Africa that met the target (Inter-Parliamentary Union, 2012). The union also observed that the world representation of women in parliament was just over 20% in Sub Saharan Africa. Mccullough (2013) found out that in the world over there are female heads of states in 18 countries and 20 heads of state worldwide from 2010-2012. Women are underrepresented in decision making positions in almost all countries of the world. An increasing awareness of this fact has led various groups to engage in research and policy making activities in developed economies like North America, Western Europe while developing Asian countries have arranged legal accommodations, prepared incentive programs and designed many organization changes for women to become integrated into the economy at higher levels. The developing economy such as Nigeria should as a matter of urgency learn from the developed economies by increasing the number of women in both government and political position to enhance women position in national development.

In assessing women's participation in government and politics in Nigeria precisely it has been noted that women participated more actively in politics and government during the pre-colonial periods as Effah Ettoe (2002) observed that women in pre-colonial Nigeria were an integral part of the political set up of their communities. Most times they carried out separate functions which are fully complementary. Women played important role in different parts of Nigeria within this era especially in pre colonial Bomu where women played active part in the administration of the state. They held very important offices in the royal family, including offices of the Megira (the Queen Mother) and Gumsu (first wife of the Mai orking). In political history of ancient Zaria, the modern city of Zaria was founded in the 16th century by a woman called Bakwa Turuku who was succeeded by a daughter called Queen Amina who

was a great and powerful warrior. She built a wall around Zaria in order to protect the city from invasion and extended the territory and boundaries beyond Bauchi. She however turned Zaria into a very prominent commercial centre. In Yoruba land, the story was also different as Oba ruled with the assistance of a number of women referred to as the ladies of the palace. Hence the significant role played by Moremi of Ife, Emotan of Benin and Omu Okwel of Ossomari in the political history of Nigeria cannot be ignored.

During the colonial era, women in Nigeria were adversely affected politically as they were denied franchise and very few of them were offered political or administrative appointment. It was only in the 1950's that women like chief (Mrs.) Olufumilayo Ransomekuti were appointed in the house of chiefs. It was also in the 1950's that women in Southern Nigeria were given the franchise. The women's wings of political parties possessed very little functional relevance.

Effah Etoe (2002) also examined the post colonial activities of women and observed that during the period, the role of Nigerian women has not been reflected sufficiently in terms of appointment to policy making position. He argued that inspite of massive support given to various political parties by women organizations like market women movement etc, very few women benefited political patronage. However, in the recent past the number of women in various aspects of government and politics has been on the increase. There are women deputy governors, senate and house of representative members, state house of assembly members, ministers as well as commissioners etc. From the foregoing, it is evident that only very few Nigerian woman have participated and emerged in Nigerian political landscape and other developing countries of the world. Inspite of the previous efforts of women like Mrs

Fumillayo Ransome kuti and Margaret Ekpo since the 1950's, today the number of women in top jobs is still nearly insignificant and have adversely affected their active participation in nation building and development. However, some scholars examined the link between female political participation and economic growth. Rivas (2012) argues that women can be more careful and have higher standard of ethics implying that women are more willing to sacrifice private benefits for the public. According to Rivas (2012), women are more risk averse than men, making them less corrupt since corruption is regarded as a risky activity. From the above view, if women are allowed to participate actively in politics they are more likely to improve economic growth. Liangxue (2015) noted that women's participation in politics can facilitate democracy; not only because it improves their civil rights and helps them speak out their interests, but because powerful women also tend to make different policy choices from their male counterparts, which are beneficial to the local distribution of public resources and development. Pandey (2008) earlier studies also found out that women's participation in parliament has a positive impact on the character of Asian parliaments and make public policies create a more peaceful, productive and less corrupt societies.

2.9.3 Women and education

Few works are available in literature that specifically deals on women and education. Effah-Attie (2002) examined women education from the pre colonial, colonial and post colonial periods and observed that during the pre-colonial times education for women were functional. It enabled women to obtain a skill in order to earn a living. Effah-Attie (2002) observed that a woman without a trade or craft or who was totally dependent on her husband was not only rare but was regarded with contempt.

However, during the colonial period, the functional education system curricular emphasized religious instruction and clerical skills for boys and domestic sciences for girls. Technological and science based education was not encouraged. The curricular for girls during this period enabled them to become good house wives rather than income earners. During the post colonial Nigeria, the position of women in education has not improved much. Effah Attie (2002) substantiated the above view while citing population Reference Bureau (1981) where it was revealed that only 6 percent of adult Nigerian women were literate. By 1979 72.9 percent of urban girls and 80.08 percent of rural girls were not attending school. This situation had not improved much in recent time as Jensen (2010) observed that girls in the poorest 20% household have lowest chance of getting education. Jensen further noted that sub-Saharan Africa as well as two regions, Oceanic and Western Asia still faces many challenges reaching parity for primary education while sub-Saharan Africa alongside Western Asia and Southern Asia face the biggest challenges for secondary education. Effah-Attie (2002) noted that university admission figure reflect a low percentage of female entries during the immediate post colonial era. Supporting the view of Effah -Attie above Jensen (2010) argues that although there have been improvements in educating girls at the tertiary levels in the developing world, the number have not reached parity in most regions. Gender statistics (2010) shows that out of 774 million illiterate adults worldwide, 64% are women, a statistics virtually unchanged from the early 1990's. Effah-Attie (2002) observed that successive post-colonial government in Nigeria have tried to encourage female education by expanding educational facilities for girls but in spite of these efforts, the impact on women is still low. Effah-Attie identified some militating factors to include; the perception that women needed to be educated only to be good house wives, high

dropout rate among women, economic recession since the mid 1980s as the cost of education increased during the period and most parents especially in the rural area preferred withdrawing girls from schools instead of boys.

However, in recent times government at state levels have one time or the other passed edicts granting free education to certain levels and currently in Enugu state the government granted free education for both boys and girls up to junior secondary school. Also in some states women who are with children are allowed to attend schools before a stipulated age. Early marriages were also discouraged by many state and women organizations. Women education unit was also established at the Federal Ministry of Education to encourage women education while all State Ministry of Education subsequently did the same, it has been identified that there are many advantage of women education which include;

- Educated women tend to be healthier, have fewer children and secure health care and education for their own children which are all benefit that translate to the community and nation at large.
- Education of women is crucial because inequality in education is directly correlated to poverty and its elimination would help alleviate poverty in general (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization- UNESCO 2002).
- Increased skill levels acquired through education allow women to participate more in the economy.

However, increased awareness of the benefits of educating women has led to the increase in the number of women and girls in primary, secondary and tertiary levels especially in the South-Eastern states of Nigeria. It is worthy to note that education is

a key resource as it improves one's ability to earn income which helps to improve one's ability to save and invest. Again in measuring the link between women's education and economic growth, the most popular argument is that gender equality would increase economic growth meaning that girls' education can produce the highest possible return on investment in the developing world so as to reduce poverty. Liangxue (2015) as well as Dollar and Gatti (1990) concurred with the above view by stating that hindering girls' education means passing up high- return investments in human capital with significant effect on growth. Many scholars that have studied the relation between female education and economic growth using evidence from different countries and regions according to different situations agreed that economic growth benefit from the development of female education. Self and Grabowski (2008) examined female education's effect on development of Japan by dividing Japan's history into three parts; the pre war years, the five decades following the and the after war rapid rise years. Using the vector- auto- regression analysis, the authors showed that economic growth benefits from female secondary and tertiary education in modern times. Fatima (2013) applied the generalized method of moment in Pakistan and Sri Lanka in order to reveal that gender equality in education is beneficial to economic growth in those two countries. Hassan and Cooray (2013) collaborating the above views, utilized extreme bounds analysis method choosing a panel of Asian countries and concluded that Asia can improve their economies by promoting female education. Liangxue (2015) argued that region which narrows gender gap in education successfully has achieved the most in economic/ social aspects including Eastern Asia, South –Eastern Asia and Latin America while in contrast regions such as Southern Asia, Middle East and Sub Saharan Africa where economic growth is low are suffering a lagged investment in girl's education. The study of Dauda (2012)

confirmed the above argument while focusing on Nigeria to find out whether female education has appositive impact on economic performance and found out that female education does not stimulate growth;this work believes that effective participation of women in every sector of the economy including the real estate sector will stimulate economic growth.

Few literature that exist on the effect of women's lack of property ownership on women's contribution to nation building concentrates on the effect of inadequate access to land on women's livelihood. IFAD (1998) observed that women's limited land access affects the types of crops they can grow as they do not plant tree crops on their land since they could easily lose their lands and all the profits accruing thereof. IFAD (1998) also pointed to the fact that inadequate access to land by women restricts women's access to credit from formal sources as they do not have title to land and hence, cannot use it as collateral. FAO (2005) supporting the above view noted that 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. Again supporting the view of IFAD(1998) Kuusaana, Kidido and Halidu-Adam (2013) found out that financial institutions are not inclined to advancing loan to the poor especially womendue to high transaction costassociated with micro finance. IFAD (2005) also discovered that women's insecurity and inaccessibility to land discourages land conservation since eco- feminists argue that women are better environmental managersthan men. Lack of access to land by women places them in aprecairous position in terms of their survival and livelihoods, and their effective role and contribution to national development Kameri- Mbote (2005). The above author stresses that with agriculture and other land based natural resources being the main

source of livelihood, the consequences for women not owning, controlling or accessing land are grave. Kuusaana, Kidido and Halidu-Adam (2013) studies revealed that land access and ownership in favour of males in Wa Municipality Ghana has implications for women empowerment, gender equity in land resource ownership and use. The authors argued that women's contribution especially in food production and family income generation are greatly impaired by disparity in land ownership skewed in favour of men. This is because the productivity of women as regards food supply and generation of income households in the peri-urban and rural areas revolves largely around land. Kussana et al (2013) studies also showed that because women's inaccessibility to land access and ownership, the young and unmarried women migrate southwards to Kumasi and Accra in search of non-existent jobs to cater for their need hence, most of them end up in vices like teenage pregnancy, prostitution and drug peddling.

2.10 Benefits of Real Estate Ownership by Women

Few works are available on benefits real estate ownership by women generally. Works in this regard mostly dwell on the benefits of home ownership by women. Rohe, Zandt and Mccarty (2000) in recognition of benefits of home ownership identified the following benefits; the most valuable asset, an important saving vehicle, a symbol of success and well being and a symbol of social status, financial status and economic stability. Rohe, Zandt and Mccarty (2000) also added that homes provide women with a means to improve their access to income and opportunities. Homes are important to women because most of their everyday roles like productive, reproductive and management activities take place at both homes and community and strongly rooted on housing and settlement (Adegoke and Adegoke 2015). In support

of the above view, Gbadegesin (2012) earlier asserted that the position of women in the society is crucial for proper housing, children rearing and family supportive roles. Likewise, UNDP(2002) observed that land and homes are critical resources for a woman, particularly when the house breaks down in the event of male migration, war, abandonment, divorce, polygamous relationship, illness (e.g. HIV/AIDS) or death. Green and White(1994) established that children of home ownership families were less likely to dropout in school. They also found that a lower average pregnancy rate among adolescent was an advantage of home owning families. Also NAR (2003) asserted that there is lower adolescent pregnancy rate for home owning children. He further stressed the fact that adolescents in home owning families had lower arrest rates. In another earlier studies ICRW (2005) noted that for international development efforts to succeed, be it focused on reducing poverty broadly or empowering women purposely, women need effective land and housing rights as well as equal access to credit, technical information and other inputs. Economic and Social Development Department-ESDD (2017) pointed to the fact that security of tenure and access to land is a key to enabling individuals and households to participate effectively in economic development. The works above reveals that women access to and ownership of property has a lot of benefits both to women and the society at large.

2.11 Summary of Reviewed Literature

Real estate creates wealth and enhances one's ability to live above poverty level. Ownership of real estate has been identified to have several advantages over other forms of ownership. Previous researches have shown that it enhances women livelihood options and overall sense of empowerment.

The benefits and importance of real estate facilities has made the demand to outweigh the supply because it takes time and huge capital outlay to provide. The literature reviewed showed that opportunities abound in this sector hence Lamudi (2014) noted that the size and scale of real estate market makes it attractive and lucrative sector for many investors. However, the recent recognition of the need to enhance women participation in all aspects of economic development makes it imperative that women's participation in this sector be enhanced. It has also been observed that their participation in this sector is low compared to their male counterparts. It was discovered that there is sparse literature available in the area of women and real estate ownership. Most literature in this aspect focuses more on housing, home ownership and land rights. Again few available literatures on challenges faced by women in real estate ownership dwell more on developed economies and those available in the developing countries center on land rights hence, none has been done in South East Nigeria. It was also discovered that there is an analytical gap in this area as most works are either qualitative or quantitative but this work employed both quantitative and qualitative techniques in carrying out data analysis. Moreso there is no work that categorized the factors that constrain real estate ownership by women into major and sub factors. Also none of the literature reviewed examined the effect of the factors constraining real estate ownership by women on women's contribution to the Nigerian economy/ nation building.

2.12 Gaps in Literature

The reviewed literature has some gaps. Most of the works done in the area of this research were done by researchers in other countries of the world, few ones done in Nigeria and South – East in particular focused on women and land ownership. The literature reviewed also concentrated on the size of land owned by women especially

agricultural land. Available literature also exposed the contributions of women in nation building. None of the literature addressed the following;

- a. Determination of the size/magnitude of real estate (all aspects of real estate) owned by women in South-East, Nigeria.
- b. Evaluation of the constraints to real estate ownership by women in South-East, Nigeria.
- c. Comparison of the effect to which the constraints factors affect women property ownership in the individual states of the study area.
- d. Ascertainig the extent to which the identified factors affect women contribution to national economy. However there is dearth of literature on women and real estate ownership and its effect on economic development of the nation.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the procedure adopted in collecting data for this study. The chapter discussed the procedures adopted for the collection of data under the following sub headings, research design, population of study, sample size and sampling technique, sources of data, instrument of data collection, reliability and validity of instrument of data collection and method of data presentation and analysis.

3.1 Research Design

The field survey design is considered most appropriate for this study. Udoh (2004) explains that field survey relies mainly on the techniques of sampling a large number of subjects by interviewing and / or use of questionnaire. Due to the large population involved in this study, samples were selected and data generated from the samples used to generalize on the entire population. Again the choice of this design is based on the opinion of Bennette (1983) that if we wish to know what people are thinking about certain things, we must ask them. It is based on the above premise that the field survey approach was adopted and also considering the fact that when constructed and tested appropriately, it can be used to project cause and effect relationships.

The following objectives were pursued in this study:

To determine the magnitude of real estate ownership by women compared to men in the South –East Nigeria.

To find out the factors that constrains real estate ownership by women in the study area.

To determine the level at which the identified constraint factors affect real estate ownership by women in the individual states

To ascertain the effect(s) of the identified constraint factors on women's contribution to the Nigerian economy and nation building.

In other to achieve the above objectives, quantitative and qualitative research techniques were adopted to arrive at measures used in analyzing the data. Objective 1 was achieved using both quantitative and qualitative methods. To determine the magnitude of real estate ownership compared to men in the study area, questionnaires were administered to both men and women in the study area to get their opinion as regard whether they own property and the type/ class of property they own. In addition to response from the questionnaire, data on registered titles in the name of women were collected from the Deeds Registry Department of the aforementioned 3 states Ministry of Housing and Urban Development. Also data was collected from the three states Housing Corporations on the number of allocations made in the name of women in their different states. Objectives 2, 3 and 4 were also achieved using quantitative and qualitative method. The factors that constrain real estate ownership by women were generated based on literature and respondents' views. The level at which the factors affect real estate ownership by women were generated from the respondents ranking/rating of how important each factor contribute in constraining real estate ownership by women in their states. The effect of the constrain factors on women contribution to the Nigeria economy and nation building were generated from respondents view and literature.

These views were quantified and run in statistical package for social sciences SPSS version 23.

3.2 Population of Study

The population of study according to Uzoagulu (2011) is the target of the study. The population of this study comprises all men and women in urban and rural areas of Anambra, Enugu and Imo states of the South, East Nigeria. It involves all men and women in the public as well as private sectors in the rural and urban areas of the states mentioned above. The three states were chosen using criteria such as geographical spread, level of urbanization (Enugu and Imo are the mother of other states in the South-East) and population (Anambra, Enugu and Imo states have greatest number of population in the South-East, (National Population Commission NPC, 2006). The capital cities of the states used as study areas i.e Awka, Enugu urban, and Owerri municipal resented the urban areas. The rural communities selected are: Obollo- Afor, Eke and Akpugo-Nkanu in Enugu State. Ekwulobia.Ogbunike and Ogidi in Anambra State and Amaraku,Nkwerre and Akabo in Imo State.The same criteria above werealso adopted in selecting the rural communities. The total number of men and women in the three states is as stated in table 3.1:

Table 3.1: Estimated Total Population of the Study

| State | Number of Women | Number of Men | Total |
|--------------|-----------------|---------------|------------|
| Anambra | 2,059,844 | 2,117,984 | 4,177,828 |
| Enugu | 1,671,795 | 1,596,042 | 3,267,837 |
| Imo | 1,951,092 | 1,976,471 | 3,927,563 |
| Grand Total: | 5,682,731 | 5,689,497 | 11,372,228 |

Source: NPC, 2006

However, the population is projected to 2017 using the annual growth rate of 3.5% as given by NPC (2006). Table 3.2 shows the projected population.

Table 3.2 Projected Population of Study

| State | No. of women | No. of Men | Projection index | Projected population of women | Projected population of men | Grand Total |
|--------------|---------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------|
| Anambra | 2,059,844 | 2,117,984 | 1.4593396 | 3006012 | 3090858 | 6096870 |
| Enugu | 1,671,795 | 1,596,042 | 1.4593396 | 2439717 | 2329167 | 4768884 |
| Imo | 1,951,092 | 1,976,471 | 1.4593396 | 2847306 | 2884342 | 5731648 |
| Total | 5,682,731 | 5,690,497 | | 8293034 | 8304368 | 16597402 |

3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

In determining the sample size for men and women in various states used for the study, the table for determining sample size developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) was adopted.

The table is presented as appendix 1 for easy reference. Therefore the sample size for men and women residing in both urban and rural areas of each of the states used in the study are 2,304. That is, sample size for men and women in Anambra 768 (384 each for both men and women). Sample size for Enugu 768 and sample size for Imo state 768. Table 3.3 shows the sample size and their distribution.

Table 3.3: Distribution of Sample Size for Men and Women

| State | Sample Size | | Total |
|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | Men | Women | |
| Anambra | 384 | 384 | 768 |
| Enugu | 384 | 384 | 768 |
| Imo | 384 | 384 | 768 |
| Total | 1,152 | 1,152 | 2,304 |

Source: Generated from Table for determining Sample Size from Krejcie and Morgan (1970)

The study adopted the cluster random sampling techniques in selecting the samples.

3.4 Sources of Data

Two major sources of data was used in the study namely: primary and secondary sources of data

Primary sources: These are data which contain direct accounts of the study and were generated through administration of questionnaires, direct observation, oral interview and discussions as well documents of some government agencies

Secondary sources: These are datagenerated through other peoples account such as textbooks, encyclopedia, magazines, journals, internet, official publications, periodicals, official gazettes etc.

3.5 Instrument of Data Collection

The major instrumentsused for data collection for the study are questionnairesand documents.

3.5.1 Questionnaire

Questionnaires were designed for women and men in both urban and rural areas of the study areas. The questionnaires were designed for women and men in public and private sector in the urban and rural areas of the study containing 3 sections. Section A contains questions on the personal data of the respondents, section B contains questions factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in the study areas while section C contains questions on how the identified factors affect the level of real estate ownership in the individual states used for the study. Section D contains questions on the effect of constraint factors that affect real estate ownership by women on women's contribution to nation building / national economy. Section E consists of questions on ways of eliminating the identified factors and the prospects of women in real estate ownership in the study areas.

The questionnaires were administered personally by the researcher to the respondents with the help of research assistants while a period of 3 (three) days were given to the respondents to complete and return the questionnaires. The questionnaires were also collected personally by the researcher with the help of research assistants.

3.5.2 Documents

Data for the study were collected through the document of the Deeds Registry of the States Ministry of Lands And Urban Development as well as Housing Development Corporations of the three (3) states under focus. These documents were consulted to determine the number of registered title in the name of women in these states as well as properties registered and allocated to women by the various state housing corporations.

3.6 Validity and Reliability of Instrument

3.6.1 Validity of instrument

In order to determine the extent to which the instrument used for data collection (questionnaire) measures what it is purported to measure, the researcher first of all sent the questionnaire to the supervisors, some practicing Estate Surveyors and valuers as well as senior lecturers in the Department of Estate Management for face and content validity.

3.6.2 Reliability of instrument

Reliability of a test instrument is the consistency of the test in measuring what it purports to measure (Uzoagulu, 2011). A pilot survey using 30 respondents was conducted while a test-retest method was adopted in measuring the internal consistency of the instrument. The Cronbach's Alpha formula was used to obtain the reliability coefficient. The formula is shown below.

$$a = \frac{K (\text{Cov/var})}{1 + (k-1) (\text{cov/var})}$$

Where K = Number of items on the survey

Cov = Average inter-item covariance

Var = Average item variance

I = A constant

a = Cronbach's Alpha coefficient

3.7 Method of Data Presentation and Analysis

Data collected for the study were presented in tables and pie charts. The results were analyzed using descriptive statistical techniques which include frequencies, percentages, mean and Relative Importance Index (RII) Hypotheses 1, 3 and 4 were tested using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) while hypothesis 2 was tested using Z-test. Z-test was used to test hypothesis 2 because the study is set to examine the factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in the South –East which is equivalent to testing the difference in the means of the variables. Factor analysis (Principle Component Analysis) was also used to strengthen the results of objective 2. ANOVA was used to test hypotheses 1, 3 and 4 because the study is set to compare ownership of real estate by men and women, compare the level at which the constraint factors affect ownership of real estate by women in the individual states of the South- East and also determine the constraint factors that have significant effect on women's contribution to the Nigerian economy/ nation building. The above tools were considered suitable for this work because they satisfied the assumptions of Z-test and ANOVA which includes test of homogeneity of variance and test of normality (see appendix 4E and 4F).

The response options in the instrument were weighted as shown below;

Very significant - 5

Significant - 4

Undecided - 3

Insignificant - 2

Very insignificant - 1

| | |
|-------------------|-----|
| Strongly agree | - 5 |
| Agree | - 4 |
| Undecided | - 3 |
| Disagree | - 2 |
| Strongly disagree | - 1 |

The cut – off point for the mean is determined by adding the weights and dividing by the number of weights. That is $\frac{5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1}{5} = \frac{15}{5} = 3$

$$\frac{5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1}{5} = \frac{15}{5} = 3$$

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS and DISCUSSION

In this chapter, data generated through questionnaire distribution, focus group discussions as well as documents of relevant government agencies/parastatals were presented and analysed.

4.1 Base Data

This sub-section presents information on retrieval of administered questionnaire as well as socio-economic characteristics of respondents. Tables 4.1 and 4.2 show the response rate of the administered questionnaires.

Table 4.1: Retrieval of Administered Questionnaire

| State Category | Number of Questionnaire Distributed | Total Number Returned | Percentage Number Returned |
|----------------|---|--------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Anambra | 768 | 705 | 30.60% |
| Enugu | 768 | 720 | 31.25% |
| Imo | 768 | 695 | 30.16% |
| Total | 2304 | 2120 | 92.01% |

Table 4.1, shows that out of a total number of Two thousand, three hundred and four (2304) questionnaires distributed that is Seven hundred and sixty eight questionnaires each distributed in Anambra, Enugu and Imo States, the number correctly filled and returned shows as follows. A total number of Seven hundred and five (705) representing 30.60 % of the distributed questionnaires were returned from Anambra.

In Enugu state, a total of seven hundred and twenty (720) were returned representing 31.25% of the distributed questionnaires. Whereas, Six hundred and ninety five (695) were retrieved from respondents in Imo State representing 30.16 % of the distributed questionnaires.

The analysis shows that a total of Two thousand, one hundred and twenty questionnaires were returned representing 92.01 % of the entire distributed questionnaires. The above response rate is adjudged high enough to be used for data analysis.

Table 4.2: Retrieval of Distributed Questionnaires for Men and Women in the Study Areas

| State | Total Distributed Questionnaires | | Total Returned Questionnaires | % Returned Questionnaires | Total Returned Questionnaires | % Returned Questionnaires |
|---------|----------------------------------|-------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|
| | Men | Women | Men | Men | Women | Women |
| Anambra | 384 | 384 | 347 | 30.12 | 358 | 31.08 |
| Enugu | 384 | 384 | 355 | 30.99 | 363 | 31.51 |
| Imo | 384 | 384 | 350 | 30.3 | 347 | 30.12 |
| Total | 1152 | 1152 | 1052 | 1068 | 9141 | 92.71 |

Table 4.2 above shows the distributed questionnaires and response rate among men and women in the study areas. The total distributed questionnaires for men in the three states are One thousand, one hundred and fifty two (1152) that is three hundred and eighty four (384) for each of the states used for the study. The total number of distributed questionnaires is One thousand, one hundred and fifty two (1152) while the total number retrieved is One thousand and fifty four (1054), that is three hundred

and forty seven (347), three hundred and fifty seven (357), and three hundred and fifty (350) respectively for Anambra, Enugu and Imo states. This shows a response rate of 91.41 % of the total distributed questionnaires for men. Likewise, a total of One thousand, one hundred and fifty two (1152) questionnaires were also distributed to the women in the study areas, that is three hundred and eighty four (384) each to Anambra, Enugu and Imo states. The number correctly filled and returned are One thousand and sixty eight (1068) indicating returns of three hundred and fifty eight (358), three hundred and sixty three (363) and three hundred and forty seven (347) respectively for the three states. This also shows a response rate of 92.71%. The above analysis shows a high response rate from both men and women which can be relied upon in carrying out data analysis.

4.1.2 Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents

This sub-section presents and analyzes data on socio-economic characteristics of respondents such as age and educational background. Table 4.3 shows the age of the respondents.

Table 4.3: Age of Respondents

| Response Option | Number of Response | % Number of Response |
|--------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| Less than 20 years | 2 | 0.09 |
| 21 – 39 | 57 | 2.69 |
| 40 – 59 | 1,070 | 50.47 |
| 60 – 79 | 976 | 46.04 |
| Above 80 years | 15 | 0.71 |
| Total | 2,120 | 100 |

Table 4.3, show that the number of respondents below the age of 20 are 2, representing 0.09 % of the respondents. Those between ages 21 – 39 were 57 representing 2.69 %ercent of the respondents, the respondents between the ages 40 – 59 were 1070 representing 50.47 %, those between ages 60 – 79 were 976 representing 46.04 % while those above 80 were 15 representing 0.71% of the respondents. The above analysis shows that the majority of the respondents are between ages 21 – 79. This also shows that the majority of the respondents are aged enough to understand the problem of study and therefore experienced to give adequate answers to the questions. Table 4.4 shows the educational status of the respondents.

Table 4.4: Educational Status of Respondents

| Educational Qualification | Number of Respondents | % Number of Response |
|---|-----------------------|----------------------|
| First School Leaving Certificate (FSLC) | 61 | 2.88 |
| Senior School Certificate (SSC)/General Certificate of Education (GCE) | 430 | 20.28 |
| National Diploma (ND) | 322 | 15.19 |
| National Certificate of Education (NCE)/ Higher National Diploma (HND) | 714 | 33.68 |
| Bachelor of Science (B.Sc)/ Bachelor of Arts (BA)/ Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) | 561 | 26.46 |
| Master of Science (M.Sc)/Master of Arts (MA)/PhD | 32 | 1.51 |
| Total | 2120 | 100 |

Table 4.4 shows the educational status of the sample respondents. While the educational status of 61 (2.88%), 430 (20.28%) and 322 (15.19%) of them belongs to First School Leaving Certificate (FLSC), SSC/GCE and National Diplomat (ND) respectively, the rest of them are holders of NCE/HND, BA/B.Sc/B.Ed and MA/M.Sc/PhD respectively.

Therefore, it could be deducted from the data that the majority (about 97.12%) of the total respondents have an educational status of at least Senior School Certificate (SSC) and more. It could be further said that the respondents are literate enough to under and express ideas on the factors that hinder women from real estate ownership and related issues in the study area.

4.2 Type and Magnitude of Real Estate Ownership by Women in the Study Area

This section provides data on the type and quantum of real estate owned by women in the study area. The quantum of real estate ownership of women is measured against that of men for a better comparison. Table 4.5 shows the various categories of properties owned by the respondents.

Table 4.5: Type of Property Owned by the Respondents

| Type of Property | Number of Response | | | % of Response | |
|------------------|--------------------|-------|----------------|---------------|-------|
| | Men | Women | Total Response | Men | Women |
| Agricultural | 200 | 57 | 257 | 9.43 | 2.69 |
| Open/Bare Land | 158 | 18 | 176 | 7.45 | 0.85 |
| Residential | 520 | 82 | 602 | 24.52 | 3.87 |
| Commercial | 40 | 15 | 55 | 1.89 | 0.71 |
| Recreational | 5 | - | 5 | 0.24 | 0 |
| Industrial | - | - | - | - | - |
| None | 129 | 896 | 1025 | 6.08 | 42.26 |
| Total | 1052 | 1068 | 2120 | 49.39 | 50.38 |

Table 4.5 shows the different categories of real properties that are owned by both men and women in the study areas. The table above shows that majority of the women respond that they did not own any property while about 129 of men responded that they did own any property. The table also shows that out of the responses on the ownership of agricultural properties 77.82% of men responded in the affirmative while 22.18% of women also responded in the affirmative. Out of the number of responses on the ownership of bare land 89.77% of them were men while 10.23% of women owned bare land.

Also on the ownership of residential properties 86.38% of responses were men while 13.62% responses were women. On the ownership of commercial properties 72.73% of responses were men while 27.27% of responses were women. On the responses of ownership of recreational properties 100% of the responses were men while none of the response was women.

On the responses of ownership of industrial properties none of the respondents owned industrial properties. However, about 12.59% of responses on those that does not own any property at all were men while 86.83% of the responses were women. The above analysis implies that most of the categories of properties owned by the respondents were owned by men while the women own less percentage of the real properties considered. The table also shows that amongst the categories of properties examined, women only own agricultural, open/bare land, residential and commercial properties only, even though that the number owned are far less than that of men. Also the percentage number of women that does not own property (86.83%) are far higher than men (12.59%).

Table 4.6 outlines the response on the type of residential property owned by the respondents.

Table 4.6: Response on Type of Residential Property Owned

| Response Option | Number of Respondents | | Total | Percentage Total | |
|------------------------|-----------------------|-------|-------|------------------|-------|
| | Men | Women | | Men | Women |
| Tenement Rooms | 15 | 7 | 22 | 2.49 | 1.16 |
| Semi-detached Bungalow | 5 | - | 5 | 0.83 | - |
| Detached Bungalow | 220 | 32 | 252 | 36.54 | 5.32 |
| Duplex | 131 | 26 | 157 | 2.76 | 4.32 |
| Block of Flats | 149 | 17 | 166 | 24.75 | 2.82 |
| Total | 520 | 82 | 602 | 67.37 | 13.62 |

Table 4.6 shows that out of the total residential properties owned by the respondents, men own 2.49% of tenement rooms while women 1.16%. Out of the responses on ownership of semi-detached bungalow, only 0.83% of men own such category while none was owned by women. Also 36.54% of men owned detached bungalow while 5.32% of women owned detached bungalow. Table also reveals that 21.76% and 4.32% of men and women own duplexes respectively. Men own 24.75% of block of flats while women own 2.82%. In all men own about 67.37% of different categories of residential properties considered in this work while women own about 13.62% of the residential properties considered. This implies that men own more residential properties in the study areas than women and the major types of residential properties owned by women include detached bungalows (5.32%), duplex (4.32%) and block of flats (2.82%). The table 4.7 shows the response of respondents on the type of commercial properties owned.

Table 4.7: Response on the Type of Commercial Property Owned

| Response Option | Number of Respondents | | Total | Percentage Total | |
|-----------------|-----------------------|-------|-------|------------------|-------|
| | Men | Women | | Men | Women |
| Retail Shops | 12 | 10 | 22 | 21.87 | 18.18 |
| Ware houses | 9 | 1 | 10 | 20.36 | 1.82 |
| Offices | 11 | 4 | 15 | 20 | 7.27 |
| Shopping Malls | - | - | - | - | - |
| Stores | 8 | - | 8 | 14.55 | - |
| Total | 40 | 15 | 55 | 73.02 | 27.20 |

Table 4.7 shows that out of the responses on the ownership of different categories of commercial properties, 21.87% of men owned retail shops while 18.18% of women also owned retail shops. Out of the responses on ownership of warehouses, 16.36% responses were men while 1.82 responses were women. Also 20% responses on the ownership of offices were men while 7.27% responses were women. Also only 14.55% responses on the ownership stores were men while there were no responses by women. There were responses from both men and women on the ownership of shopping malls.

The implication of the above analysis is that men own more commercial properties (73.02%) than women (27.27%) in the study areas. The table also shows that the major categories of commercial properties owned by women in the study areas are retail shops (18.18) and offices (7.27%)

Table 4.8 shows the responses on the category of recreational property owned by the respondents

Table 4.8: Response on the Type of Recreational Property Owned

| Type of Recreational Property | Number of Responses | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|-------|
| | Men | Women |
| Relaxation Centre | 3 | 0 |
| Hotels/Guest House | 2 | 0 |
| Club Houses | 0 | 0 |
| Amusement Parks | 0 | 0 |
| Game Reserves | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 5 | 0 |

Table 4.8 shows that only few respondents own recreational properties and are only men. It also shows that out of the different categories of recreational properties, it is only hotels/guest houses and relaxation centres are the types owned by the men. This implies that out of the female respondents, none of them own recreational property.

Table 4.9 shows the response of respondents on the type of agricultural property owned.

Table 4.9: Response on the Type of Agricultural Property Owned

| Response Option | Number of Response | |
|--------------------------|--------------------|-------|
| | Men | Women |
| Farm land (Annual Crops) | 105 | 42 |
| Farm land (Perennials) | 55 | 7 |
| Animal Husbandry | 30 | 5 |
| Aqua culture | - | - |
| Farm stead/Ranch | 10 | - |
| Total | 200 | 57 |

Table 4.9 shows responses of both men and women on the ownership of agricultural properties. The table 4.9 show that about 77.82% of men own different categories of agricultural properties while about 22.17% of women also own different categories of agricultural properties. About 40.86% of men own farm land (annual crops) while 16.34% of women also own annual crops farm land. On the ownership of farm land (Perennial crops) about 21.40% of the responses were men while 2.72% were women. About 11.67% responses on the ownership of animal husbandry agricultural properties were men while 3.11% were women.

Table 4.9 shows that there were no responses from both men and women on the ownership of aqua cultural properties while about 3.88% of men own farmstead/ranch properties. No response on the ownership of aqua cultural properties came from women. The analysis indicates that men own more agricultural properties (77.82%) than women (22.17%). The analysis also shows that the major types of agricultural properties owned by women are farm land [annual crops 16.34%] and animal husbandry (3.11%). Figures 4.1 - 4.3 shows response on means of acquiring the properties owned.

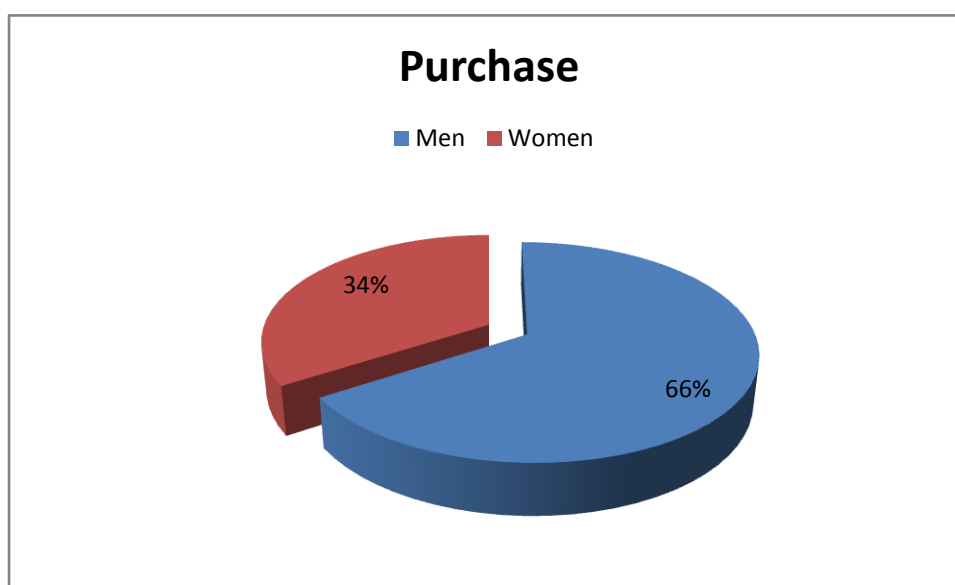


Fig 4.1: Response on Means of Acquiring Property Owned.

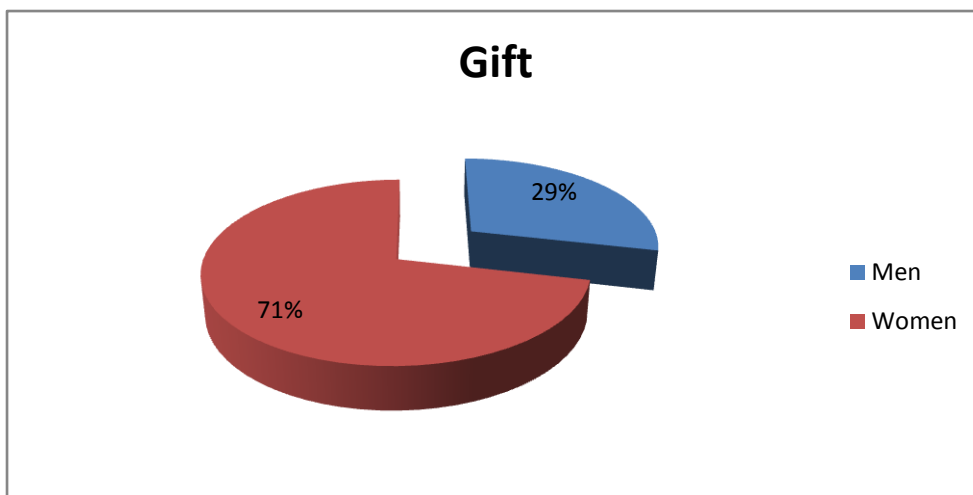


Fig 4.2: Response on the Means of Acquiring the Property Owned

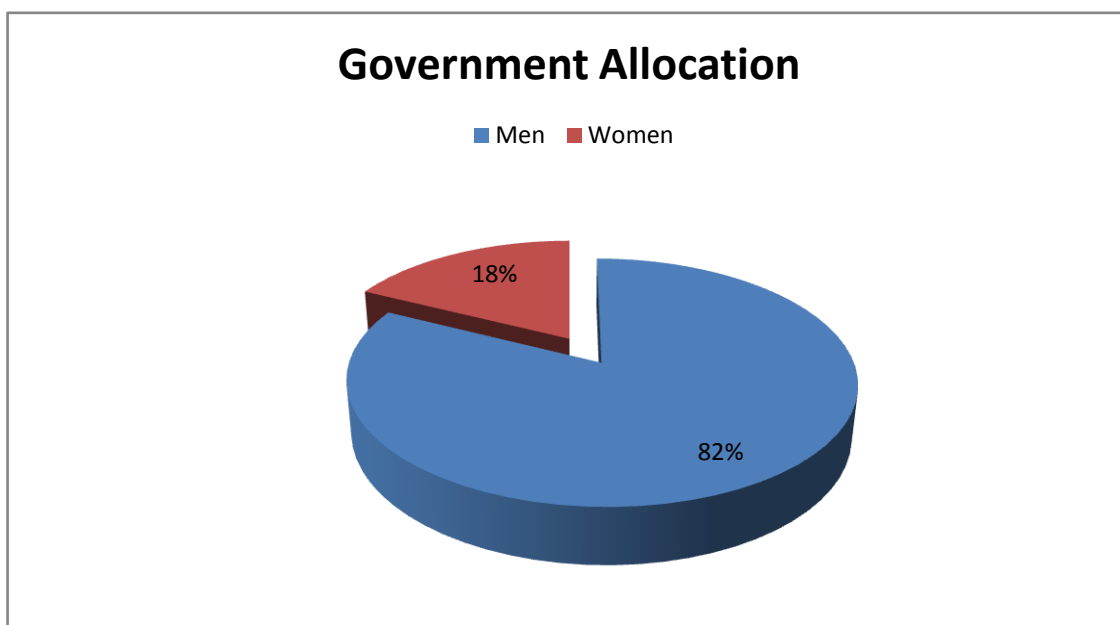


Fig 4.3: Response on Means of Acquiring Property Owned

Figures 4.1 - 4.3 shows the means of acquiring the type of properties owned by both men and women. It shows that 0.18% of men acquired their properties through gift while 0.46% of women acquired theirs through gift. About 53.79% of men acquired theirs through inheritance. Also in terms of acquisition through purchase, about 29.04% of men acquired their properties through purchase while about 16.01 of women acquired theirs through purchase.

In terms of acquisition through government allocation, 1.28% of men and 0.27% of women acquired theirs through government allocation. The implication of the above analysis is that majority of the women who own property at all, acquired them through purchase while majority of the men acquired theirs through inheritance and purchase. The above analysis agrees with the findings of FAO (2011) who argues that patriarchal system where inheritance rights are through patriarchal lineage hinders women right to land ownership through inheritance. Table 4.10-4.12 shows the distribution of registered titles in Enugu, Imo and Anambra States from 2002-2018 respectively.

Table 4.10: Distribution of Registered Titles in Enugu State from 2002 - 2018

| Period | Total Number of Registered Instruments | Number of instruments registered in the name of Men and others | Number of Instruments in the Name of Women | % for Men and others | % for Women |
|--------------|--|---|--|-------------------------|----------------|
| 2002 | 1729 | 1678 | 51 | 97.05 | 2.95 |
| 2003 | 1662 | 1633 | 29 | 98.26 | 1.74 |
| 2004 | 718 | 700 | 18 | 97.49 | 2.51 |
| 2005 | 2136 | 2096 | 40 | 98.13 | 1.87 |
| 2006 | 2132 | 2112 | 20 | 99.06 | 0.94 |
| 2007 | 1871 | 1855 | 16 | 99.14 | 0.86 |
| 2008 | 1424 | 1416 | 8 | 99.44 | 0.56 |
| 2009 | 990 | 956 | 34 | 96.57 | 3.43 |
| 2010 | 1074 | 1036 | 38 | 96.46 | 3.54 |
| 2011 | 874 | 830 | 44 | 94.97 | 5.03 |
| 2012 | 1172 | 1106 | 66 | 94.37 | 5.63 |
| 2013 | 827 | 790 | 37 | 95.53 | 4.47 |
| 2014 | 915 | 883 | 32 | 96.50 | 3.50 |
| 2015 | 891 | 855 | 36 | 95.96 | 4.04 |
| 2016 | 806 | 777 | 29 | 96.40 | 3.60 |
| 2017 | 2021 | 1937 | 48 | 97.24 | 2.61 |
| 2018 | 2357 | 2288 | 69 | 97.07 | 2.93 |
| Total | 23,599 | 22,948 | 615 | 97.24 | 2.61 |

Source: Deeds Registry, Enugu State Ministry of Land and Urban Development

Table 4.10 indicates that out of the registered titles in Enugu State from 2002 – 2018, 97.24% of them were registered in the name of men and others like companies and

other organizations, while 2.61% of the registered titles were in the name of women.

This shows a wide gap between ownership rights by men and women in Enugu State.

Table 4.11: Distribution of Registered Titles in Imo State from 2002 - 2018

| Period | Total Number of Registered Instruments | Number of registered instruments in the name of men and others | Number of Instruments in the Name of Women | % for Men and others | % for Women |
|--------------|--|--|--|----------------------|-------------|
| 2002 | 1937 | 1899 | 38 | 98.04 | 1.96 |
| 2003 | 2055 | 2021 | 34 | 98.35 | 1.65 |
| 2004 | 1870 | 1833 | 37 | 98.02 | 1.98 |
| 2005 | 3217 | 3158 | 59 | 98.17 | 1.83 |
| 2006 | 3520 | 3452 | 68 | 98.07 | 1.93 |
| 2007 | 3052 | 3010 | 42 | 98.62 | 1.38 |
| 2008 | 2995 | 2963 | 32 | 98.93 | 1.07 |
| 2009 | 1750 | 1712 | 38 | 97.83 | 2.17 |
| 2010 | 2110 | 2068 | 42 | 98.01 | 1.99 |
| 2011 | 1950 | 1929 | 21 | 98.92 | 1.08 |
| 2012 | 1457 | 1417 | 40 | 97.25 | 2.75 |
| 2013 | 2551 | 2498 | 53 | 97.92 | 2.08 |
| 2014 | 2755 | 2703 | 52 | 98.11 | 1.89 |
| 2015 | 3050 | 2982 | 68 | 97.77 | 2.23 |
| 2016 | 3320 | 3248 | 72 | 97.83 | 2.17 |
| 2017 | 3455 | 3378 | 77 | 97.77 | 2.22 |
| 2018 | 3523 | 3448 | 75 | 97.87 | 2.13 |
| Total | 44,567 | 43,719 | 848 | 98.10 | 1.90 |

Source: Deeds Registry, Imo State Ministry of Lands and Urban Deevlopment

Table 4.11 shows that out of the total registered titles in Imo State from 2002 -2018 about 98.10% were registered in the name of men and others like companies and some organizations, while 1.90% was registered in the name of women. The

implication of the above analysis is that women own less registered titles than men in Imo State.

Table 4.12: Distribution of Registered Titles in Anambra State from 2002 – 2018

| Period | Total Number of Registered Instruments | Number of instruments in the name of Men and others | Number of Instruments in the Name of Women | % for Men and others | % to Women |
|--------------|--|---|--|----------------------|-------------|
| 2002 | 719 | 690 | 29 | 95.97 | 4.03 |
| 2003 | 821 | 802 | 19 | 97.69 | 2.31 |
| 2004 | 872 | 849 | 23 | 97.36 | 2.64 |
| 2005 | 721 | 688 | 33 | 95.42 | 4.58 |
| 2006 | 869 | 841 | 28 | 96.78 | 3.22 |
| 2007 | 1,501 | 1468 | 33 | 97.80 | 2.2 |
| 2008 | 532 | 506 | 26 | 95.11 | 4.89 |
| 2009 | 555 | 527 | 28 | 94.95 | 5.05 |
| 2010 | 597 | 560 | 37 | 93.80 | 6.2 |
| 2011 | 536 | 519 | 17 | 96.83 | 3.17 |
| 2012 | 424 | 392 | 32 | 92.45 | 7.55 |
| 2013 | 364 | 353 | 11 | 96.98 | 3.02 |
| 2014 | 1,233 | 1190 | 43 | 96.51 | 3.49 |
| 2015 | 911 | 892 | 19 | 97.91 | 2.09 |
| 2016 | 872 | 848 | 24 | 97.25 | 2.75 |
| 2017 | 2741 | 2698 | 43 | 98.43 | 1.57 |
| 2018 | 2946 | 2895 | 51 | 98.23 | 1.73 |
| Total | 17,214 | 16,718 | 496 | 97.12 | 2.88 |

Source: Deeds Registry, Anambra State Ministry of Lands and Urban Development

Table 4.12 shows that out of the registered titles in Anambra State from 2002 – 2018, 97.12% were registered in the name of men and others, while about 2.88% were registered in the name of women. This implies that the magnitude of land ownership

of landed properties by women in Anambra State is far less than that of men. On the issue of plots/ housing units allocated by the Enugu, Anambra and Imo States Housing Corporation, figures 4.4 - 4.6 shows a pie chart representing the allocation.

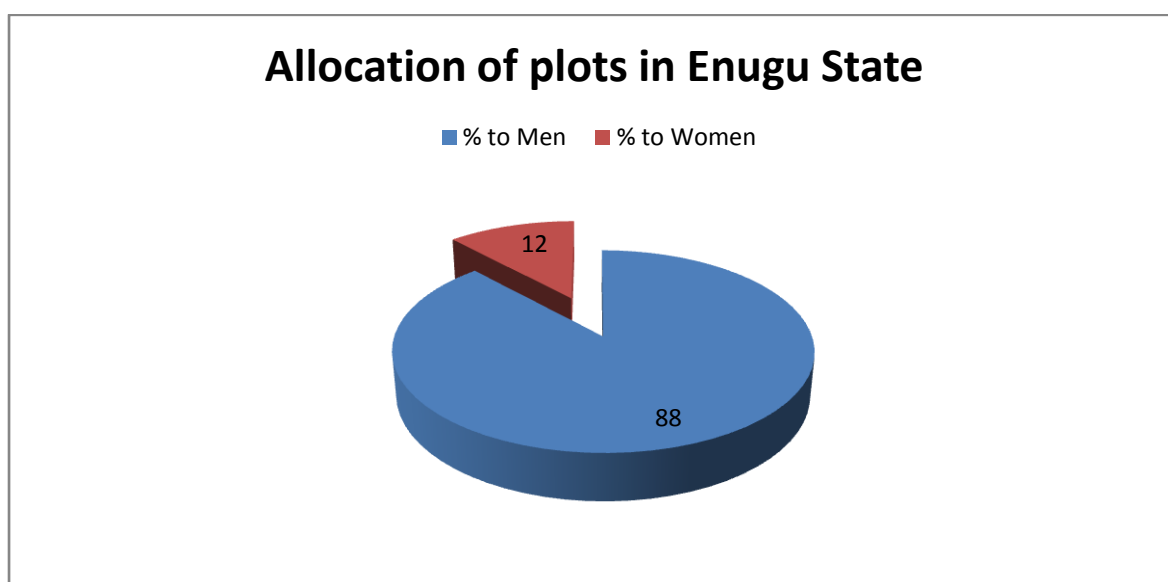


Figure 4,4: Housing Units/ Plots Allocated by Enugu State Housing Development Corporation and Number Allocated to Women as at 2018

Source: Enugu State Housing Development Cooperation (2016)

Figure 4.4 shows that out of total number of plots/housing units allocated by the state government through the Enugu State Housing Development Cooperation (ESHDC) only 12% were allocated to women while 88% were allocated to men. This shows a wide gap in government allocation between men and women. This also implies that the magnitude of real estate ownership by women through government allocation is far less than that of men

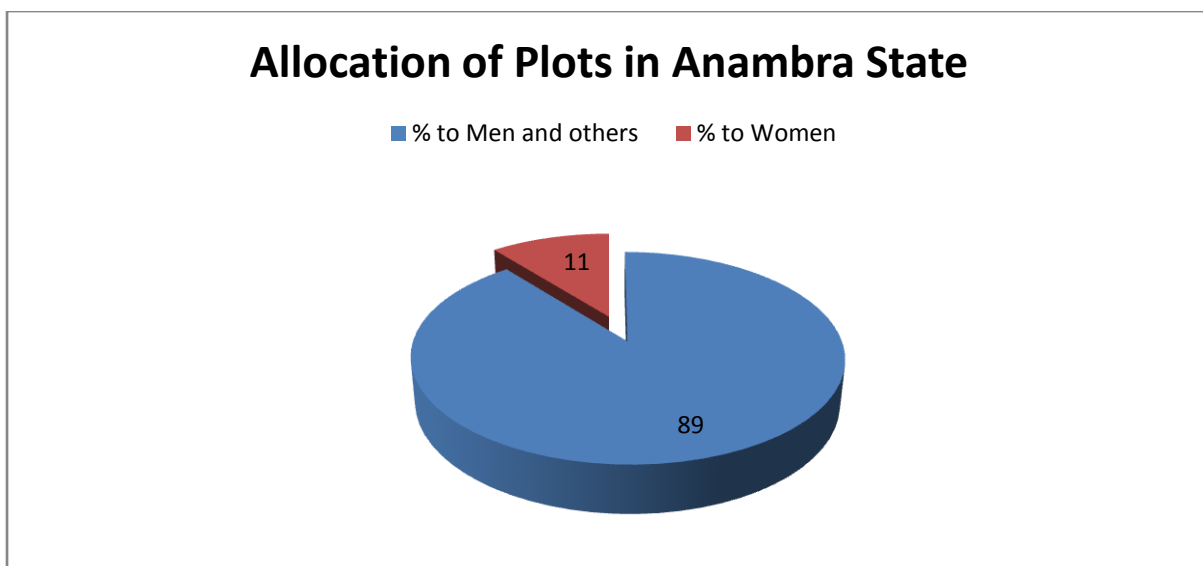


Figure 4.5: Number of Housing Units/Plots Allocated by Anambra State Housing Development Corporation and Number Allocated to women.

Source: Anambra State Housing Development Corporation (2018)

Figure 4.5 above shows that out of the total allocated plots/housing units by Anambra State Housing Development Corporation (ASHDC), only 11% were allocated to women while 89% were allocated to men. The above analysis shows that men own far more properties through government allocation than women by this means in the study area.

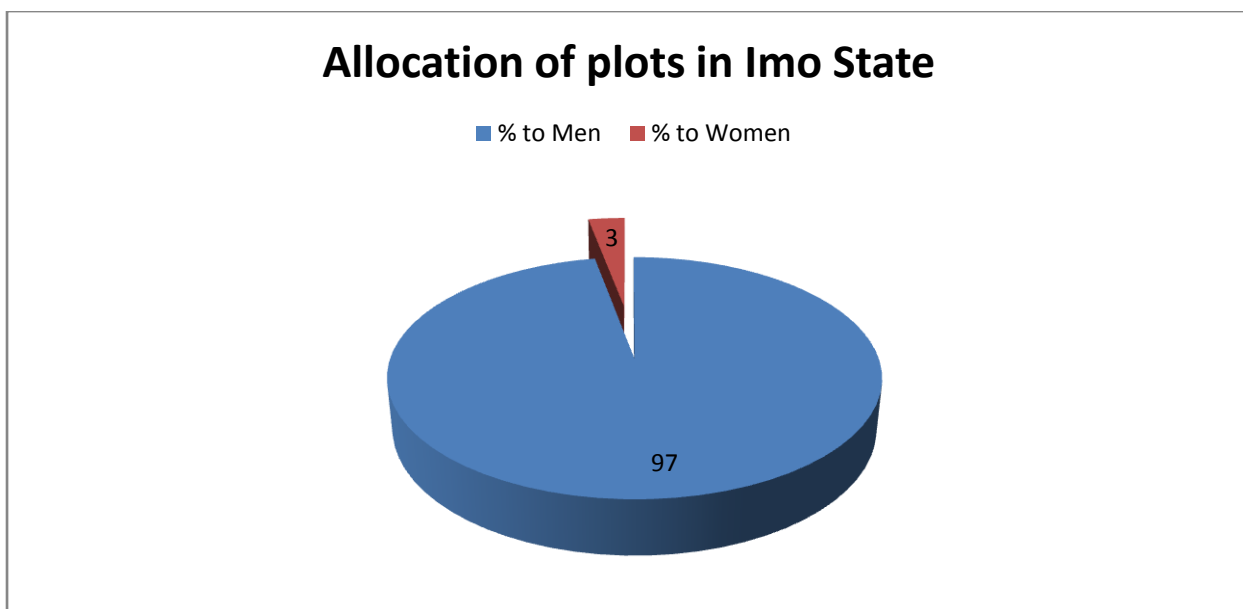


Figure 4.6: Number of Housing Units/Plots Allocated by Imo State Housing Development Corporation and number Allocated to Women

Source: Imo State Housing Development Corporation (2017)

Figure 4.6 shows that out of the total allocated Plots/housing units by Imo State Housing Development Corporation 97% were allocated to men, while only 3% were allocated to women. The above analysis indicates that a wide gap exists between men and women in government allocations.

4.3 Factors That Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in South-East Nigeria

This section presents data on the factors that constrain Real Estate ownership by women in the study area. Table 4.23-4.27 shows the responses on the social, economic, legal, political and educational factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in South East Nigeria respectively

Table 4.13: Response on Social Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in South East Nigeria

| Response Option | Very Significant (5) | Significant (4) | Undecided (3) | Insignificant (2) | Very insignificant (1) | Mean | Rank |
|---|----------------------|-----------------|---------------|-------------------|------------------------|-------|------------------|
| Patriarchal System | 520 | 722 | 0 | 490 | 338 | 3.21 | 5 th |
| Cultural biases | 1,080 | 852 | | 1.88 | 0 | 4.33 | 1 st |
| Perceived traditional role of women | 520 | 925 | 20 | 400 | 255 | 3.50 | 4 th |
| Marital Status | 50 | 692 | 20 | 700 | 658 | 2.422 | 10 th |
| Widowhood Practices | 0 | 678 | 0 | 680 | 762 | 2.28 | 11 th |
| Lack of support from spouse and fellow women | 128 | 762 | 0 | 770 | 460 | 2.68 | 8 th |
| Perception of women as property | 160 | 667 | 0 | 540 | 753 | 2.500 | 9 th |
| Gender stereotyping | 0 | 551 | 87 | 0 | 1482 | 1.86 | |
| Gender inequalities in the land market | 480 | 670 | 55 | 580 | 335 | 3.15 | 6 th |
| Male preference in inheritance practices | 980 | 762 | 0 | 318 | 0 | 4.05 | 2 nd |
| Women gender roles | 0 | 448 | 0 | 800 | 872 | 2.01 | 13 th |
| Male form ledges in marriage | 0 | 403 | 20 | 930 | 767 | 2.03 | 12 th |
| Male bias in land redistribution practices | 770 | 732 | 0 | 418 | 200 | 3.68 | 3 rd |
| Perceived non permanency of women in their natal home | 640 | 653 | 20 | 550 | 257 | 3.13 | 7 th |

Table 4.13 shows the respondents view on social factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in the study area. The respondents agreed that patriarchal system (3.21) hinders women ability to own property in the study area. Cultural biases about women (4.33) were ranked first as the major factor that constrains women from ownership of property in the study area. They further agreed that perceived traditional role of women (3.50) gender inequalities in the land market (3.15), male preference in inheritance practices (4.05), male bias in land redistribution practices (3.68) perceived non permanency of women in their natal homes (3.13) are among the socio-cultural factors that are obstacles to women ownership of property. However other factors like marital status, (2.42) widowhood practices (2.28), lack of support from spouse and fellow women (2.68), perception of women as property (2.50), gender stereotyping (1.86) and women gender roles (2.06) were seen by the respondents as not having significant effect on women ownership of property as their mean did not meet the cut off point (3.0) as stated earlier in chapter 3. The above analysis implies that there are seven major social factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in the study area and they include; cultural biases against women (1st) male preference in inheritance practices (2nd) male bias in land redistribution practices (3rd), perceived traditional role of women (4th), patriarchal system (5th) gender inequalities bin the land market (6th) and perceived non permanency of women in their natal homes (7th). These findings are in line with the findings of kussaana etel (2013), Patio and kumoren (2014), Gbadegesen (2012) and FAO (2011) where they found out that cultural practices and social norms restrict and hinder women from owning land and property unlike their male counterparts. However this work disagrees with some of the reasons given by Kussaana etel (2013) where they found out that because women

are regarded as properties/assets in their marital homes they do not own properties as they themselves are properties, see section 2.8.4.6 paragraphs 4, 7, 8 and 9.

Table 4.14: Response on Economic Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in the Study Area

| Response Option | Very significant(5) | Significant(4) | Undecided(3) | Insignificant(2) | Very insignificant(1) | Mean | Rank |
|--|---------------------|----------------|--------------|------------------|-----------------------|------|-----------------|
| Lack of resources | 890 | 1033 | 0 | 120 | 77 | 4.20 | 1 st |
| Difficulty in accessing financial Leverage | 850 | 668 | 0 | 512 | 90 | 3.79 | 3 rd |
| Lack of required collateral | 648 | 632 | 0 | 840 | 0 | 3.5 | 5 th |
| Policies and practices that privilege profit over people and deny women their rights as workers or to work | 780 | 874 | 35 | 731 | 0 | 3.52 | 4 th |
| Unemployment | 880 | 800 | 0 | 441 | 0 | 4.00 | 2 nd |
| Heavy burden of unpaid domestic work | 380 | 910 | 58 | 772 | 0 | 3.42 | 6 th |
| Lack of fame to engage in income earning activities due to child bearing/rearing activities | 310 | 890 | 0 | 490 | 430 | 3.08 | 7 th |
| Economic fundamentalism | 0 | 276 | 0 | 0 | 1844 | 1.39 | 8 th |

Table 4.14 reveals the respondents view on the significant economic factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in south-east Nigeria. It shows that lack of

resources (4.20), difficulty in accessing financial leverage (3.79), lack of required collateral (3.5), policies and practices that privilege profits over people and deny women their rights as workers and to work (3.52), unemployment (4.00), heavy burden of unpaid domestic work (3.42) and lack of time to engage in income earning activities due to child bearing/rearing activities (3.08) are the most important significant factors that negatively affect ownership of real estate by women in South East Nigeria. However it was found out that economic fundamentalism (1.39) has no significant effect as the factor did not meet the cut off point as stated earlier. The implication of the above analysis is that there are seven (7) significant economic factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in south-east, Nigeria namely lack of resources (1st), unemployment (2nd), difficulty in accessing financial leverage (3rd) policies and practices that privilege profit and deny workers their rights as workers or to work (4th), lack of required collateral (5th), heavy burden of unpaid domestic work (6th) and lack of time to engage in income earning activities due to child bearing/rearing activities (7th).

The findings agreed with the work of Bwisa (2013) and Fapophunda (2012) where they observed that women lack the capacity and capability to borrow and hence lack the resources to engage in enterprise growth, see section 2. 8.4. 2. Also the findings above concurs with the findings of Nwakobi (2012) which shows that women carrier progression in the banking industry in Nigeria is low when compared to their male counterpart thereby supporting the fact that there are some policies and practices that over profit people and deny women their rights as workers and to work which limit women's access to resources that can help them embark on real estate ownership.

Table 4.15: Legal Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in the Study Area

| Response Option | Very significant | Significant | Undecided | Insignificant | Very insignificant | Mean | Rank |
|--|------------------|-------------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|------|-----------------|
| Non prescription of women Land rights in (a) Customary Laws | 1,717 | 0 | 0 | 403 | | 4.43 | 1 st |
| (b) Religious Laws | 0 | 127 | 0 | 526 | 1403 | 0.98 | |
| (c) Statutory Laws | 140 | 1420 | 50 | 410 | 100 | 3.51 | |
| Barriers in seeking access to justice | 420 | 996 | 0 | 604 | 100 | 3.49 | 4 th |
| Discriminatory inheritance Laws | 990 | 915 | 0 | 215 | 0 | 4.26 | 2 nd |
| Lack of independent right to own and manage property | 364 | 902 | 65 | 789 | 0 | 3.32 | 5 th |
| Lack of secured land tenure | 520 | 902 | 45 | 540 | 113 | 3.55 | 3 rd |
| Legal environment that favours men as against women rights | | | | | | | |

Table 4.15 shows the respondent views on the legal factors that impede women ownership of properties in the South – East Nigeria. The table reveals that the

important factors include; non prescription of women's land rights in customary laws (4.43) and statutory laws (3.51), barriers in seeking access to justice (3.49), discriminatory inheritance laws (4.26), lack of independent right to own and manage property (3.32), and lack of secured land tenure (3.55). The respondent's views on non prescription of women's land rights in religious laws and legal environment that favours men as against women rights as not having significant impact in constraining women's ownership of property in the study area. The above view reveals that there are significant law and legal factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in the South – East, Nigeria. The above findings are in line with the findings of Ileri (2016), FHRI and FIDA-U (2011). These works observed that there are a number of customary laws and traditions that discriminate against women when it comes to inheritance of land as well as ownership of and access to land, use of natural resources etc. FHRI and FIDA-U (2011) noted that despite the provisions of the country's constitution, discriminatory statutory, customary and religious laws still remain in force which poses challenges to women ownership of land. Again FIDH noted that in a number of countries, women still lack independent right to own land, manage property, conduct business etc. without their husband's consent. However, this work did not find religious laws as a challenge to women ownership of property as opposed to the findings of FHRI and FIDA-U (2011) see section 2. 8. 4. 6.

**Table 4.16: Response on Political Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership
by Women in South-East Nigeria**

| Response Option | Very significant (5) | Significant (4) | Undecided (3) | Insignificant (2) | Very insignificant (1) | Mean | Rank |
|---|----------------------------|--------------------|------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|------|--|
| Socio-cultural attitude | 580 | 700 | 66 | 774 | 0 | 3.51 | 3 rd |
| Lack of required experience by women | 0 | 745 | 0 | 600 | 775 | 2.48 | 4 th (not significant) |
| Low participation of women in influential echelons of power | 1050 | 882 | 0 | 188 | 0 | 4.22 | 1 st |
| Overburden of domestic responsibilities | 820 | 1010 | 35 | 255 | 0 | 4.13 | 2 nd |

Table 4.16 reveals the respondents opinion on the significant political factors that are obstacles to women ownership of property in the South – East, Nigeria. The table

shows that Socio – Cultural attitude (3.51), low participation of women in influential echelons of power (4.22) as well as over burden of domestic responsibilities (4.13) are the significant political factors that affect women property ownership status. The table also reveals that lack of required experience by women is seen as a significant political factor that constrains real estate management ownership by women. Hence, it implies that there are 3 significant political factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in South – East, Nigeria and they include; low participation of women in influential echelon of power (1st), overburden of domestic responsibilities (2nd) and socio – cultural attitude (3rd).

The above findings concurs with the findings of Hora (2014), Effa-Etoe (2002) and DFID (1997) where these works found out that there is low participation of women in influential echelon of power. They also found out that socio cultural attitude and overburden of domestic responsibilities are among the factors that impede active participation of women in politics, see section 2. 8. 4. 5.

Table 4.17: Response on Educational Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in South East Nigeria

| Response Option | Very significant(5) | Significant (4) | Undecided (3) | Insignificant (2) | Very insignificant(1) | Mean | Rank |
|---|---------------------|-----------------|---------------|-------------------|-----------------------|------|-----------------|
| Low level of education | 995 | 870 | 0 | 155 | 100 | 4.15 | 2 nd |
| Lack of knowledge by women of their land rights | 980 | 925 | 0 | 180 | 35 | 4.18 | 1 st |
| Lack of required experience | 885 | 980 | | 135 | 120 | 4.12 | 3 rd |

Table 4.17 shows the respondents opinion on the educational factors that constrain ownership of property by women in the study areas it reveals that they include low level of education (4.15), lack of knowledge by women of their land rights (4.18) and lack of required experience. The oral interview conducted shows that high level of illiteracy among women was due to the social norm in the olden days that women are supposed to be seen in the kitchen and also they are another man's property hence parents prefer training their male children to the detriment of their female children, this however increased the low level of education among women even through this norm is changing gradually especially from the 20th and 21st centuries.

The above findings implies that lack of knowledge among women of their land rights (1st), low level of education (2nd) and lack of required experience (3rd) are the major educational factors that constrain ownership of property by women in South – East, Nigeria.

The above findings concurs with the findings of Jesen (2010) who observed that that there is low level of education among women as the study found out that out of 774 million illiterate adults worldwide, 64% are women. Thus, illiteracy/ low level of education is adjudged one of the major factor hindering women access and ownership of property, see section 2. 9. 3 line 15.

However, factor analysis (Principle Component Analysis) was carried out to further investigate the key factors that constrain ownership of real estate by women in South East Nigeria. Tables 4.18 - 4.22 show the results of the analysis.

Table 4.18: Factor Analysis on Social Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in South East Nigeria

| Descriptive Statistics | | | |
|------------------------|----------|----------------|------------|
| | Mean | Std. Deviation | Analysis N |
| Social factor | 679.7857 | 140.29210 | 14 |
| Economic factors | 434.5000 | 426.96834 | 8 |

KMO and Bartlett's Test

| | | |
|--|--------------------|-------|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | | .500 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 2.608 |
| | Df | 1 |
| | Sig. | .016 |

Communalities

| | Initial | Extraction |
|------------------|---------|------------|
| Social factor | 1.000 | .725 |
| Economic factors | 1.000 | .699 |

Extraction Method: Principal Component

Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 1.450 | 72.522 | 72.522 | 1.450 | 72.522 | 72.522 |
| 2 | .550 | 27.478 | 100.000 | | | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix^a

| | Component |
|------------------|-----------|
| | 1 |
| Social factor | .852 |
| Economic factors | .612 |

Extraction Method: Principal

Component Analysis.

a.1 components extracted.

From the analysis in table 4.18, it shows that social factors has a greater impact on the real estate ownership by women in south east Nigeria since the probability value (0.016) is less than the alpha value (0.05). The analysis also shows that the social factors affect the real estate ownership by women in south east with a principal component of 0.852.

Table 4.19: Factor Analysis on Economic Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in South East Nigeria

Descriptive Statistics

| | Mean | Std. Deviation | Analysis N |
|------------------|----------|----------------|------------|
| Social factor | 679.7857 | 140.29210 | 14 |
| Economic factors | 434.5000 | 426.96834 | 8 |

KMO and Bartlett's Test

| | | |
|--|--------------------|-------|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | | .500 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 2.608 |
| | Df | 1 |
| | Sig. | .016 |

Communalities

| | Initial | Extraction |
|------------------|---------|------------|
| Social factor | 1.000 | .725 |
| Economic factors | 1.000 | .699 |

Extraction Method: Principal Component

Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 1.450 | 72.522 | 72.522 | 1.450 | 72.522 | 72.522 |
| 2 | .550 | 27.478 | 100.000 | | | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Communalities

| | Initial | Extraction |
|------------------|---------|------------|
| Legalfactor | 1.000 | .571 |
| Politicalfactors | 1.000 | .571 |

Extraction Method: Principal Component

Analysis.

Component Matrix^a

| | Component |
|------------------|-----------|
| | 1 |
| Social factor | .852 |
| Economic factors | .612 |

Extraction Method: Principal

Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

From the analysis in table 4.19, it shows that economic factors has a greater impact on the real estate ownership by women in south east Nigeria since the probability value (0.016) is less than the alpha value (0.05). The analysis also shows that the economic factors affect the real estate ownership by women in south east with a principal component of 0.612.

Table 4.20: Factor Analysis on Legal Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in South East Nigeria

Descriptive Statistics

| | Mean | Std. Deviation | Analysis N |
|-------------------|----------|----------------|------------|
| Legal factor | 593.0000 | 586.73418 | 7 |
| Political factors | 476.7143 | 456.84670 | 4 |

KMO and Bartlett's Test

| | | |
|--|--------------------|-------|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | | .500 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | .092 |
| | Df | 1 |
| | Sig. | .0461 |

Communalities

| | Initial | Extraction |
|-------------------|---------|------------|
| Legal factor | 1.000 | .727 |
| Political factors | 1.000 | .727 |

Extraction Method: Principal Component

Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

| Component | Initial Eigen values | | | Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|-----------|----------------------|---------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 1.143 | 57.127 | 57.127 | 1.143 | 57.127 | 57.127 |
| 2 | .857 | 42.873 | 100.000 | | | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix ^a

| | Component |
|-------------------|-----------|
| | 1 |
| Legal factor | .556 |
| Political factors | -.456 |

Extraction Method: Principal

Component Analysis.

a 1 components extracted.

From the analysis in table 4.20, it shows that legal factors have an impact on the real estate ownership by women in south east Nigeria since the probability value (0.046) is less than the alpha value (0.05). The analysis also shows that the legal factors affect the real estate ownership by women in south east with a principal component of 0.556.

Table 4.21: Factor Analysis on Political Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in South East Nigeria

Descriptive Statistics

| | Mean | Std. Deviation | Analysis N |
|-------------------|----------|----------------|------------|
| Legal factor | 593.0000 | 586.73418 | 7 |
| Political factors | 476.7143 | 456.84670 | 4 |

KMO and Bartlett's Test

| | | |
|--|--------------------|------|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | | .500 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | .092 |
| | Df | 1 |
| | Sig. | .071 |

Communalities

| | Initial | Extraction |
|-------------------|---------|------------|
| Legal factor | 1.000 | .727 |
| Political factors | 1.000 | .727 |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 1.143 | 57.127 | 57.127 | 1.143 | 57.127 | 57.127 |
| 2 | .857 | 42.873 | 100.000 | | | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix^a

| | Component |
|-------------------|-----------|
| | 1 |
| Legal factor | .556 |
| Political factors | -.456 |

Extraction Method: Principal

Component Analysis.

a.1 components extracted.

From the analysis in table 4.21, it shows that political factors has little or no impact on the real estate ownership by women in south east Nigeria since the probability value (0.071) is greater than the alpha value (0.05). The analysis also shows that the political factors do not affect the real estate ownership by women in south east with a principal component of -0.456.

**Table 4.22: Factor Analysis on Educational Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership
by Women in South East Nigeria**

Total Variance Explained

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 1.143 | 57.127 | 57.127 | 1.143 | 57.127 | 57.127 |
| 2 | .857 | 42.873 | 100.000 | | | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

| | | |
|--|--------------------|------|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | | .500 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | .092 |
| | Df | 1 |
| | Sig. | .111 |

Component Matrix^a

| | Component |
|---------------------|-----------|
| | 1 |
| Legal factor | .556 |
| Educational factors | -.056 |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

From the analysis in table 4.22, it shows that educational factors has little or no impact on the real estate ownership by women in south east Nigeria since the probability value (0.111) is greater than the alpha value (0.05). The analysis also shows that the educational factors do not affect the real estate ownership by women in south east with a principal component of -0.056.

The principle component analysis presented in tables 28-31 indicates that the key constraints to real estate ownership by women in South –East Nigeria include socio – cultural factors, economic factors and legal factors. However, political and educational factors have little impact on women ownership of property in the area.

4.4 Data on the Extent to Which the Constraint Factors Affect Real Estate Ownership by Women in the Individual Study States.

This sub section evaluates the level at which the identified constraint factors affect real estate ownership by women in Anambra, Enugu and Imo states. Tables 4.23- 4.27 show the Relative Importance Index (RII) of the social, economic, legal, political and educational factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in the individual study states respectively.

Table 4.23: Relative Importance Index (RII) of Social Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in the Study Areas

| Socio-cultural factors | Anambra | Rank | Enugu | Rank | Imo | Rank |
|--|---------|-----------------|-------|-----------------|------|-----------------|
| Patriarchal system | 0.50 | 5 th | 0.67 | 4 th | 0.55 | 4 th |
| Cultural biases about women | 0.94 | 1 st | 0.92 | 1 st | 0.88 | 1 st |
| Perceived traditional role of women | 0.32 | 7 th | 0.41 | 7 th | 0.28 | 7 th |
| Male in inheritance rights | 0.94 | 1 st | 0.89 | 2 nd | 0.84 | 3 rd |
| Gender inequality in the land market | 0.87 | 3 rd | 0.62 | 5 th | 0.48 | 4 th |
| Male bias in land redistribution practices | 0.63 | 4 th | 0.83 | 3 rd | 0.86 | 2 nd |
| Perceived non permanency of women in their natal homes | 0.48 | 6 th | 0.45 | 6 th | 0.30 | 6 th |

The table 4.23 shows the relative importance of the identified social factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in the different study areas. The table reveals that patriarchal system has the same level of effect in Anambra and Imo states (0.50, 0.67 and 0.57) but has a higher level of effect in Enugu state (0.67) and ranked 4th in the most important factor in the level at which it affects women ownership status in real estate in both Enugu and Imo states while it ranked 5th in Anambra.

Cultural bias has the same rating in all the 3 states as they were ranked 1st (0.94, 0.92 and 0.91) respectively of all the socio cultural factors that mostly affect women ownership of property in the study areas.

However, perceived traditional role of women was the same level of ranking (7th) in the level at which it constrains real estate ownership by women in all the three states.

Male preference in inheritance rights was ranked 1st in Anambra, 2nd in Enugu and 3rd in Imo states. In Anambra the above factor tied with ratings of cultural biases about women in the level at which the two factors affect real estate ownership by women in their area.

Gender inequality in the land market were ranked 5th in both Enugu and Imo states while it was ranked 3rd in Anambra state.

Male bias in land redistribution practices have varying level of effects in constraining ownership of property by women as the factor was ranked 4th in Anambra, 3rd in Enugu and 2nd in Imo state. More so, perceived non permanency of women in their natal homes has the same level of effects in the three states as the respondents rated the factor 6th in all the states.

The implication of the above analysis that there are varieties in the level at which the identified social factors affect real estate ownership by women in the individual states but there are few factors that were rated to have the same level of effect.

Table 4.24: Relative Importance Index (RII) of Economic Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in the Study Areas

| Economic/financial factors | Anambra | Rank | Enugu | Rank | Imo | Rank |
|--|---------|-----------------|-------|-----------------|------|-----------------|
| Lack of resources | 0.94 | 1 st | 0.91 | 1 st | 0.89 | 1 st |
| Difficulty in accessing financial leverage | 0.91 | 3 rd | 0.86 | 3 rd | 0.81 | 3 rd |
| Lack of required collateral | 0.86 | 4 th | 0.83 | 4 th | 0.74 | 4 th |
| Policies and practices that privilege profits over people and deny women their rights as workers and to work | 0.63 | 5 th | 0.33 | 7 th | 0.30 | 7 th |
| Unemployment | 0.92 | 2 nd | 0.91 | 1 st | 0.87 | 2 nd |
| Heavy burden of unpaid domestic work | 0.47 | 6 th | 0.41 | 5 th | 0.36 | 5 th |
| Lack of time to engage in income earning activities due to child bearing/rearing activities | 0.41 | 7 th | 0.35 | 6 th | 0.42 | 7 th |

Table 4.24 reveals that the lack of resources were rated the most important economic factor in the level at which it constrain real estate ownership by women as all it was rated the first factor in all states. Again difficulty in accessing financial leverage has the same level of effect in all the state and was rated the third most important factor. Lack of required collateral was also adjudged the 4th most important factor and has the same level of effect according to the respondents' ratings in all the states. However, there exist some variations in the level at which policies and practices that privilege profits over people and deny women their rights as workers and to work as the factor was rated 5th in Anambra and 7th in both Enugu and Imo states.

Also, unemployment was rated differently among the states as it ranked 2nd in Anambra, 1st in Enugu and also 2nd in Imo states. Heavy burden of unpaid domestic has the same ranking in the level of effect in Enugu and Imo states as they ranked 5th while Anambra was ranked 6th. Lack of time to engage in income earning activities due to child bearing/ rearing activities has the same level of effect in Anambra and Imo states as they ranked 7th while it was ranked 6th in Enugu.

The implication of the above analysis is that there are little variability in the level at which the factors considered above affect ownership of property in the individual states.

Table 4.25: Relative Importance Index (RII) of Legal Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in the Study Areas.

| Legal factors | Anambra | Rank | Enugu | Rank | Imo | Rank |
|---|---------|-----------------|-------|-----------------|------|-----------------|
| Non prescription of women's right in customary and statutory laws | 0.94 | 1 st | 0.88 | 2 nd | 0.87 | 1 st |
| Barriers in seeking access to justice | 0.53 | 4 th | 0.57 | 3 rd | 0.75 | 3 rd |
| Discriminatory inheritance laws | 0.80 | 2 nd | 0.89 | 1 st | 0.86 | 2 nd |
| Lack of independent right to own and manage property | 0.39 | 5 th | 0.26 | 5 th | 0.59 | 5 th |
| Lack of secured land tenure | 0.50 | 3 rd | 0.55 | 4 th | 0,75 | 3 rd |

Table 4.25 shows the ratings and ranking of the level at which law/legal factors constrain real estate ownership by women in the individual states under study. It shows that while non prescription of women's right in customary and statutory laws were ranked 1st (0.94) and (0.90) in Anambra and Imo states, it was ranked 2nd in Enugu state, Anambra and Imo while ranking discriminatory inheritance laws 2nd (0.80 and 0.85) respectively, Enugu ranked the factor first.

Again Enugu and Imo states while ranking barriers in seeking access to justice the third most important factor in affecting real estate ownership of real property by women, Anambra ranked the factor 4th. Anambra and Imo rated discriminatory inheritance laws as the second most important factor while Enugu ranked the factor first. However all the respondents in the 3 states ranked Lack of independent right to

own and manage property the most important factor? Lack of secured land tenure was ranked 3rd by Anambra and Imo states while respondents in Enugu state ranked the factor 4th. The above analysis shows that there is little differences in the level at which the legal factors affect real estate ownership by women in the individual states under study. It also reveals that Anambra and Imo states ranking are the closest in their ratings.

Table 4.26: Relative Importance Index (RII) of Political Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in the Individual Sudy Areas.

| Political factors | Anambra | Rank | Enugu | Rank | Imo | Rank |
|---|---------|-----------------|-------|-----------------|------|-----------------|
| Socio-cultural attitude | 0.57 | 3 rd | 0.64 | 2 nd | 0.72 | 2 nd |
| Low participation of women in influential echelons of power | 0.82 | 1 st | 0.83 | 1 st | 0.76 | 1 st |
| Overburden of domestic responsibilities | 0.73 | 2 nd | 0.49 | 3 rd | 0.56 | 3 rd |

Table 4.26 shows the ranking of the level at which the identified political factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in the individual states. Anambra while rating socio cultural attitude as the 3rd factor affecting women's property ownership in their area Enugu and Imo states rated the factor 2nd. All the individual states rated low participation of women in influential echelons of power as the first most significant political factor that affect women property ownership. Overburden of

domestic responsibility is rated 2nd most significant factor while Enugu and Imo state rated the factor 3rd.

The above analysis shows that apart from Anambra, there is similarity in the ratings of the other respondents in Enugu and Imo states. The above implies that there is no significant difference in the ratings by the individual states in the level at which political factor affect women property ownership in their state.

Table 4.27: Relative Importance Index (RII) of Educational Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in the Study Areas.

| Educational factors | Anambra | Rank | Enugu | Rank | Imo | Rank |
|---|---------|-----------------|-------|-----------------|------|-----------------|
| Low level of education | 0.72 | 2 nd | 0.81 | 1 st | 0.73 | 2 nd |
| Lack of knowledge by women of their land rights | 0.81 | 1 st | 0.73 | 2 nd | 0.77 | 1 st |
| Lack of required experience | 0.49 | 3 rd | 0.53 | 3 rd | 0.63 | 3 rd |

Table 4.27 shows the ratings of the level at which the identified educational factors affect ownership of real estate by women in the individual states Anambra and Imo states rated low level of education as the second most important factor in the level at which it affect ownership of property by women in their states, Enugu rated the factor first (1st). Also Anambra and Imo states rated lack of knowledge by women of their land rights as the first most important factor in the level at which it constrains women ownership of property in their states, Enugu rated the factor 2nd. All the three states rated lack of required experience as the 3rd most important factor in the level at which it affects ownership of property in their states.

The analysis shows that there are little variability in the ratings by the different states on the level at which the identified factors affect ownership of real estate. It also indicates that Anambra and Imo has similarities in their ratings.

Tables 4. 28 and 4.29 show the general ratings of the important social/economic and legal/political and educational factors respectively that constrain real estate ownership by women generally in the study areas.

Table 4.28: Ratings of Important Social/ Economic Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women Generally in the Study Areas

| Socio-cultural factors | RII | Rank |
|--|------|-----------------|
| Patriarchal system | 0.57 | 5 th |
| Cultural biases about women | 0.91 | 1 st |
| Perceived traditional role of women | 0.34 | 7 th |
| Male preference in inheritance rights | 0.89 | 2 nd |
| Gender inequality in the land market | 0.66 | 4 th |
| Male bias in land redistribution practices | 0.77 | 3 rd |
| Perceived non permanency of women in their natal homes | 0.41 | 6 th |
| Economic/financial factors | | |
| Lack of resources | 0.91 | 1 st |
| Difficulty in accessing financial leverage | 0.86 | 3 rd |
| Lack of required collateral | 0.81 | 4 th |
| Policies and practices that privilege profits over people and deny women their rights as workers and to work | 0.42 | 5 th |
| Unemployment | 0.90 | 2 nd |
| Heavy burden of unpaid domestic work | 0.41 | 6 th |
| Lack of time to engage in income earning activities due to child bearing/rearing activities | 0.39 | 7 th |

Table 4.28 shows the ratings of the social and economic factors that generally affect women in the study areas. The table reveals that cultural biases about women ranked

first, male preference in inheritance rights second and male bias in land distribution practices. Gender inequality in the land market ranked fourth, patrilineal system ranked fifth, perceived non permanence of women ranked sixth while perceived traditional role of women ranked seventh among the social factors identified. The table also showed that among the economic factors lack of resources ranked first, unemployment ranked second while difficulty in accessing financial leverage ranked third. Also lack of required collateral ranked fourth, policies and programmes that privilege profits over people and deny women their rights as workers and to work ranked fifth, heavy burden of unpaid domestic work ranked sixth and lack of time to engage in income earning activities due to child bearing/ rearing activities ranked seventh. The information in the above table was used in table 35 to rank the most important factor constraining real estate ownership by women according to order of significance.

Table 4.29: Ratings of the Important Legal, Political and Educational Factors that Constrain Real Estate Ownership by Women in all the Study Areas

| Legal factors | RII | Rank |
|---|------|-----------------|
| Non prescription of women's right in customary and statutory laws | 0.90 | 1 st |
| Barriers in seeking access to justice | 0.62 | 3 rd |
| Discriminatory inheritance laws | 0.85 | 2 nd |
| Lack of independent right to own and manage property | 0.41 | 5 th |
| Lack of secured land tenure | 0.60 | 4 th |
| Political factors | | |
| Socio-cultural attitude | 0.64 | 2 nd |
| Low participation of women influential echelons of power | 0.80 | 1 st |
| Overburden of domestic responsibilities | 0.59 | 3 rd |
| Educational factors | | |
| Level of education | 0.75 | 2 nd |
| Lack of knowledge by women of their land rights | 0.77 | 1 st |
| Lack of required experience | 0.55 | 3 rd |

Table 4.29 shows the respondent's ratings of the legal, political and educational factors that constrain women ownership of real estate in the study area. The table reveals that among the law/legal factors, non prescription of women's right in customary and stationary laws ranked first, discriminatory inheritance laws ranked second while barriers in seeking access to justice ranked third. Lack of secured land

tenure ranked fourth and lack of independent right to own and manage property ranked 5th.

In the ranking of the political factors, the table reveals that the rating of the respondents generally in the study area shows that low participation of women in influential echelon of power ranked 1st, socio-cultural attitude ranked second while overburden of domestic responsibilities ranked third. On the other hand the table also shows that in the rating of the educational factors lack of knowledge of their land rights ranked first, level of education ranked second while lack of required experience was ranked third.

The implication of the above findings is that despite the fact that the ratings of the factors differ among the states, the factors and sub factors affect women property ownership in the entire states studied.

4.5 Effects of Consraint Factors to Real Estate Ownership by Women on Women Contribution to the National Economy/ Nation Building.

This section presents and analyzes data that relates to the effects of the factors constraining real estate ownership by women on women's contribution to the Nigerian economy and national development. Table 4.30 shows the cumulative effects of the constraints to real estate ownership by women on womens contribution to national economy.

Table 4.30: Cumulative Effect of the Identified Constraints to Real Estate Ownership by Women in South East, Nigeria on Women's Contribution to the National Economy.

| Response option | Very severe | Severe | Undecided | Moderate | Minor | Weighted mean | Rank |
|--|--------------------|---------------|------------------|-----------------|--------------|----------------------|------------------|
| Deprived women free access of real properties by inheritance | 1,696 | 215 | 42 | 85 | 82 | 4.58 | 3 rd |
| Reduced women interest in ownership of properties | 1,378 | 456 | 148 | 74 | 64 | 4.42 | 7 th |
| Reduced women ability to invest in real properties | 1,166 | 635 | 170 | 85 | 64 | 4.39 | 8 th |
| Reduces the capacity of women to diversify their real estate investments | 636 | 954 | 318 | 127 | 85 | 3.91 | 13 th |
| Reduced the quantum of real estate owned by women | 1,738 | 213 | 156 | 13 | 0 | 4.73 | 2 nd |
| Enhanced poverty rate among women | 1,654 | 382 | 85 | 0 | 0 | 4.74 | 1 st |
| Negatively affected women's access to credit | 802 | 1,235 | 65 | 18 | 0 | 4.33 | 10 th |

| | | | | | | | |
|--|-------|-------|-----|----|----|------|------------------|
| facilities through mortgage | | | | | | | |
| Negatively affected the supply of real estate facilities in the south east | 752 | 1,010 | 39 | 87 | 32 | 4.30 | 12 th |
| Negatively affected development of a viable real estate market in the south east | 865 | 1,105 | 102 | 37 | 11 | 4.31 | 11 th |
| Limited the financial ability of women to cater for their families economically | 1,012 | 1,002 | 96 | 7 | 3 | 4.42 | 6 th |
| Deprived women critical means of job and wealth creation | 1,230 | 807 | 50 | 16 | 6 | 4.51 | 5 th |
| Limited the contribution of women to overall economic development | 1,210 | 825 | 85 | 0 | 0 | 4.53 | 4 th |
| Negatively affected women's self worth | 974 | 996 | 122 | 21 | 7 | 4.37 | 9 th |

Table 4.30 shows the mean response on the cumulative effects of the identified constrain factors to property ownership by women in the study area on women contribution to the Nigerian economy and national development. The table shows that all the mentioned effects are acceptable effects of the constrain factors on women contribution to the National economy and nation building. The table reveals that the enhancement of poverty rate among women was ranked 1st as the most important effect, reduction in the quantum of real estate owned by women (2nd), deprived women free access to real estate properties by inheritance (3rd). The findings in table 36 above show that the factors that constrain real estate ownership by women have significant effects on women's contribution to the National economy/Nation building.

The findings of this table concurs with the findings of IFAD (1998) which points to the fact that inadequate access to the land by women restricts women's access to credit from formal sources. Again this work is in line with the findings of Kamari-mbote (2005) who observed that lack of access to land by women places them in precarious position in terms of their survival and livelihoods and stifles their effective contribution to national development, see last paragraph in section 2. 9. 3.

Despite the constraint factors, there are still benefits that could be derived from Women ownership of land and landed property. Table 4.31 shows these benefits.

Table 4.31: Response on the Benefits of Real Estate Ownership by Women

| Response option | SD | | D | | UN | | A | | SA | | Mean |
|--|-----|----|-----|----|-----|----|------|----|------|----|------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | |
| An important saving vehicle for women | 210 | 10 | 290 | 14 | 84 | 4 | 700 | 33 | 736 | 35 | 3.55 |
| A symbol of success and well being | 370 | 17 | 430 | 20 | 90 | 4 | 1010 | 48 | 220 | 10 | 3.13 |
| An important vehicle for raising women financial and economic stability | 190 | 9 | 220 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 600 | 28 | 1110 | 52 | 4.05 |
| Helps to improve women access of income | 40 | 2 | 234 | 11 | 0 | 0 | 911 | 43 | 935 | 44 | 4.16 |
| Helps women to perform their roles like child rearing and family supportive role | 160 | 8 | 320 | 15 | 135 | 6 | 557 | 26 | 948 | 45 | 3.86 |
| Provide critical resources for women particularly when the house breakdown in event like war, divorce, etc | 50 | 2 | 200 | 96 | 24 | 1 | 796 | 38 | 1050 | 50 | 4.22 |
| Helps to boost women's activities in the real estate market | 225 | 12 | 345 | 16 | 290 | 14 | 900 | 42 | 330 | 16 | 3.33 |
| Key driver to overall economic development | 0 | 0 | 290 | 13 | 394 | 19 | 636 | 30 | 800 | 38 | 3.92 |

In table 4.31, 35% and 33% of respondents strongly agree and agree making it 68% of respondents agreeing that ownership of property is an important saving vehicle for

women. Also 48% agree while 10% strongly agree totalling 58% respondents that agree that benefit of owning real estate by women is that it is a symbol of success and wellbeing.

However 17% and 20% totalling 37% of the respondents disagree/strongly disagree to the above option. 52% and 28% totalling 80% of the respondents strongly agree and agree that ownership of property by women acts as important vehicle for raising women financial and economic stability. However only 9% and 10% (strongly agree and agree) totalling 19% of the respondents disagree to the above fact. 87% (44% strongly agree and 43% agree) of the respondents accepts that ownership of property helps to improve women access to income. 71% (45% and 26%) of the respondents agrees that property ownership by women helps them to perform their roles like child rearing and family supportive roles. 88% (50% and 38%) strongly agree and agree that property ownership provide critical resources for women particularly when the house break down in event like war or divorce. 42% and 16% totaling 58% of the respondents agree and strongly agree that ownership of property helps to boost women's activities in the real estate market. 68% (38% and 30%) agreed that women ownership of property is a key driver to overall economic development. The above analysis shows that there are benefits of real estate ownership by women.

Table 4.32 futher shows the prospects of real estate ownership by women in the study area.

Table 4.32: Response on Prospects of Real Estate Ownership by Women in the Study Area.

| Response Option | No of Response | % of Response |
|---|-----------------------|----------------------|
| Increase women access to real property through purchase, inheritance, government allocation and gift like their male counterparts | 1,846 | 87% |
| Increase zeal in women in using their potentials to invest more on real properties thereby increasing the supply of real estate products | 1,902 | 90% |
| Enhancement of economic growth through increased participation of women in the real estate industry | 1,641 | 77% |
| Enhancement of gender equality in land distribution thereby helping in achieving the third millennium goal for achieving gender equality in land distribution | 1,500 | 71% |
| Reduction in the level of poverty amongst women | 1,705 | 80% |

Table 4.32 above indicates that 87% of the respondents agree that the prospect of real estate ownership by women is that it will bring about increased women access to real property through purchase, inheritance, government allocation and gift. 90% of the respondents agreed that if women own property like their male counterparts, it will

help in increasing the zeal of women in using their potentials to invest more on real properties thereby increasing the supply of same in the property market.

Other prospects include; reduction in the level of poverty amongst women (80%), enhancement of economic growth through increased participation of women in the real estate industry (77%), enhancement of gender equality thereby helping in achieving the third millennium goal (71%). The above analysis shows that women ownership of real property has some significant prospects as the response rate for each of the options is more than 50%.

In order to ascertain the means of reducing the effects of the identified constraints to real estate ownership by women in South-East Nigeria, Table 4.33 was used to show the respondents views on what could be done to improve the level of real estate ownership by women in the study area.

Table 4.33: Response on Means of Improving the Level of Real Estate Owned by Women in the Study Area

| Response option | SD | | D | | UN | | A | | SA | |
|--|-----|-------|-----|-------|-----|------|-----|-------|------|-------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| 1. Removal of the social, economic, legal, political and educational constraints to real estate ownership by women in South East Nigeria | 37 | 1.75 | 87 | 4.1 | 13 | 0.61 | 496 | 23.4 | 1487 | 70.14 |
| 2. Prescription of women property right in the statutory and customary law of Nigeria. | 0 | 0 | 266 | 3.11 | 139 | 6.56 | 670 | 31.60 | 1245 | 58.73 |
| 3. Enhancement/ increase in women's participation in higher echelon of power. | 69 | 3.25 | 103 | 4.86 | 33 | 1.56 | 862 | 40.66 | 1053 | 49.67 |
| 4. Removal of all discriminatory practices against women. | 94 | 4.43 | 126 | 5.94 | 54 | 2.55 | 738 | 34.82 | 1108 | 52.26 |
| 5. Eradication of gender inequality in the land market | 290 | 13.68 | 386 | 18.21 | 94 | 4.44 | 790 | 37.26 | 646 | 30.47 |
| 6 Removal of challenges faced by women in accessing finance through the mortgage institution | 98 | 4.62 | 356 | 16.79 | 93 | 4.39 | 582 | 27.45 | 991 | 46.75 |
| 7. Creation of awareness on the benefits of real estate ownership by women in the society. | 37 | 1.75 | 87 | 4.1 | 13 | 0.61 | 496 | 23.4 | 1487 | 70.14 |

Table 4.33 shows the respondents view on what could be done to improve the level of real estate ownership by women in the study area. 1.75% (37) of the respondents strongly disagreed that removal of the social, economic, legal, political and educational constraints to real estate ownership by women in South East Nigeria will

be a way forward while 4.3 percent (87) of the respondents disagreed to the option. 13 respondents representing 0.61 percent were indifferent while a total of 93.18 % strongly agreed/agreed (70.14% and 23.4%) respectively that removal of the social, economic, legal, political and educational constraints to real estate ownership by women in South East Nigeria will enhance women's property status in the area. On the other hand 58.73 percent of the respondents strongly agreed that prescription of women's property rights in the statutory and customary laws will help boost women's property status while 34.82% agreed to the option. More so, a total of 3.11 percent of the respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed to the option while 6.56 percent were undecided.

On the issue of enhancing/increasing women participation in the higher echelon of power, a total of 8.11% of the respondents were not in support of the option (strongly disagreed/disagreed) while a total of 90.33% of the respondents were in support of the opinion. The respondents also strongly agreed/agreed that elimination of all discriminatory practices against women (87.08%) will improve women access to property while 10.37% of the respondents' strongly disagreed/ agreed to that option.

A total of 31.89 % of the respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed that the eradication of gender inequalities in the land market will help improve women property status. However, a total of 67.74 % of the respondents agreed/strongly agreed to the option while 4.44% of the respondents were undecided.

A total of 74.20 % of the respondents agreed/strongly agreed that removal of challenges faced by women in accessing finance through the mortgage institutions will help improve the level of property ownership of women in the study area. On the other hand a total of 21.41 % of the respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed to the

option while 4.39 % of the respondents were undecided. A total of 93.10 % of the respondents strongly agreed/agreed that creation of awareness on the benefits of real estate ownership by women will help improve their property status while 5.85 % of the respondents disagreed.

The implication of the above analysis is that all the options are acceptable ways of enhancing real estate ownership by women as all the options scored 50% and above point for the respondents that agreed/strongly agreed to all the options.

4.6 TEST OF HYPOTHESES

Test of Hypotheses using Z-Test and One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS Version 23)

Decision rule: We accept the null hypothesis when the probability value is greater than the alpha value, otherwise we reject it.

Significant level = 0.05

Hypothesis I

H_0 : Real estate ownership by women in South-East Nigeria is not low compared to that of men

H_1 : Real estate ownership by women in South-East Nigeria is low compared to that of men.

Table 4.34: Descriptives Table for Analysis of Hypothesis I

| Variables | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | | Minimum | Maximum | Between-Component Variance |
|--|----|----------|----------------|------------|----------------------------------|-------------|---------|---------|----------------------------|
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | | | |
| Property owned by Men | 7 | 150.2857 | 180.52213 | 68.23095 | -16.6694 | 317.2408 | .00 | 520.00 | 1033.77512 |
| Property owned by Women | 7 | 152.5714 | 329.23946 | 124.44082 | -151.9243 | 457.0671 | .00 | 896.00 | |
| Residential Property Owned by Men | 5 | 104.0000 | 92.10320 | 41.18980 | -10.3612 | 218.3612 | 5.00 | 220.00 | |
| Residential Property Owned by Women | 5 | 16.4000 | 13.16435 | 5.88727 | .0543 | 32.7457 | .00 | 32.00 | |
| Commercial Property Owned by Men | 5 | 8.0000 | 4.74342 | 2.12132 | 2.1103 | 13.8897 | .00 | 12.00 | |
| Commercial Property Owned by Women | 5 | 3.0000 | 4.24264 | 1.89737 | -2.2679 | 8.2679 | .00 | 10.00 | |
| Recreational Property Owned by Men | 6 | 1.6667 | 2.06559 | .84327 | -.5010 | 3.8344 | .00 | 5.00 | |
| Recreational Property Owned by Women | 6 | .0000 | .00000 | .00000 | .0000 | .0000 | .00 | .00 | |
| Agricultural Property Owned by Men | 5 | 40.0000 | 41.98214 | 18.77498 | -12.1277 | 92.1277 | .00 | 105.00 | |
| Agricultural Property Owned Women | 5 | 10.8000 | 17.71158 | 7.92086 | -11.1918 | 32.7918 | .00 | 42.00 | |
| Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Men | 5 | 184.6000 | 263.56176 | 117.86840 | -142.6551 | 511.8551 | .00 | 589.00 | |
| Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Women | 5 | 31.0000 | 64.88066 | 29.01551 | -49.5600 | 111.5600 | .00 | 147.00 | |
| Total | 66 | 62.4091 | 151.26624 | 18.61959 | 25.2232 | 99.5950 | .00 | 896.00 | |
| Model | | | 148.05728 | 18.22459 | 25.8710 | 98.9472 | | | |
| Fixed Effects | | | | 20.49256 | 17.3053 | 107.5129 | | | |
| Random Effects | | | | | | | | | |

Table 4.35: ANOVA table for hypothesis I

| Variables | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|-------|
| Between Groups | 303564.278 | 11 | 27596.753 | 1.259 | .0027 |
| Within Groups | 1183731.676 | 54 | 21920.957 | | |
| Total | 1487295.955 | 65 | | | |

Analysis of table 4.35 shows that the probability value (0.0027) is less than the alpha value (0.05), the researcher therefore accept the alternative hypothesis and concludes that real estate ownership by women in South-East Nigeria is low compared to that of men.

See full detailed calculation on Appendix 4A.

Hypothesis II

H_0 : All the constraint factors have no significant effect on real estate ownership by women in South East Nigeria.

H_1 : All the constraint factors have a significant effect on real estate ownership by women in South East Nigeria.

Table 4.36: Descriptive Statistics for test of hypothesis II

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Minimum | Maximum |
|--------------------|----|--------|----------------|---------|---------|
| Constraint factors | 14 | 2.9166 | .78424 | 1.86 | 4.33 |

Table 4.37: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

| | | Constraint factors |
|-----------------------------------|----------------|--------------------|
| N | | 14 |
| Normal Parameters ^{a, b} | Mean | 2.9166 |
| | Std. Deviation | .78424 |
| Most Extreme Differences | Absolute | .131 |
| | Positive | .131 |
| | Negative | -.107 |
| Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z | | .490 |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | | .0070 |

a. Test distribution is Normal.

The analysis in table 4.37 shows that the probability value (0.007) is less than the alpha value (0.05), the researcher therefore accept the alternative hypothesis and conclude that constraint factors has a significant effect on real estate ownership by women in South East Nigeria

See full detailed calculation in Appendix 4B

Hypothesis III

H_0 : There is no significant difference in the extent to which the identified constraint factors affect real estate ownership by women among the individual states in the South East Nigeria.

H_1 : There is a significant difference in the extent to which the identified constraint factors affect real estate ownership by women among the individual states in the South East Nigeria.

Table 4.38: Descriptives for hypothesis III

| Variable | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | | Minimum | Maximum | Between-Component Variance |
|----------------|----|-------|----------------|---------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------|---------|---------|----------------------------|
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | | | |
| Anambra State | 25 | .6848 | .20565 | .04113 | .5999 | .7697 | .32 | .94 | |
| Enugu State | 25 | .6628 | .21437 | .04287 | .5743 | .7513 | .26 | .92 | |
| Imo State | 25 | .6628 | .20299 | .04060 | .5790 | .7466 | .28 | .89 | |
| Total | 75 | .6701 | .20517 | .02369 | .6229 | .7173 | .26 | .94 | |
| Model | | | | | | | | | |
| Fixed Effects | | | .20773 | .02399 | .6223 | .7179 | | | .00156 |
| Random Effects | | | | .02399 ^a | .5669 ^a | .7733 ^a | | | |

Table 4.39: ANOVA for hypothesis III

| Variable | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|------|------|
| Between Groups | .008 | 2 | .004 | .093 | .011 |
| Within Groups | 3.107 | 72 | .043 | | |
| Total | 3.115 | 74 | | | |

The analysis in table 4.39 shows that the probability value (0.011) is less than the alpha value (0.05), the researcher therefore accept the alternative hypothesis and conclude that there is a significant difference in the extent to which the identified

constraint factors affect real estate ownership by women among the individual states in the South East Nigeria.

See full detailed calculation in Appendix 4C

Hypothesis IV

H_0 : The identified factors do not have significant effect on women's contribution to the Nigerian economy

H_1 : The identified factors have significant effect on women's contribution to the Nigerian economy

Table 4.40: Descriptives for hypothesis IV

| Variables | | | | | | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Minimu m | | Between n- Compo nent | |
|---------------------|----------------|-----|---------|-------------------|---------------|---|----------------|-------------|--------------------------------|--|
| | | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | Maxim um | Varianc e | |
| Economic Factors | | 85 | 3.3621 | .8708 | .30788 | 2.6345 | 4.0905 | 1.39 | 4.20 | |
| Law/legal Factors | | 79 | 3.3621 | 1.13257 | .42807 | 2.3154 | 4.4103 | .98 | 4.43 | |
| Political Factors | | 40 | 3.5850 | .8014 | .40072 | 2.3097 | 4.8603 | 2.48 | 4.22 | |
| Educational Factors | | 30 | 4.1500 | .0300 | .01732 | 4.0755 | 4.2245 | 4.12 | 4.18 | |
| Social Factors | | 159 | .6440 | .2290 | .05915 | .5171 | .7709 | .34 | .91 | |
| Total | | 374 | 2.34877 | 1.585 | .26070 | 1.8197 | 2.8771 | .34 | 4.43 | |
| Model | Fixed Effects | | | .69973 | .11504 | | 2.1141 | 2.5827 | | |
| | Random Effects | | | | .85099 | | -.0144 | 4.7111 | 2.68126 | |

Table 4.41: ANOVA for hypothesis IV

| Variables | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|--------|-------|
| Between Groups | 74.860 | 4 | 18.715 | 38.223 | .0001 |
| Within Groups | 15.668 | 32 | .490 | | |
| Total | 90.528 | 36 | | | |

Table 4.41 shows that the probability value (0.0001) is less than the alpha value (0.05), the researcher therefore accept the alternative hypothesis and concludes that the identified factors have significant effect on women's contribution to the nation's economy. See full calculation of the analysis in appendix 4D.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, a summary of the findings made after data analysis in chapter 4 were presented. Also conclusions and recommendations were from the data analyzed.

5.1 Summary of Findings

This study evaluated the constraints to real estate ownership by women in the south-east Nigeria. In order to solve the problem of study, an aim clearly defined was pursued using objectives. Four hypotheses were also formulated to strengthen the results of the research.

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test hypothesis 1, 3 and 4 while the Z- test statistics was used to test the second hypothesis.

The summaries of findings are as follows

1. The magnitude of real estate ownership by women in south – East Nigeria is low compared to that of men (see tables 14-21 and test of hypothesis 1).
2. The type of property usually owned by women includes; residential and agricultural properties (see table 14).
3. Most of the respondents (women) that own properties acquired it through purchase and gift while men that own properties acquire it through purchase and inheritance (see figures 7a-7c).

4. There are significant factors that affect real estate ownership by women in South – East Nigeria which include socio-cultural factors, economic/financial factors as well as legal factors (see tables 27-31 and test of hypothesis 2).
5. The identified sub economic/financial factors that affect women ownership of property include; lack of resources, unemployment, difficulty in accessing financial leverage and others (see table 23).
6. The important sub legal factors include non prescription of women's property rights in the customary and statutory laws, lack of secured land rights, discriminatory inheritance laws among others (see table 24).
7. There is a significant difference in the extent to which the identified factors constrain real estate ownership by women in the individual states (Anambra, Enugu and Imo states, see tables 32-36 and test of hypothesis 3).
8. The identified constraint factors have significant effect on women's contribution to the Nigerian economy and nation building (see table 39 and test of hypothesis 4).
9. The identified effects include: enhances poverty rate among women, reduced the quantum of real estate owned by women among others (see table 39).
10. There are benefits/prospects of real estate ownership by women which include,

Reduction in level of poverty among women and reduction in the gap between demand and supply of real estate products (see table 40).
11. It was also found out that the following moderating variables will help reduce the effects of the constraining factors on women ownership of property. Eradication of socio-cultural, economic, legal, political and educational factors hindering women

from ownership of properties, prescription of women property rights in the statutory and customary laws, increase in the participation of women in the higher echelon of power and removal of all discriminatory practices against women among others (see table 42).

5.2 Conclusion

Going by the results of the analyses done, the following conclusions were made

Women in South – East Nigeria still suffer discrimination in respect of real estate ownership which undermines the Millennium Development Goal 3 (MDG3) of achieving gender equality and poverty reduction. It was also discovered that education is the most key factor that affect women ownership of property as opposed to Socio – cultural factor being speculated by previous writers. Women access and ownership of property are key to their contribution to the Nigerian economy, nation building as well as overall development of the country.

There is need to check mate the identified constraint factors so as to boost women activity in the real estate sector to help reduce the current gap between demand and supply of real properties and reduce poverty level among women.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings the study recommends as follows;

1. There should be increased awareness on the benefits of real estate ownership by women. This could be achieved through organization of seminars and workshop by both government and NGO'S

2. The law and legal framework concerning women's right to property should be strengthened by specifying these rights in the Nigerian land law.
3. There should be increased efforts in educating women on their rights to property ownership
4. The government and stakeholders in the real estate sector should work towards the elimination of all challenges faced by women in real estate ownership.
5. Financial institutions should eliminate all challenges faced by women in accessing financial leverage.
6. Women should be given more opportunities in the high echelon of power since it is he who wears the shoes knows where it pinches most. If women are given more opportunities in the high echelon of power they will be in a better position to advance the course of women.
7. There should be eradication of gender inequality in the land market.
8. Non-governmental organizations should advocate the eradication of all discriminatory practices against women
9. Women should be empowered by providing enabling environment for wealth creation and better employment opportunities.
10. Government should intensify effort in improving women access to education.

5.4 Contributions to Knowledge

This work contributed to knowledge in the following ways:

1. Using some empirical data, this work has shown that the level of real estate ownership by women in the South- East Nigeria is low (see table 14).
2. This work identified and classified the constraints to real estate ownership by women into major and sub factors (see tables 22-31).
3. The effect of the constaint factors to real estate ownership by women in South – East, Nigeria on women contribution to national economy was demonsrated in this work (see table 39).
4. The moderating variables that will help increase the level of real estate ownership by women was shown in this work (see table 42).
- 5 This work showed the extent to which the constraints to real estate ownership affect women ownership of real estate in the individual states of the South – East (see tables 32 – 36).

5.5 Suggested Areas for Further Studies

The following areas are suggested for further studies;

1. Analysis of the effects of women ownership of property on the real estate investment market in South –East Nigeria.
2. Appraisal of the contributions of women in the development of the real estate sector in Nigeria.

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APPENDIX I

Table for Determining Sample Size for a Finite Population

| <i>N</i> | <i>S</i> | <i>N</i> | <i>S</i> | <i>N</i> | <i>S</i> |
|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 10 | 10 | 220 | 140 | 1200 | 291 |
| 15 | 14 | 230 | 144 | 1300 | 297 |
| 20 | 19 | 240 | 148 | 1400 | 302 |
| 25 | 24 | 250 | 152 | 1500 | 306 |
| 30 | 28 | 260 | 155 | 1600 | 310 |
| 35 | 32 | 270 | 159 | 1700 | 313 |
| 40 | 36 | 280 | 162 | 1800 | 317 |
| 45 | 40 | 290 | 165 | 1900 | 320 |
| 50 | 44 | 300 | 169 | 2000 | 322 |
| 55 | 48 | 320 | 175 | 2200 | 327 |
| 60 | 52 | 340 | 181 | 2400 | 331 |
| 65 | 56 | 360 | 186 | 2600 | 335 |
| 70 | 59 | 380 | 191 | 2800 | 338 |
| 75 | 63 | 400 | 196 | 3000 | 341 |
| 80 | 66 | 420 | 201 | 3500 | 346 |
| 85 | 70 | 440 | 205 | 4000 | 351 |
| 90 | 73 | 460 | 210 | 4500 | 354 |
| 95 | 76 | 480 | 214 | 5000 | 357 |
| 100 | 80 | 500 | 217 | 6000 | 361 |
| 110 | 86 | 550 | 226 | 7000 | 364 |
| 120 | 92 | 600 | 234 | 8000 | 367 |
| 130 | 97 | 650 | 242 | 9000 | 368 |
| 140 | 103 | 700 | 248 | 10000 | 370 |
| 150 | 108 | 750 | 254 | 15000 | 375 |
| 160 | 113 | 800 | 260 | 20000 | 377 |
| 170 | 118 | 850 | 265 | 30000 | 379 |
| 180 | 123 | 900 | 269 | 40000 | 380 |
| 190 | 127 | 950 | 274 | 50000 | 381 |
| 200 | 132 | 1000 | 278 | 75000 | 382 |
| 210 | 136 | 1100 | 285 | 100000 | 384 |

Note.—*N* is population size. *S* is sample size.

Source: Krejcie & Morgan, 1970

Formula for determining sample size

$$s = \frac{X^2 NP(1 - P) + d^2 (N - 1) + X^2 P(1 - P)}{d^2}$$

s = required sample size.

X^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841).

N = the population size.

P = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size).

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05).

Source: Krejcie & Morgan, 1970

The Table is constructed using the following formula for determining sample size:

APPENDIX 2

QUESTIONNAIRE



NNAMDI AZIKIWE UNIVERSITY, AWKA
FACULTY OF ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ESTATE MANAGEMENT

our ref.....

Your ref.....

Date...23rd September,2016.

Dear Respondent,

I am a PhD student of the above University and Department

This questionnaire is an important aid to my ongoing research on the topic:
Constraints to Real Estate Ownership by Women in South-East Nigeria.The
research is in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of
Philosophy (PhD) in Estate Management.

Please, kindly answer the questions below to the best of your knowledge and in all
honesty. The study is purely for academic purposes and as such, utmost
confidentiality is assured in all the information provided.

Thanks for your anticipated response.

Yours Sincerely,

Obodoh, Chikasi Mercy

Please tick (✓) in the boxes provided as applicable

SECTION A:- SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

1. Indicate State.....LGA.....Town.....
2. Indicate your Sex: (a) Male (b) Female
3. Indicate Age: (a) Less than 20 years (b) 21 – 39 years (c) 40 – 59 years (d) 60 – 79 years (e) Above 80 years.
4. Indicate your academic qualification: () FSLC () SSCE/GCE () ND/NCE () B.Sc/HND () M.Sc and above
5. What is your occupation: () Farming () Trading () Civil Servant/ Public Servant () Unemployed () Private Sector Employee () Entrepreneur
6. Marital status: () Single () Married () Widow () Separated () Divorced

SECTION B: TYPE AND MAGNITUDE OF REAL ESTATE OWNERSHIP

7. Indicate category of property owned by you: () Residential () Commercial () Industrial () Recreational () Agricultural () Bare land.
8. If Residential, indicate type: () Bungalow () Duplex () Block of flats () Tenement () Massionette.
9. If Commercial, indicate type: () Shops () Offices () Warehouses () Shopping Malls () Stores.
10. If Recreational, indicate type: () Hotels/Guest houses () Amusement Parks () Relaxation Centres () Game Reserve () Club Houses.
11. If Agricultural, indicate type: () Farm land () Farm Ranch () Poultry Farm
12. If Industrial, indicate type: () Light Manufacturing () Medium Industrial Production () Mineral Extraction/Processing () others specify
.....
13. How did you acquire the property owned: () Inheritance () Purchase () Gift () Government Allocation.

14. How many property do you own:

Number

| Type of Property | 1 – 5 | 5 - 10 | 10 - 15 | 15 - 20 | 20 & |
|------------------|-------|--------|---------|---------|------|
|------------------|-------|--------|---------|---------|------|

| | | | | | |
|--------------|--|--|--|--|--------------|
| | | | | | above |
| Residential | | | | | |
| Commercial | | | | | |
| Agricultural | | | | | |
| Recreational | | | | | |
| Industrial | | | | | |

SECTION C: FACTORS CONSTRAINING REAL ESTATE OWNERSHIP IN SOUTH EAST NIGERIA

15. What are the factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in south-East Nigeria

| S/N | FACTORS | PLEASE SELECT HERE |
|------------|--------------------|---------------------------|
| 1 | Socio-cultural | |
| 2 | Economic/financial | |
| 3 | Law/legal | |
| 4 | Political | |
| 5 | Educational | |

16. How significant are the under listed social factors in constraining real estate ownership by women in south-east Nigeria

| Factors | Very Significant | Significant | Undecided | Insignificant | Very Insignificant |
|--|-------------------------|--------------------|------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| Perceived non permanency of women in their natal homes | | | | | |
| Patriarchal system | | | | | |
| Cultural biases about women | | | | | |
| Perceived traditional role of women | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Marital status | | | | | |
| Widowhood practices | | | | | |
| Male privileges in marriage | | | | | |
| Perception of women as property | | | | | |
| Lack of support from spouse and fellow women | | | | | |
| Male preference in inheritance practices | | | | | |
| Gender inequality in the land market | | | | | |
| Male bias in land redistribution practices | | | | | |

17. How significant are the under listed economic/financial factors in constraining real estate ownership by women in south-east Nigeria

| Factors | Very Significant | Significant | Undecided | Insignificant | Very Insignificant |
|--|-------------------------|--------------------|------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| Lack of resources | | | | | |
| Difficulty in accessing financial leverage | | | | | |
| Lack of required collateral | | | | | |
| Economic fundamentalism | | | | | |
| Policies and practices that privilege profits over people deny women their rights as | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| workers or to do work | | | | | |
| Unemployment | | | | | |
| Heavy burden of unpaid domestic work | | | | | |
| Lack of time to engage in income earning activities due to child bearing/rearing activities | | | | | |

18. How significant are the under listed law/legal factors in constraining real estate ownership by women in south-east Nigeria

| Factors | Very Significant | Significant | Undecided | Insignificant | Very Insignificant |
|--|-------------------------|--------------------|------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| Non prescription of women land rights in:- | | | | | |
| (a) Customary laws | | | | | |
| (b) Religious laws | | | | | |
| (c) Statutory laws | | | | | |
| Barriers in seeking access to justice | | | | | |
| Discriminatory laws governing inheritance | | | | | |
| Lack of independent right to own | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| and manage land | | | | | |
| Lack of secured land tenure | | | | | |

19. How significant are the under listed political factors in constraining real estate ownership by women in south-east Nigeria

| Factors | Very Significant | Significant | Undecided | Insignificant | Very Insignificant |
|--|-----------------------------|--------------------|------------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|
| Socio- cultural attitude | | | | | |
| Lack of required experience | | | | | |
| Low participation of women in influential echelons of power | | | | | |
| Overburden of domestic responsibiliti es | | | | | |

20. How significant are the under listed educational factors in constraining real estate ownership by women in south-east Nigeria

| Factors | Very Significant | Significant | Undecided | Insignificant | Very Insignificant |
|--|-------------------------|--------------------|------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| Low level of education | | | | | |
| Lack of knowledge by women about their land rights | | | | | |
| Lack of required experience | | | | | |
| Overburden of domestic responsibilities | | | | | |

21. List the five most significant sub-factors constraining real estate ownership by women in South East Nigeria (in order of significance) in your own opinion.

| FACTORS | Level of Significance | | | | |
|--------------------|------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | 1 st | 2 nd | 3 rd | 4 th | 5 th |
| Socio-cultural | | | | | |
| Economic/Financial | | | | | |
| Law/Legal | | | | | |
| Educational | | | | | |
| Political | | | | | |

22. To what extent do the factors identified above constraint women from owning real properties in your area

| FACTORS | Very Insignifica nt (1) | Insignifica nt (2) | Modera te (3) | Significa nt (4) | Very Insignifica nt (5) |
|------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|
| Socio-cultural | | | | | |
| Economic/Finan cial | | | | | |
| Law/Legal | | | | | |
| Educational | | | | | |
| Political | | | | | |

Key: Very Significant - 5

 Significant - 4

 Undecided - 3

 Insignificant - 2

 Very Insignificant - 1

**SECTION D: EVALUATION OF EFFECTS OF THE FACTORS CONSTRAINING
REAL ESTATE OWNERSHIP BY WOMEN IN SOUTH EAST, NIGERIA ON
WOMEN CONTRIBUTION TO NATIONS ECONOMY**

23. Please indicate the seriousness of the cumulative effects of the various factors constraining real estate ownership by women in South East Nigeria on women's contribution to the nation's economy

| Response Option | Cumulative Effects | | | | |
|---|--------------------|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Deprived women free access of real properties by inheritance (husband/father) | | | | | |
| Reduced women interests in owning properties | | | | | |
| Reduced women ability to invest in property | | | | | |
| Limited the capacity of women to save money for real estate investment | | | | | |
| Reduced the capacity of women to diversify their real estate investments | | | | | |
| Reduced the quantum of real estates owned by women | | | | | |
| Enhanced poverty rate among women in the South-East, Nigeria | | | | | |
| Negatively affected access of women to credit facilities for investment purposes | | | | | |
| Negatively affected the development of a viable real estate market in the South-East | | | | | |
| Limited the financial ability of women to cater for their families economically | | | | | |
| Deprived women of a critical means of job and wealth creation | | | | | |
| Limited the contribution of women to the overall economic development of the South-East | | | | | |
| Negatively affected women's self-worth and value | | | | | |

(Key: 1- Very insignificant, 2- Insignificant, 3- Moderate, 4-Significant 5- Very Significant)

SECTION E: PROSPECTS OF REAL ESTATE OWNERSHIP BY WOMEN IN SOUTH EAST NIGERIA

24. Do you agree that there are benefits of women owning real estate in your area: Strongly agree (5) Agree (4) Don't know (3) Disagree (2) Strongly disagree (1)
25. What are the benefits/prospects of women owning real estate in your area: (Tick as many as applicable)
- ☐ An important saving vehicle
 - ☐ A symbol of success and well being
 - ☐ An important vehicle for raising women financial and economic stability
 - ☐ Helps to improve women access to income
 - ☐ helps to improve women roles like children rearing and family supportive roles
 - ☐ Provide critical resources for women particularly when the house breaks down in the event of male migration, war, abandonment, divorce, polygamous relationships, illness, death etc.
 - ☐ It helps to boost activities in the real estate market
 - ☐ It will help reduce the gap in demand and supply of real estate products
 - ☐ Key driver to overall economic development
26. What can be done to improve the level of real estate ownership by women in your area: (Tick as many as applicable).
- ☐ Removal of social , economic, legal,political and educational constrains to real estate ownership by women in south east Nigeria
 - ☐ Prescription of women property rights in statutory and customary laws of Nigeria
 - ☐ Enhacement/increase in women participation in the higher echelon of power.
 - ☐ Removal off all discriminatory practices against women
 - ☐ Eradication of gender inequality in the land market
 - ☐ Removal of challenges faced by women in accessing finance through the mortgage institution

() Creation of awareness on the benefits of real estate ownership by women in the society.

APPENDIX 3

Detailed calculation of RII

Rating of the socio-cultural factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in Anambra state

| Socio-cultural factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | R11 | Rank |
|--|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Patriarchal system | 0 | 0 | 65 | 320 | 200 | 120 | 0 | 0.50 | 5 th |
| Cultural biases about women | 450 | 180 | 75 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.94 | 1 st |
| Perceived traditional role of women | 0 | 72 | 26 | 0 | 130 | 149 | 328 | 0.32 | 7 th |
| Male in inheritance rights | 495 | 160 | 30 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.94 | 1 st |
| Gender inequality in the land market | 320 | 205 | 110 | 50 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 0.87 | 3 rd |
| Male bias in land redistribution practices | 0 | 50 | 350 | 180 | 80 | 45 | 0 | 0.63 | 4 th |
| Perceived non permanency of women in their natal homes | 0 | 0 | 120 | 190 | 300 | 20 | 75 | 0.48 | 6 th |

Rating of the Economic/financial factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in Anambra state

| Economic/financial factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | R11 | Rank |
|--|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Lack of resources | 485 | 165 | 30 | 15 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0.94 | 1 st |
| Difficulty in accessing financial leverage | 370 | 218 | 110 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.91 | 3 rd |
| Lack of required collateral | 311 | 220 | 85 | 49 | 40 | 0 | 0 | 0.86 | 4 th |
| Policies and practices that privilege profits over people and deny women their rights as workers and to work | 65 | 80 | 235 | 100 | 130 | 95 | 0 | 0.63 | 5 th |
| Unemployment | 415 | 190 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.92 | 2 nd |
| Heavy burden of unpaid domestic work | 0 | 97 | 65 | 100 | 220 | 123 | 100 | 0.47 | 6 th |
| Lack of time to engage in income earning activities due to child bearing/rearing activities | 0 | 0 | 115 | 135 | 190 | 55 | 210 | 0.41 | 7 th |

**Ratings of law and legal factors that constrain real estate ownership by women
in Anambra state**

| Legal factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | R11 | Rank |
|---|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Non prescription of women's right in customary and statutory laws | 497 | 198 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0.94 | 1 st |
| Barriers in seeking access to justice | 27 | 50 | 396 | 122 | 108 | 0.53 | 4 th |
| Discriminatory inheritance laws | 190 | 372 | 97 | 46 | 0 | 0.80 | 2 nd |
| Lack of independent right to own and manage property | 0 | 80 | 120 | 185 | 320 | 0.39 | 5 th |
| Lack of secured land tenure | 27 | 87 | 402 | 120 | 74 | 0.50 | 3 rd |

Ratings of the political factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in Anambra state

| Political factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | R11 | Rank |
|---|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Socio-cultural attitude | 145 | 220 | 340 | 0.57 | 3 rd |
| Low participation of women in influential echelons of power | 375 | 280 | 50 | 0.82 | 1 st |
| Overburden of domestic responsibilities | 292 | 265 | 148 | 0.73 | 2 nd |

Ratings of the educational factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in Anambra state

| Educational factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | R11 | Rank |
|---|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Level of education | 214 | 385 | 106 | 0.72 | 2 nd |
| Lack of knowledge by women of their land rights | 402 | 203 | 100 | 0.81 | 1 st |
| Lack of required experience | 114 | 215 | 259 | 0.49 | 3 rd |

Rating of the socio-cultural factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in Enugu state

| Socio-cultural factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | R11 | Rank |
|--|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Patriarchal system | 88 | 165 | 108 | 296 | 45 | 18 | 0 | 0.67 | 4 th |
| Cultural biases about women | 415 | 196 | 99 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.92 | 1 st |
| Perceived traditional role of women | 0 | 91 | 79 | 25 | 100 | 290 | 135 | 0.41 | 7 th |
| Male preference in inheritance rights | 320 | 295 | 60 | 45 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.89 | 2 nd |
| Gender inequality in the land market | 0 | 195 | 132 | 204 | 99 | 90 | 0 | 0.62 | 5 th |
| Male bias in land redistribution practices | 266 | 195 | 143 | 116 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.83 | 3 rd |
| Perceived non permanency of women in their natal homes | 0 | 0 | 112 | 198 | 203 | 120 | 87 | 0.45 | 6 th |

Ratings of the economic/financial factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in Enugu state

| Economic/financial factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | R11 | Rank |
|--|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Lack of resources | 409 | 202 | 85 | 24 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.91 | 1 st |
| Difficulty in accessing financial leverage | 334 | 187 | 103 | 54 | 42 | 0 | 0 | 0.86 | 3 rd |
| Lack of required collateral | 289 | 201 | 98 | 77 | 55 | 0 | 0 | 0.83 | 4 th |
| Policies and practices that privilege profits over people and deny women their rights as workers and to work | 0 | 0 | 217 | 238 | 112 | 98 | 55 | 0.33 | 7 th |
| Unemployment | 397 | 215 | 108 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.91 | 1 st |
| Heavy burden of unpaid domestic work | 0 | 92 | 135 | 198 | 200 | 55 | 40 | 0.41 | 5 th |
| Lack of time to engage in income earning activities due to child bearing/rearing activities | 0 | 0 | 27 | 150 | 100 | 260 | 178 | 0.35 | 6 th |

Ratings of law and legal factors that constrain Real Estate ownership by women in Enugu state

| Legal factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | R11 | Rank |
|---|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Non prescription of women's right in customary and statutory laws | 410 | 193 | 117 | 0 | 0 | 0.88 | 2 nd |
| Barriers in seeking access to justice | 60 | 85 | 357 | 118 | 100 | 0.57 | 3 rd |
| Discriminatory inheritance laws | 435 | 206 | 79 | 0 | 0 | 0.89 | 1 st |
| Lack of independent right to own and manage property | 0 | 0 | 28 | 285 | 307 | 0.26 | 5 th |
| Lack of secured land tenure | 22 | 46 | 445 | 129 | 78 | 0.55 | 4 th |

Ratings of the political factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in Enugu state

| Political factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | R11 | Rank |
|--|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Socio-cultural attitude | 160 | 346 | 215 | 0.64 | 2 nd |
| Low participation of women influential echelons of power | 419 | 240 | 61 | 0.83 | 1 st |
| Overburden of domestic responsibilities | 0 | 348 | 372 | 0.49 | 3 rd |

Ratings of the educational factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in Enugu state

| Educational factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | R11 | Rank |
|---|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Level of education | 410 | 213 | 97 | 0.81 | 1 st |
| Lack of knowledge by women of their land rights | 225 | 394 | 101 | 0.73 | 2 nd |
| Lack of required experience | 104 | 225 | 391 | 0.53 | 3 rd |

Rating of the socio-cultural factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in Imo state

| Socio-cultural factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | R11 | Rank |
|-------------------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Patriarchal system | 0 | 0 | 180 | 305 | 130 | 80 | 0 | 0.55 | 4 th |
| Cultural biases about women | 316 | 25 | 100 | 64 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.88 | 1 st |
| Perceived traditional role of women | 0 | 0 | 0 | 56 | 99 | 241 | 299 | 0.28 | 7 th |
| Male preference in | 200 | 225 | 270 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.84 | 3 rd |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| inheritance rights | | | | | | | | | |
| Gender inequality in the land market | 0 | 0 | 110 | 190 | 285 | 77 | 33 | 0.48 | 5 th |
| Male bias in land redistribution practices | 220 | 325 | 95 | 55 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.86 | 2 nd |
| Perceived non permanency of women in their natal homes | 0 | 0 | 0 | 89 | 136 | 240 | 230 | 0.30 | 6 th |

Ratings of the economic/financial factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in Imo state

| Economic/financial factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | R11 | Rank |
|--|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Lack of resources | 310 | 259 | 83 | 43 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.89 | 1 st |
| Difficulty in accessing financial leverage | 195 | 180 | 235 | 85 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.81 | 3 rd |
| Lack of required collateral | 130 | 147 | 188 | 200 | 30 | 0 | 0 | 0.74 | 4 th |
| Policies and practices that privilege profits over people and deny women their | 0 | 0 | 0 | 130 | 100 | 195 | 270 | 0.30 | 7 th |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-----|-----|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| rights as workers and to work | | | | | | | | | |
| Unemployment | 295 | 267 | 60 | 48 | 25 | 0 | 0 | 0.87 | 2 nd |
| Heavy burden of unpaid domestic work | 0 | 0 | 0 | 170 | 211 | 125 | 189 | 0.36 | 6 th |
| Lack of time to engage in income earning activities due to child bearing/rearing activities | 0 | 0 | 68 | 120 | 295 | 12 | 100 | 0.42 | 7 th |

**Ratings of law and legal factors that constrain Real Estate ownership by women
in Imo state**

| Legal factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | R11 | Rank |
|--|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|------|-----------------|
| Non prescription of women's right in customary and statutory laws | 321 | 280 | 94 | 0 | 0 | 0.87 | 1 st |
| Barriers in seeking access to justice | 180 | 202 | 265 | 48 | 0 | 0.75 | 3 rd |
| Discriminatory inheritance laws | 301 | 290 | 104 | 0 | 0 | 0.86 | 2 nd |
| Lack of independent right to own and manage | 0 | 260 | 195 | 180 | 60 | 0.59 | 5 th |

| | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|-----|-----|-----|----|---|------|-----------------|
| property | | | | | | | |
| Lack of secured land tenure | 180 | 202 | 265 | 48 | 0 | 0.75 | 3 rd |

Ratings of the political factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in Imo state

| Political factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | R11 | Rank |
|---|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Socio-cultural attitude | 240 | 325 | 130 | 0.72 | 2 nd |
| Low participation of women in influential echelons of power | 306 | 275 | 114 | 0.76 | 1 st |
| Overburden of domestic responsibilities | 90 | 345 | 260 | 0.56 | 3 rd |

Ratings of the educational factors that constrain real estate ownership by women in Imo state

| Educational factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | R11 | Rank |
|---|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------|
| Level of education | 235 | 357 | 103 | 0.73 | 2 nd |
| Lack of knowledge by women of their land rights | 330 | 255 | 110 | 0.77 | 1 st |
| Lack of required experience | 160 | 290 | 245 | 0.63 | 3 rd |

APPENDIX 4A

Full detailed calculation of test of hypotheses

Test of Hypothesis I

Descriptives

Variables

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | | Minimum | Maximum | Between-Component Variance |
|--|----|----------|----------------|------------|----------------------------------|-------------|---------|---------|----------------------------|
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | | | |
| Property owned by Men | 7 | 150.2857 | 180.52213 | 68.23095 | -16.6694 | 317.2408 | .00 | 520.00 | |
| Property owned by Women | 7 | 152.5714 | 329.23946 | 124.44082 | -151.9243 | 457.0671 | .00 | 896.00 | |
| Residential Property Owned by Men | 5 | 104.0000 | 92.10320 | 41.18980 | -10.3612 | 218.3612 | 5.00 | 220.00 | |
| Residential Property Owned by Women | 5 | 16.4000 | 13.16435 | 5.88727 | .0543 | 32.7457 | .00 | 32.00 | |
| Commercial Property Owned by Men | 5 | 8.0000 | 4.74342 | 2.12132 | 2.1103 | 13.8897 | .00 | 12.00 | |
| Commercial Property Owned by Women | 5 | 3.0000 | 4.24264 | 1.89737 | -2.2679 | 8.2679 | .00 | 10.00 | |
| Recreational Property Owned by Men | 6 | 1.6667 | 2.06559 | .84327 | -.5010 | 3.8344 | .00 | 5.00 | |
| Recreational Property Owned by Women | 6 | .0000 | .00000 | .00000 | .0000 | .0000 | .00 | .00 | |
| Agricultural Property Owned by Men | 5 | 40.0000 | 41.98214 | 18.77498 | -12.1277 | 92.1277 | .00 | 105.00 | |
| Agricultural Property Owned Women | 5 | 10.8000 | 17.71158 | 7.92086 | -11.1918 | 32.7918 | .00 | 42.00 | |
| Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Men | 5 | 184.6000 | 263.56176 | 117.86840 | -142.6551 | 511.8551 | .00 | 589.00 | |
| Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Women | 5 | 31.0000 | 64.88066 | 29.01551 | -49.5600 | 111.5600 | .00 | 147.00 | |
| Total | 66 | 62.4091 | 151.26624 | 18.61959 | 25.2232 | 99.5950 | .00 | 896.00 | |
| Model Fixed Effects | | | 148.05728 | 18.22459 | 25.8710 | 98.9472 | | | |
| Random Effects | | | | 20.49256 | 17.3053 | 107.5129 | | | 1033.77512 |

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Variables

| Levene Statistic | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|------------------|-----|-----|------|
| 4.151 | 11 | 54 | .000 |

ANOVA

Variables

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|------|
| Between Groups | 303564.278 | 11 | 27596.753 | 1.259 | .273 |
| Within Groups | 1183731.676 | 54 | 21920.957 | | |
| Total | 1487295.955 | 65 | | | |

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: variables

| | | Mean Difference (I- J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|---------------------------------|--|------------------------------|------------|------|-------------------------|----------------|
| (I) factors | (J) factors | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| LSD Property owned by Men | Property owned by Women | -2.28571 | 79.13994 | .977 | -160.9517 | 156.3803 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Men | 46.28571 | 86.69346 | .596 | -127.5242 | 220.0956 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Women | 133.88571 | 86.69346 | .128 | -39.9242 | 307.6956 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Men | 142.28571 | 86.69346 | .107 | -31.5242 | 316.0956 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Women | 147.28571 | 86.69346 | .095 | -26.5242 | 321.0956 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Men | 148.61905 | 82.37146 | .077 | -16.5258 | 313.7639 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Women | 150.28571 | 82.37146 | .074 | -14.8591 | 315.4306 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned by Men | 110.28571 | 86.69346 | .209 | -63.5242 | 284.0956 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned Women | 139.48571 | 86.69346 | .113 | -34.3242 | 313.2956 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Men | -34.31429 | 86.69346 | .694 | -208.1242 | 139.4956 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Women | 119.28571 | 86.69346 | .175 | -54.5242 | 293.0956 |
| Property owned by Women | Property owned by Men | 2.28571 | 79.13994 | .977 | -156.3803 | 160.9517 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Men | 48.57143 | 86.69346 | .578 | -125.2385 | 222.3814 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Women | 136.17143 | 86.69346 | .122 | -37.6385 | 309.9814 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Men | 144.57143 | 86.69346 | .101 | -29.2385 | 318.3814 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Women | 149.57143 | 86.69346 | .090 | -24.2385 | 323.3814 |

| | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|------------|----------|------|-----------|----------|
| | Recreational Property Owned by Men | 150.90476 | 82.37146 | .072 | -14.2401 | 316.0496 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Women | 152.57143 | 82.37146 | .069 | -12.5734 | 317.7163 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned by Men | 112.57143 | 86.69346 | .200 | -61.2385 | 286.3814 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned Women | 141.77143 | 86.69346 | .108 | -32.0385 | 315.5814 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Men | -32.02857 | 86.69346 | .713 | -205.8385 | 141.7814 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Women | 121.57143 | 86.69346 | .167 | -52.2385 | 295.3814 |
| | | | | | | |
| Residential Property Owned by Men | Property owned by Men | -46.28571 | 86.69346 | .596 | -220.0956 | 127.5242 |
| | Property owned by Women | -48.57143 | 86.69346 | .578 | -222.3814 | 125.2385 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Women | 87.60000 | 93.63964 | .354 | -100.1362 | 275.3362 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Men | 96.00000 | 93.63964 | .310 | -91.7362 | 283.7362 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Women | 101.00000 | 93.63964 | .286 | -86.7362 | 288.7362 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Men | 102.33333 | 89.65313 | .259 | -77.4104 | 282.0770 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Women | 104.00000 | 89.65313 | .251 | -75.7437 | 283.7437 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned by Men | 64.00000 | 93.63964 | .497 | -123.7362 | 251.7362 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned Women | 93.20000 | 93.63964 | .324 | -94.5362 | 280.9362 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Men | -80.60000 | 93.63964 | .393 | -268.3362 | 107.1362 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Women | 73.00000 | 93.63964 | .439 | -114.7362 | 260.7362 |
| | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| Residential Property Owned by Women | Property owned by Men | -133.88571 | 86.69346 | .128 | -307.6956 | 39.9242 |
| | Property owned by Women | -136.17143 | 86.69346 | .122 | -309.9814 | 37.6385 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Men | -87.60000 | 93.63964 | .354 | -275.3362 | 100.1362 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Men | 8.40000 | 93.63964 | .929 | -179.3362 | 196.1362 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Women | 13.40000 | 93.63964 | .887 | -174.3362 | 201.1362 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Men | 14.73333 | 89.65313 | .870 | -165.0104 | 194.4770 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Women | 16.40000 | 89.65313 | .856 | -163.3437 | 196.1437 |
| | | | | | | |

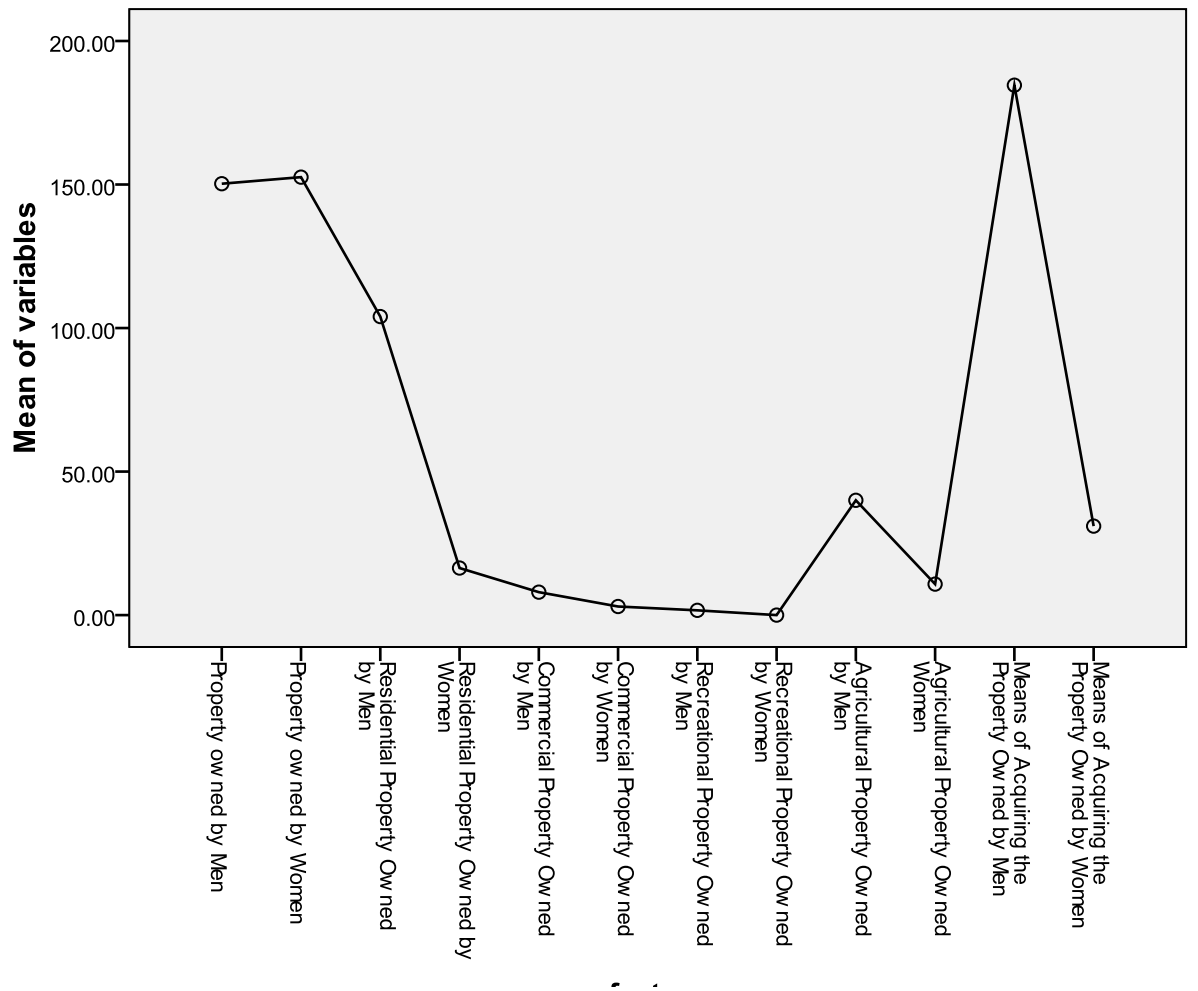
| | | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|--|------------|----------|------|-----------|----------|
| | Agricultural Property Owned by Men | -23.60000 | 93.63964 | .802 | -211.3362 | 164.1362 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned Women | 5.60000 | 93.63964 | .953 | -182.1362 | 193.3362 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Men | -168.20000 | 93.63964 | .078 | -355.9362 | 19.5362 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Women | -14.60000 | 93.63964 | .877 | -202.3362 | 173.1362 |
| Commercial Property Owned by Men | Property owned by Men | -142.28571 | 86.69346 | .107 | -316.0956 | 31.5242 |
| | Property owned by Women | -144.57143 | 86.69346 | .101 | -318.3814 | 29.2385 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Men | -96.00000 | 93.63964 | .310 | -283.7362 | 91.7362 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Women | -8.40000 | 93.63964 | .929 | -196.1362 | 179.3362 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Women | 5.00000 | 93.63964 | .958 | -182.7362 | 192.7362 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Men | 6.33333 | 89.65313 | .944 | -173.4104 | 186.0770 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Women | 8.00000 | 89.65313 | .929 | -171.7437 | 187.7437 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned by Men | -32.00000 | 93.63964 | .734 | -219.7362 | 155.7362 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned Women | -2.80000 | 93.63964 | .976 | -190.5362 | 184.9362 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Men | -176.60000 | 93.63964 | .065 | -364.3362 | 11.1362 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Women | -23.00000 | 93.63964 | .807 | -210.7362 | 164.7362 |
| Commercial Property Owned by Women | Property owned by Men | -147.28571 | 86.69346 | .095 | -321.0956 | 26.5242 |
| | Property owned by Women | -149.57143 | 86.69346 | .090 | -323.3814 | 24.2385 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Men | -101.00000 | 93.63964 | .286 | -288.7362 | 86.7362 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Women | -13.40000 | 93.63964 | .887 | -201.1362 | 174.3362 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Men | -5.00000 | 93.63964 | .958 | -192.7362 | 182.7362 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Men | 1.33333 | 89.65313 | .988 | -178.4104 | 181.0770 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Women | 3.00000 | 89.65313 | .973 | -176.7437 | 182.7437 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned by Men | -37.00000 | 93.63964 | .694 | -224.7362 | 150.7362 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned Women | -7.80000 | 93.63964 | .934 | -195.5362 | 179.9362 |

| | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|------------|----------|------|-----------|----------|
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Men | -181.60000 | 93.63964 | .058 | -369.3362 | 6.1362 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Women | -28.00000 | 93.63964 | .766 | -215.7362 | 159.7362 |
| Recreational Property Owned by Men | Property owned by Men | -148.61905 | 82.37146 | .077 | -313.7639 | 16.5258 |
| | Property owned by Women | -150.90476 | 82.37146 | .072 | -316.0496 | 14.2401 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Men | -102.33333 | 89.65313 | .259 | -282.0770 | 77.4104 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Women | -14.73333 | 89.65313 | .870 | -194.4770 | 165.0104 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Men | -6.33333 | 89.65313 | .944 | -186.0770 | 173.4104 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Women | -1.33333 | 89.65313 | .988 | -181.0770 | 178.4104 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Women | 1.66667 | 85.48091 | .985 | -169.7122 | 173.0456 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned by Men | -38.33333 | 89.65313 | .671 | -218.0770 | 141.4104 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned Women | -9.13333 | 89.65313 | .919 | -188.8770 | 170.6104 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Men | -182.93333 | 89.65313 | .046 | -362.6770 | -3.1896 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Women | -29.33333 | 89.65313 | .745 | -209.0770 | 150.4104 |
| Recreational Property Owned by Women | Property owned by Men | -150.28571 | 82.37146 | .074 | -315.4306 | 14.8591 |
| | Property owned by Women | -152.57143 | 82.37146 | .069 | -317.7163 | 12.5734 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Men | -104.00000 | 89.65313 | .251 | -283.7437 | 75.7437 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Women | -16.40000 | 89.65313 | .856 | -196.1437 | 163.3437 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Men | -8.00000 | 89.65313 | .929 | -187.7437 | 171.7437 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Women | -3.00000 | 89.65313 | .973 | -182.7437 | 176.7437 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Men | -1.66667 | 85.48091 | .985 | -173.0456 | 169.7122 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned by Men | -40.00000 | 89.65313 | .657 | -219.7437 | 139.7437 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned Women | -10.80000 | 89.65313 | .905 | -190.5437 | 168.9437 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Men | -184.60000 | 89.65313 | .044 | -364.3437 | -4.8563 |

| | | | | | | |
|--|--|------------|----------|------|-----------|----------|
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Women | -31.00000 | 89.65313 | .731 | -210.7437 | 148.7437 |
| Agricultural Property Owned by Men | Property owned by Men | -110.28571 | 86.69346 | .209 | -284.0956 | 63.5242 |
| | Property owned by Women | -112.57143 | 86.69346 | .200 | -286.3814 | 61.2385 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Men | -64.00000 | 93.63964 | .497 | -251.7362 | 123.7362 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Women | 23.60000 | 93.63964 | .802 | -164.1362 | 211.3362 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Men | 32.00000 | 93.63964 | .734 | -155.7362 | 219.7362 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Women | 37.00000 | 93.63964 | .694 | -150.7362 | 224.7362 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Men | 38.33333 | 89.65313 | .671 | -141.4104 | 218.0770 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Women | 40.00000 | 89.65313 | .657 | -139.7437 | 219.7437 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned Women | 29.20000 | 93.63964 | .756 | -158.5362 | 216.9362 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Men | -144.60000 | 93.63964 | .128 | -332.3362 | 43.1362 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Women | 9.00000 | 93.63964 | .924 | -178.7362 | 196.7362 |
| Agricultural Property Owned Women | Property owned by Men | -139.48571 | 86.69346 | .113 | -313.2956 | 34.3242 |
| | Property owned by Women | -141.77143 | 86.69346 | .108 | -315.5814 | 32.0385 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Men | -93.20000 | 93.63964 | .324 | -280.9362 | 94.5362 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Women | -5.60000 | 93.63964 | .953 | -193.3362 | 182.1362 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Men | 2.80000 | 93.63964 | .976 | -184.9362 | 190.5362 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Women | 7.80000 | 93.63964 | .934 | -179.9362 | 195.5362 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Men | 9.13333 | 89.65313 | .919 | -170.6104 | 188.8770 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Women | 10.80000 | 89.65313 | .905 | -168.9437 | 190.5437 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned by Men | -29.20000 | 93.63964 | .756 | -216.9362 | 158.5362 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Men | -173.80000 | 93.63964 | .069 | -361.5362 | 13.9362 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Women | -20.20000 | 93.63964 | .830 | -207.9362 | 167.5362 |
| Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by | Property owned by Men | 34.31429 | 86.69346 | .694 | -139.4956 | 208.1242 |

| | | | | | | |
|--|--|------------|----------|------|-----------|----------|
| Men | Property owned by Women | 32.02857 | 86.69346 | .713 | -141.7814 | 205.8385 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Men | 80.60000 | 93.63964 | .393 | -107.1362 | 268.3362 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Women | 168.20000 | 93.63964 | .078 | -19.5362 | 355.9362 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Men | 176.60000 | 93.63964 | .065 | -11.1362 | 364.3362 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Women | 181.60000 | 93.63964 | .058 | -6.1362 | 369.3362 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Men | 182.93333 | 89.65313 | .046 | 3.1896 | 362.6770 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Women | 184.60000 | 89.65313 | .044 | 4.8563 | 364.3437 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned by Men | 144.60000 | 93.63964 | .128 | -43.1362 | 332.3362 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned Women | 173.80000 | 93.63964 | .069 | -13.9362 | 361.5362 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Women | 153.60000 | 93.63964 | .107 | -34.1362 | 341.3362 |
| Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Women | Property owned by Men | -119.28571 | 86.69346 | .175 | -293.0956 | 54.5242 |
| | Property owned by Women | -121.57143 | 86.69346 | .167 | -295.3814 | 52.2385 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Men | -73.00000 | 93.63964 | .439 | -260.7362 | 114.7362 |
| | Residential Property Owned by Women | 14.60000 | 93.63964 | .877 | -173.1362 | 202.3362 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Men | 23.00000 | 93.63964 | .807 | -164.7362 | 210.7362 |
| | Commercial Property Owned by Women | 28.00000 | 93.63964 | .766 | -159.7362 | 215.7362 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Men | 29.33333 | 89.65313 | .745 | -150.4104 | 209.0770 |
| | Recreational Property Owned by Women | 31.00000 | 89.65313 | .731 | -148.7437 | 210.7437 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned by Men | -9.00000 | 93.63964 | .924 | -196.7362 | 178.7362 |
| | Agricultural Property Owned Women | 20.20000 | 93.63964 | .830 | -167.5362 | 207.9362 |
| | Means of Acquiring the Property Owned by Men | -153.60000 | 93.63964 | .107 | -341.3362 | 34.1362 |

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.



APPENDIX 4B
Test of Hypothesis II

Descriptive Statistics

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Minimum | Maximum |
|--------------------|----|--------|----------------|---------|---------|
| Constraint factors | 14 | 2.9166 | .78424 | 1.86 | 4.33 |

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

| | | Constraint factors |
|-----------------------------------|----------------|--------------------|
| N | | 14 |
| Normal Parameters ^{a, b} | Mean | 2.9166 |
| | Std. Deviation | .78424 |
| Most Extreme Differences | Absolute | .131 |
| | Positive | .131 |
| | Negative | -.107 |
| Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z | | .490 |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | | .0070 |

a. Test distribution is Normal.

APPENDIX 4C
Test of Hypothesis III

Descriptives

Variable

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | | Minimum | Maximum | Between-Component Variance |
|----------------|----|-------|----------------|---------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------|---------|---------|----------------------------|
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | | | |
| Anambra State | 25 | .6848 | .20565 | .04113 | .5999 | .7697 | .32 | .94 | |
| Enugu State | 25 | .6628 | .21437 | .04287 | .5743 | .7513 | .26 | .92 | |
| Imo State | 25 | .6628 | .20299 | .04060 | .5790 | .7466 | .28 | .89 | |
| Total | 75 | .6701 | .20517 | .02369 | .6229 | .7173 | .26 | .94 | |
| Model | | | .20773 | .02399 | .6223 | .7179 | | | |
| Fixed Effects | | | | .02399 ^a | .5669 ^a | .7733 ^a | | | -.00156 |
| Random Effects | | | | | | | | | |

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Variable

| Levene Statistic | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|------------------|-----|-----|-------|
| .169 | 2 | 72 | .0845 |

ANOVA

Variable

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|------|------|
| Between Groups | .008 | 2 | .004 | .093 | .011 |
| Within Groups | 3.107 | 72 | .043 | | |
| Total | 3.115 | 74 | | | |

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable:variable

| | | | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|-------------|---------------|---------------|--------------------------|------------|-------|-------------------------|-------------|
| (I) factors | (J) factors | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| LSD | Anambra State | Enugu State | .02200 | .05875 | .709 | -.0951 | .1391 |
| | | Imo State | .02200 | .05875 | .709 | -.0951 | .1391 |
| | Enugu State | Anambra State | -.02200 | .05875 | .709 | -.1391 | .0951 |
| | | Imo State | .00000 | .05875 | 1.000 | -.1171 | .1171 |
| | Imo State | Anambra State | -.02200 | .05875 | .709 | -.1391 | .0951 |
| | | Enugu State | .00000 | .05875 | 1.000 | -.1171 | .1171 |

APPENDIX 4D
Test of Hypothesis IV

Descriptives

Variable

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | | Minimum | Maximum | Between-Component Variance |
|---------------------|----|--------|----------------|------------|----------------------------------|-------------|---------|---------|----------------------------|
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | | | |
| Economic Factors | 8 | 3.3625 | .87081 | .30788 | 2.6345 | 4.0905 | 1.39 | 4.20 | 2.68126 |
| Law/legal Factors | 7 | 3.3629 | 1.13257 | .42807 | 2.3154 | 4.4103 | .98 | 4.43 | |
| Political Factors | 4 | 3.5850 | .80144 | .40072 | 2.3097 | 4.8603 | 2.48 | 4.22 | |
| Educational Factors | 3 | 4.1500 | .03000 | .01732 | 4.0755 | 4.2245 | 4.12 | 4.18 | |
| Sociial Factors | 15 | .6440 | .22909 | .05915 | .5171 | .7709 | .34 | .91 | |
| Total | 37 | 2.3484 | 1.58577 | .26070 | 1.8197 | 2.8771 | .34 | 4.43 | |
| Model | | | .69973 | .11504 | 2.1141 | 2.5827 | | | |
| el Random Effects | | | | .85099 | -.0144 | 4.7111 | | | |

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Variable

| Levene Statistic | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|------------------|-----|-----|------|
| 2.018 | 4 | 32 | .116 |

ANOVA

Variable

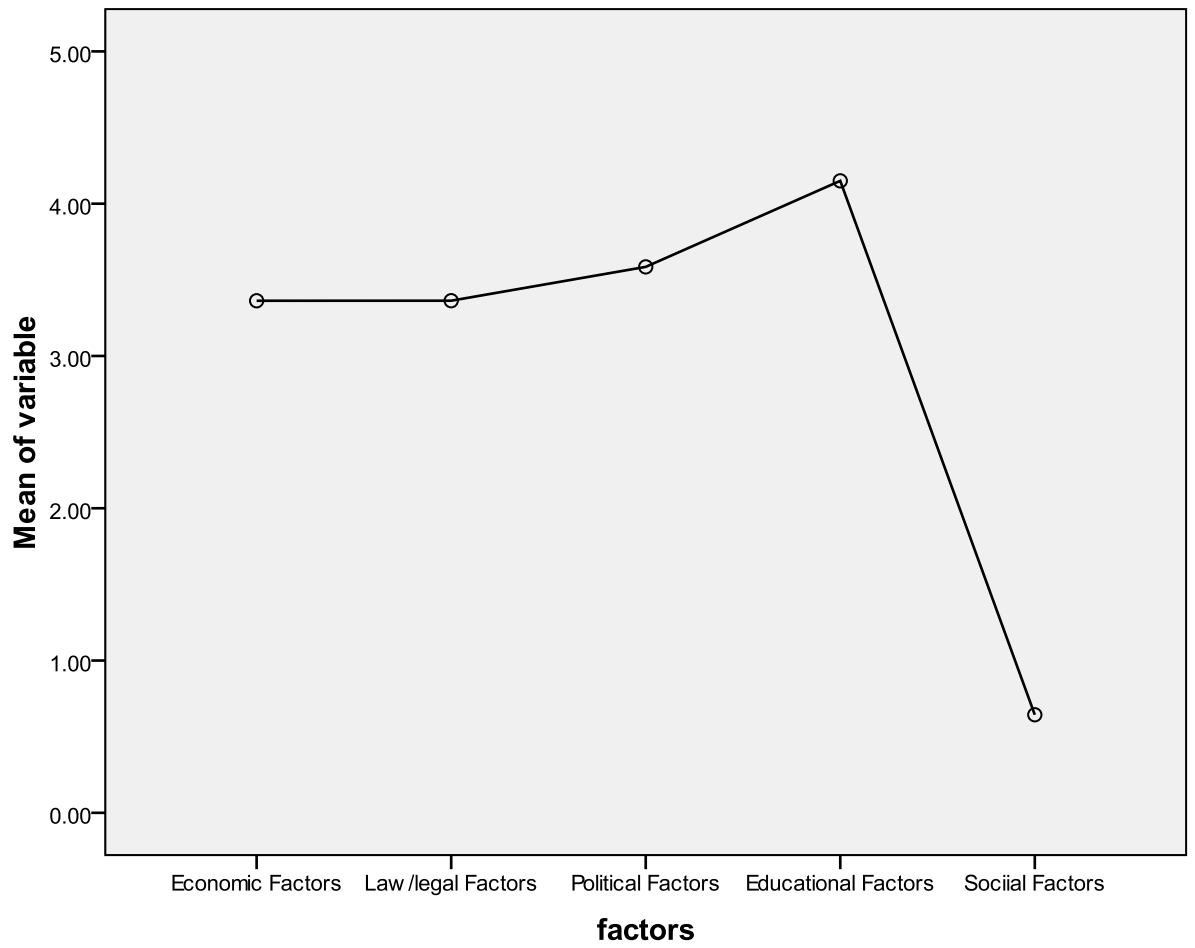
| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|--------|------|
| Between Groups | 74.860 | 4 | 18.715 | 38.223 | .000 |
| Within Groups | 15.668 | 32 | .490 | | |
| Total | 90.528 | 36 | | | |

Multiple Comparisons

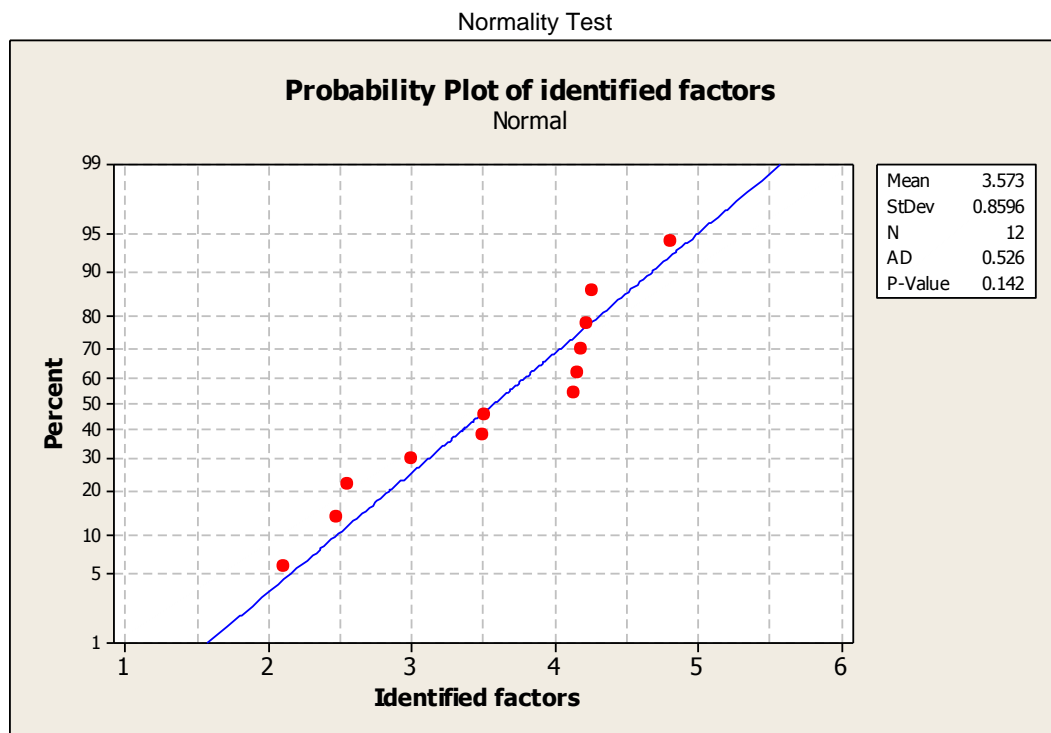
Dependent Variable: variable

| | | | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|-------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------|-------------------------|-------------|
| (I) factors | (J) factors | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| LSD | Economic Factors | Law/legal Factors | -.00036 | .36215 | .999 | -.7380 | .7373 |
| | | Political Factors | -.22250 | .42850 | .607 | -1.0953 | .6503 |
| | | Educational Factors | -.78750 | .47372 | .106 | -1.7524 | .1774 |
| | | Sociial Factors | 2.71850 [*] | .30634 | .000 | 2.0945 | 3.3425 |
| | Law/legal Factors | Economic Factors | .00036 | .36215 | .999 | -.7373 | .7380 |
| | | Political Factors | -.22214 | .43858 | .616 | -1.1155 | .6712 |
| | | Educational Factors | -.78714 | .48286 | .113 | -1.7707 | .1964 |
| | | Sociial Factors | 2.71886 [*] | .32029 | .000 | 2.0664 | 3.3713 |
| | Political Factors | Economic Factors | .22250 | .42850 | .607 | -.6503 | 1.0953 |
| | | Law/legal Factors | .22214 | .43858 | .616 | -.6712 | 1.1155 |
| | | Educational Factors | -.56500 | .53443 | .298 | -1.6536 | .5236 |
| | | Sociial Factors | 2.94100 [*] | .39376 | .000 | 2.1389 | 3.7431 |
| | Educational Factors | Economic Factors | .78750 | .47372 | .106 | -.1774 | 1.7524 |
| | | Law/legal Factors | .78714 | .48286 | .113 | -.1964 | 1.7707 |
| | | Political Factors | .56500 | .53443 | .298 | -.5236 | 1.6536 |
| | | Sociial Factors | 3.50600 [*] | .44255 | .000 | 2.6046 | 4.4074 |
| | Sociial Factors | Economic Factors | -2.71850 [*] | .30634 | .000S | -3.3425 | -2.0945 |
| | | Law/legal Factors | -2.71886 [*] | .32029 | .000 | -3.3713 | -2.0664 |
| | | Political Factors | -2.94100 [*] | .39376 | .000 | -3.7431 | -2.1389 |
| | | Educational Factors | -3.50600 [*] | .44255 | .000 | -4.4074 | -2.6046 |

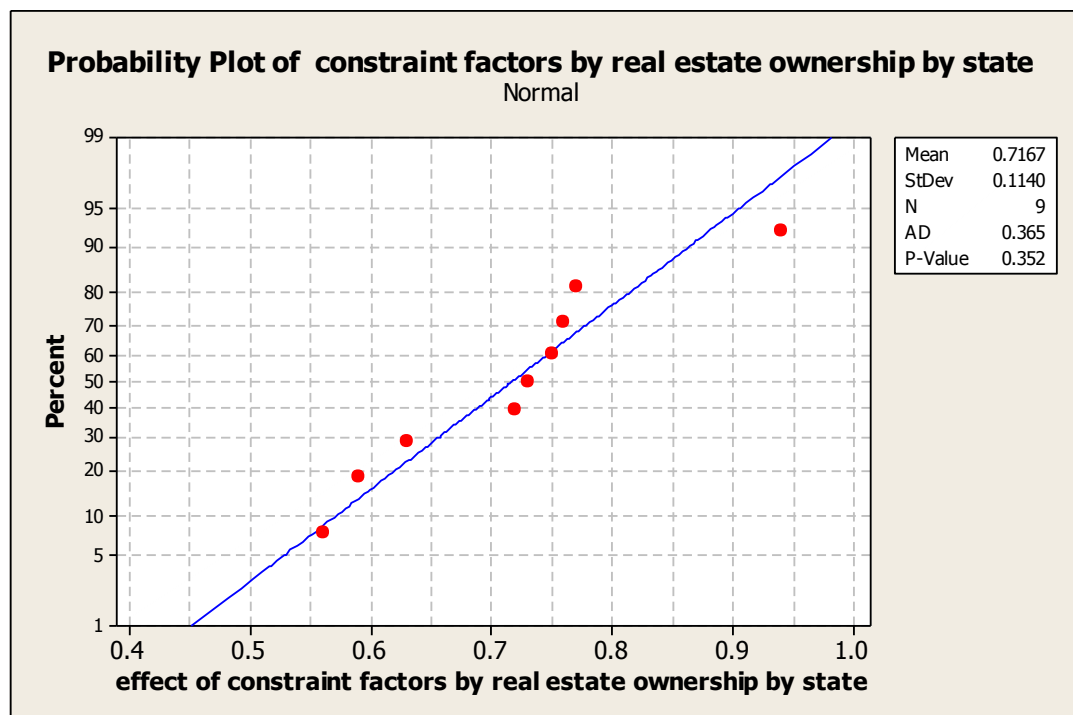
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.



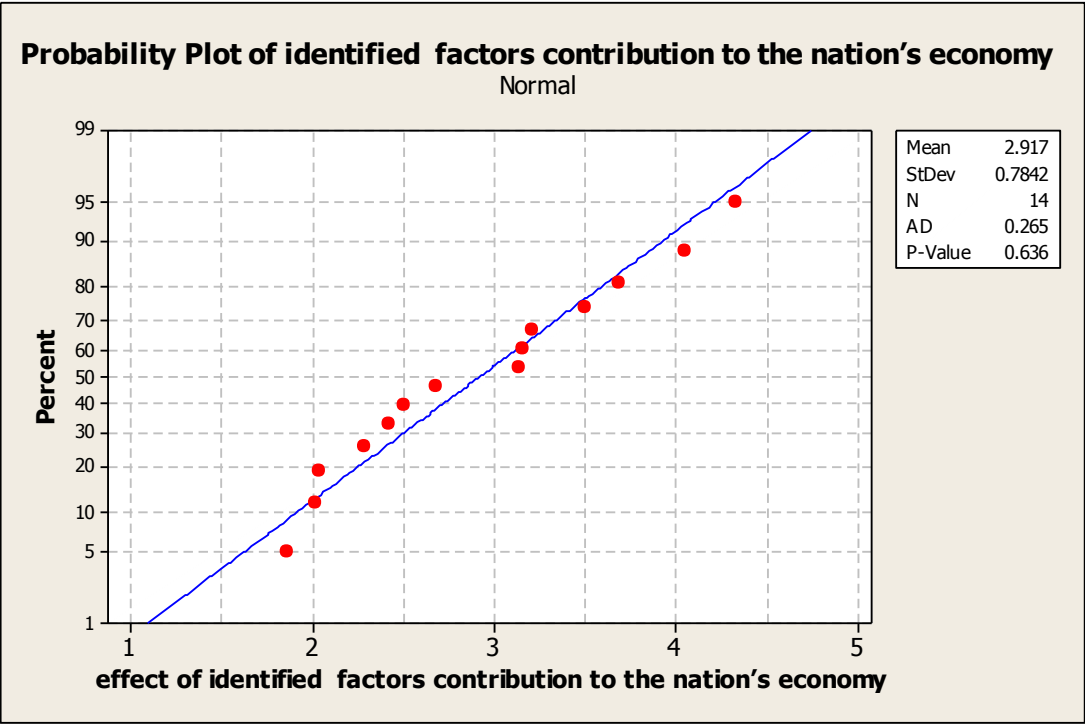
APPENDIX 4E



From the analysis above, it shows that the data for identified factors are normally distributed since the probability value (0.142) is greater than the alpha value (0.05)



From the analysis above, it shows that the data on how identified constraint factors affect real estate ownership by women among the individual states in the South East Nigeria are normally distributed since the probability value (0.352) is greater than the alpha value (0.05)



From the analysis above, it shows that the data on how identified factors affect women's contribution to the Nigerian economy are normally distributed since the probability value (0.636) is greater than the alpha value (0.05)